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IACCM-IÉSEG Research Conference 2019

Intercultural competencies for a disruptive VUCA world: Exploring creativity, innovation, resilience & resistance in intercultural research, training & management

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IÉSEG School of Management

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

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Editor's Foreword

The IACCM-IÉSEG 2019 Conference and the Doctoral Workshop "**Intercultural competencies for a disruptive VUCA world: Exploring creativity, innovation, resilience & resistance in intercultural research, training & management**" was held in Paris in October 2019 in cooperation with the IÉSEG School of Management.

The IACCM (International Association of Cross-Cultural Competence and Management) is an academic forum for experts in all fields of research who take an interest in and are concerned with cross-cultural topics. The project was initiated by the International Studies Centre at the Vienna University of Economics and Business Administration. The IACCM network is designed to offer its participants the opportunity to provide information and exchange views, thereby facilitating and intensifying international co-operation. Regularly organized conferences and the publication of a refereed journal (EJCCM, European Journal of Cross-Cultural Competence and Management) revised by an international editorial board guarantees additional information exchange at a high academic level.

Established in 1964, IÉSEG School of Management is one of the top business schools in France. As a French Grande École and member of the Conférence des Grandes Écoles, IÉSEG is one of the most prestigious higher education institutions in the country. It has also been awarded the triple crown of international accreditations: AACSB, AMBA, and EQUIS. ICIE is one of IÉSEG's centers of excellence. Founded in 2017, ICIE brings together academics, instructors and staff from different departments who wish to collaborate and exchange practices regarding intercultural dynamics in business and the development of intercultural competence. ICIE organizes research and practitioner events such as seminars, symposia or conferences focused around intercultural dynamics and their underpinning processes. It offers a better understanding into those phenomena via the academic and practitioner publications of its members. It shares expertise via executive training programs and consultancy. It provides insights into the development of intercultural competence among its staff, students and other partners.

Over 130 delegates from all over the world attended IACCM-IÉSEG 2019 conference. Through the strong cooperation between IACCM and SIETAR organisations this conference brought together academics and practitioners alike in order to foster the dialogue between practice and theory in the cross-cultural field.

This publication includes the conference papers from the academic and practitioner tracks as well as student papers from the doctoral workshop.

The best paper and the "that´s interesting" award was judged by a panel comprised of Dr. Jacob Vakkayil and Grant Douglas (IÉSEG School of Management), Dr. Carolin Debray (University of Warwick/UK) and Dr. Barbara Covarrubias Venegas (University of Valencia/Spain).
The IACCM2019 student best paper award was judged by a panel consisting of professors Prof. Marie-Thérèse Claes (Louvain School of Management/Belgium), Prof. Yochanan Altman (Editor-in-Chief of European Management Review), and Prof. Chiara Cannavale (Universitá Parthenope/Italy).

And now — enjoy the excellent variety of articles about intercultural competencies for a disruptive VUCA world: Exploring creativity, innovation, resilience & resistance in intercultural research, training & management.

in cooperation with:

Dr. Barbara COVARRUBIAS VENEGAS

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Creativity in intercultural teams: Which indicators, facilitators and competencies?

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Abstract

This paper and the research project it is talking about are "work in progress". We give an insight into the subject of creativity in intercultural teams looking for innovative products. Our project aims not only at the identification of creativity indicators and facilitators but also at a better understanding of the necessary – individual and collective – competencies. We set out by presenting the results of our literature review and our research methodology. Then, we pass on to an example out of our qualitative data where diversity and humor become explicit creativity indicators and facilitators. Finally, we give an outlook on the next research steps.

Keywords: Creativity, Innovation, Diversity, Humor, Intercultural, Management, Competence

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Pia Stalder has worked for several private companies and for the Swiss Parliament. Until 2014, she was a Scientific Advisor to the International Affairs of the State Secretariat for Education, Research & Innovation (SERI).

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1. Introduction

In our rapidly changing world, creativity and innovation are key elements of the entrepreneurial success. The ongoing globalization process, growing mobility, digitalization and rapidly changing markets turn many – if not most – business contexts into "intercultural" systems where people need to be creative and negotiate new forms of collaboration and cohabitation. It is that environment we are interested in and looking at in the research project we are going to talk about.

It is important to state right at the outset that we have a broad understanding of the culture concept. Based on our readings of the publications by North American anthropologists (e. g. Sapir 1921, Kroeber & Kluckhohn 1952, Hall 1976), on the work by Cuche (1996), Wicker (1997), Rivera (2000), Giordano (2003 & 2008), Kilani (2009) or Pretceille (2012), we define cultures as forms of organization individuals and groups negotiate and co-construct in their daily interactions (Gohard-Radenkovic & Stalder 2013). Thus, in our view, the culture concept mustn't be reduced to artistic products or national allegiances. Cultures are dynamic systems; individuals and groups are active "culture engineers" (Stalder 2018, 2019). By *inter*culture we understand the negotiation process of new forms of organization (see also Beneke 1995). People involved in that process are challenged by "in-between" situations and by the volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA) they bring along. Today, strong intercultural competencies are necessary to "navigate" in the challenging "VUCA" waters surrounding us.

In our paper we give an insight into a research project in progress. We are interested in the subject of creativity in intercultural teams. On the one hand, our goal is to identify indicators and facilitators of team creativity. On the other hand, we aim at developing new assessment and training tools for intercultural teams. In our project, we ask the following questions:

What is creativity?

What makes a team creative? More precisely, which are the indicators and facilitators of team members' creativity?

Does diversity play a role and, if so, how is it to handle or to manage?

And, in the end, which are the individual and collective key competencies for the collaboration in those specific and highly dynamic contexts?

Our research work is empirical and interdisciplinary (anthropology, psychology, linguistics and management). Our methodology is not only deductive and quantitative, but also inductive and qualitative: the first approach allows us to identify key dimensions for studying and assessing

creativity; the second gives us access to field observations, filmic data and "micrological" analysis of verbal and nonverbal team interactions.

In this paper we start by the literature review and the definition of three key concepts: creativity, innovation and humor. We present then our methodology and open afterwards the perspective on an example out of our qualitative data where creativity is indicated and facilitated by the team members' diversity and emerging humor. We conclude our paper by the outlook on our next research steps.

2. Creativity in intercultural teams – dimensions and facilitators

2.1 Creativity and innovation

Creativity and innovation are interconnected concepts. They have to be considered as highly dynamic, emergent and multidimensional phenomena (Anderson, Potocnik & Zhou 2014), which need strong individual and collective competencies to contribute to the expected entrepreneurial – and social – benefits.

Creativity is often understood as the preliminary phase of innovation, as the idea generation phase, whereas innovation is considered as the implementation process of those ideas (cf. e. g. Hotz-Hart & Rohner 2014). Innovations can be seen as possible operationalizations of an individual's or a group's creativity. In a nutshell, creativity and innovation are integral parts of the same process. Accordingly, Anderson & al. (op. cit.: 1298) suggest an integrative definition of creativity and innovation:

Creativity and innovation at work are the process, outcome, and products of attempts to develop and introduce new and improved ways of doing things. The creativity stage of this process refers to idea generation, and innovation refers to the subsequent stage of implementing ideas toward better procedures, practices, or products. Creativity and innovation can occur at the level of the individual, work team, organization, or at more than one of these levels combined but will invariably result in identifiable benefits at one or more of these levels of analysis.

In our research project we are looking at creativity and innovation in the entrepreneurial context. We consider the three levels – individual, team, organization –, which are strongly interconnected. Nevertheless, in our paper we concentrate on team level creativity. We adopt an *interactionist* perspective on the process. Our theoretical framework, our methodology, data collection and analysis are basically built on the following definitions. For Plucker & al. (2004: 90):

Creativity is the interaction among aptitude, process, and environment by which an individual or group produces a perceptible product that is both novel and useful as defined within a social context.

Palmer (2016) has broadened that definition. She has not only studied and integrated Plucker & al.'s work, but also other experts' views (namely Barron 1955, Amabile 1988, Feist 1998, Simonton 1999 and Sternberg & Lubart 1999). In the conclusions of her book on work-related creativity diagnostics, she defines creativity as:

the interaction between intelligence, expertise, personality traits, and motivation as individual dispositions with process stage dependent demands and environmental conditions by which an individual or group produces a perceptible product that is both novel and useful as defined within a social context. (Palmer 2016: 366)

2.2 Creativity in intercultural teams

According to the *Socio-Cultural Manifesto* (Glaveanu & al. 2019: 2) "creative action is, at all times, relational". We share the signatories' view, that:

there is no form of human creativity that does not rely on direct, mediated, or implicit social interaction or exchanges. Even when working in solitude, we implicitly build on and respond to the views, knowledge, and expectations of other people. (*Ibid*.)

Nevertheless, people are not always more creative when working in teams. Creativity also needs individual cognitive work and the corresponding time, place and space to do it (Schuler & Görlich 2007, Glaveanu & al. 2019). Teamwork can even be counterproductive: according to the signatories of the *Socio-Cultural Manifesto* (op. cit.: 2) "the social element should not be romanticized; personal conflicts, incompatible styles, and other issues may decrease collaborative creative efforts".

Similar limitations apply to the diversity factor. Although the diversity of team membership has been shown to be generally positive for group creativity (see e. g. Amabile & Kurtzberg 2001 or Milliken, Bartel, & Kurtzberg 2003), there is still little scientific work on the nature of that impact (Folk 2019). More scientific knowledge is needed not only about the various dimensions, indicators and facilitators of team creativity but also on the influence of different diversity types. Folk (op. cit.) mentions that the diversity type addressed in this context is foremost diversity of thought. The hypothesis is that "different mindsets, attitudes, matrices of experience and culture will make it more likely that more diverse ideas will be created, than if the group would consist of people who share cultural, educational and professional touchstones" (Folk, op. cit.: 6).

For Page (2017) the "diversity bonus" not only depends on the type of diversity, on the individuals who form the team and on the culture of the latter – promoting or hindering the members' successful interaction –, but also on the task. The author observes that "diversity bonuses occur most often within teams of cognitive workers engaged in nonroutine tasks" (op. cit.: 7). Phillips (2017) and Page

share the fundamental assumption that every team has some level of "identity diversity" and "cognitive (or informational) diversity", as no two individuals are exactly the same. In Phillips' view, as groups work together, the goal should be to increase the presence of that cognitive diversity and the willingness to express those differences to capture the diversity bonus in groups that are facing complex, difficult, and uncertain problems. (Phillips 2017: 227)

In consequence, intercultural teams[1] in innovation contexts face two challenges of creativity: they not only need creativity for finding novel and useful products but also for managing their diversity and for succeeding the co-construction of their collaboration cultures, which demands strong willingness, ability and knowledge from all the actors involved. In order to work together and to implement novel ideas, strong intercultural competence is needed. We understand intercultural competence as:

the ability to negotiate cultural meanings and to execute appropriately effective communication behaviors that recognize the interactants' multiple identities in a specific environment. (Chen & Starosta 1996: 358-359)

In the next subchapter we look at the question of creativity assessment. Which are the key dimensions to take into account for a better understanding of team creativity and, in the end, for developing tools and training methods contributing to the enhancement of it?

2.3 Assessment of team creativity

Traditionally, creativity research and assessment differentiate 4 dimensions – or 4 "Ps". They are closely interrelated: Product, Person, Process, Press (Rhodes 1961, Mooney 1963, Kirton 1989, Sternberg & Lubart 1991, Anderson & West 1996, Amabile 1996, Amabile et al. 1999, Plucker & al. 2004, Schuler & Görlich 2007, Paschen & al. 2014, Stöwe & Wiederhake 2014, Wassmann 2014, Jiang & Zhang 2014, Palmer 2016, Borges Formiga Sobrinho 2019, cf. e. g. Palmer 2016: 24ff).

Product: What is assessed here is the creative *outcome* produced by an individual or a team.

Person: The analysis is focused on the *individual's potential* and *competences*.

Process: The attention is paid to individuals' and teams' *ability to go through all the necessary stages* for achieving the goal (new and useful product/service).

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[1] According to the definition of "interculture" introduced above (chapter 1), an intercultural team is a group of people with different – experiential, professional, disciplinary, national, linguistic, etc. – background whose collaboration history is still short; the team culture is not consolidated yet.

Press: The *environmental influences and impacts*, the *scope of action and freedom to act* are examined.

Today, depending on the researchers' – or practitioners' – views, concerns, centers of interest and goals, two or even three further Ps are added to the four classical core dimensions (cf. e. g. Paschen & al. 2014, Stöwe & Wiederhake 2014, Palmer 2016, Borges Formiga Sobrinho 2019):

Persuasion: Study of the capability to convince others of the new solution.

Potential: Assessment of the individuals' or teams' potential to solve the problem.

Purpose: The meaningfulness of the creativity's result – to the creator and to others – is examined.

According to Folk (2019) or to Chompunuch, Ribiere & Chanal (2019) numerous studies have been done to better understand individual creativity, but only few have been conducted to deeply understand what constitutes team creativity. Thus, little attention has been paid to creative collaboration or shared idea-generation for decades, except from the work by Amabile & Kurtzberg (2001) and later by Sawyer & al. (Sawyer 2003, 2008, 2011; Sawyer & DeZutter 2009). As Folk observes and shows in her article, the interest in teams' creativity has been growing since, both in academia (De Dreu, Nijstad, Bechtoldt & Baas 2011; Edmondson & Harvey 2018; Elisondo 2016; Gilley, Morris, Waite, Coates & Veliquette 2010; Hill 2014; Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst & Cooper 2014 – as quoted by Folk) and in business (Bahcall 2019; Catmull & Wallace 2014; Coyle 2018; Johnson 2010 – as quoted by Folk) – for the reason being that:

organizations are facing more and more complex challenges that can no longer be solved by creative individuals only. They need "Teams" with diverse skills, ideas and knowledge to creatively solve these challenging issues (Chompunuch & al. 2019: 1).

Until lately, researchers have above all underlined the importance of the following dimensions for team creativity assessment:

- demographic diversity (age, gender, origins) and functional diversity (educational background, knowledge, competencies), team modification (members who leave, new ones who arrive) (Reiter-Palmon, Wigert & de Vreede 2012);
- group structure and composition (Gupta & Banerjee 2016);
- group cohesion (Gupta & Banerjee 2016);
- psychological and participative security as well as trust and commitment to tasks (Paulus, Dzindolet & Kohn 2012).

Chompunuch, Ribiere & Chanal (2019) have recently conducted a systematic literature review on the concept of team creativity and its related building dimensions. From the 77 relevant papers they have analyzed emerge 15 dimensions (summarized by the authors in the illustration below) that are important for team creativity:

Diversity (such as educational background, functional diversity, demographic diversity, personality)

Climate (psychological atmosphere in a team and its environment)

Leadership

Conflict Management

Task and Goal Interdependence

Reflexivity

Cohesion

Individual Creativity

Mental Models

Motivation

Creative Thinking and Problem-Solving Styles

Team Psychological Safety (the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking)

Team Creative Efficacy (members believe in the ability of the team to produce creative results)

Transactive Memory System (knowledge of "who knows what?" within the team) and, finally

Team Longevity (duration of the team's collaboration)

Team Creativity Dimensions

Team Diversity
Team longevity
Climate for Creativity and Innovation
Transactive memory system
Creative Leadership Styles
Team creative efficacy
Conflict management
Psychological Safety
Task and Goal interdependence
Creative thinking Styles/Problem Solving...
Team reflexivity
Creative Motivation
Team Cohesion
Team mental models
Individual Creativity

Figure by Chompunuch & al. 2019: 12

Chompunuch & al.'s review, figure and clear description of the 15 key dimensions for team creativity is the most complete synopsis we have found so far.

If we compare those 15 dimensions with the four original and classic ones – product, person, process and press – we observe that they are all (except from "individual creativity") strongly related to the process and press dimensions. That fact stresses the unsurprising but crucial importance of team members' – verbal and non-verbal – communication, interaction and collaboration competences for team creativity. According to Chompunuch & al.'s review, the consideration of the product dimension seems of lesser importance if it comes to team creativity assessment. Nevertheless, in our opinion, because of the strong interrelatedness of all the four classic core dimensions, it makes sense to keep an eye on the product dimension, too.

At this stage of our project, the outcome of our literature review is a fundamental milestone: we consider it as a result itself, which explains the important place we have decided to give it in our paper. It provides us with the theoretical basis for compiling the items of the questionnaire we are developing in order to assess teams' creativity.

The next and last chapter of our review is focused on the subject of humor. Literature, our field observations and our interaction analysis across various projects (Stalder 2010, 2019 or Stalder & Agbobli 2019) show that positive humor is a powerful communication strategy in intercultural teams.

2.4 Creativity and humor in intercultural teams

According to extant literature, there is not only an interconnection between creativity and innovation, but also between creativity and humor (Ziv 1984 or Berger 1993, cf. Lang & Lee 2010). Humor is a universal communication mode (Apte 1985 or Lefcourt 2001). Martin (2007: 5) defines humor as:

anything that people say or do that is perceived as funny and tends to make others laugh, as well as the mental processes that go into both creating and perceiving such an amusing stimulus, and also the affective response involved in the enjoyment of it.

Humor and laughter are not recent research subjects. Much work has been done on humor as a social practice in specific – also professional – contexts. Scientists have looked at its functions, effects, advantages and limits or risks (e. g. Martin 2003 ; Martin, Rich & Gayle 2004 ; Romero & Cruthirds 2006 ; Bottega 2008 ; Lang & Lee 2010 ; Wood & al. 2011 ; Autissier & Arnéguy 2012 ; Wisse & Rietzschel 2014 ; Chlopicki & Brzozowska 2017). Researchers have stated humor's positive impact on creativity and innovation (Csikszentmihalyi 1996, Brotherton 1996, Schlicksupp 2004 or Wood 2011). For Csikszentmihalyi (op. cit.) "liberating humor" (i. e. humor that facilitates the freeing of old mindsets, cf. Lang & Lee 2010: 47) can stimulate divergent, unconventional, creative, and innovative thinking. In Ziv's view (1983), humor instills a contagious "fun mood" in which original ideas are likely to emerge. According to Romero & Cruthirds (2006: 62) the lack of sharp criticism leads to a safe environment allowing people to act on creative thinking and implement new ideas more freely. Wood & al. (2011: 32) mention that both humor and creativity are associated with conditions that include:

incongruity that is resolved by the juxtaposition of different ideas, perspectives or frames;

a non-evaluative, playful attitude that is free from the usual constraints imposed by performance goals and rational analyses;

heightened attention and conscious processing of information with sudden shifts in the focus of attention to discover new connection or structures;

experiences of pleasurable, positive affect, such as surprise, satisfaction and stimulation.

Although the interest in the connectedness of creativity and humor is growing (cf. Lang & Lee op. cit.) there is still a lack of empirical studies on humor and creativity, above all in intercultural work settings. Therefore, we have integrated that subject into our research project.

3. Methodology

Our research is empirical. We gather quantitative as well as qualitative data. On the one hand, we proceed in a deductive way. Based on extant creativity literature, diagnostics' methods and tools we identify dimensions, indicators and factors of individual, team and organizational creativity. Then, we compare those findings with our field observations and our qualitative data. In a third step, we develop and test (together with another academic institution, the UAS Lucerne, and 7 business partners in Switzerland) an online tool for assessing creativity on the three different levels mentioned above (cf. also Kaudela-Baum, Gisin & Nussbaum 2019).

On the other hand, we collect filmic data. It comes from the "Innovation Game". The Innovation Game is a competitive activity we have been developing since 2014. We use it for training master students (MA and MBA) in intercultural communication and team management. During that game, the participants have to design, construct, name and pitch an innovative piece of office furniture. So far, more than 160 people have participated in this game and our data consists of 17 hours of videos. To better understand the creativity process and to identify the indicators and factors we are looking for, we adopt an anthropological perspective on our data. We watch the videos and, in a first step, look out for "Rich Points" (Agar 1994), this is to say: interaction sequences where team members' creativity is particularly explicit; e. g. where their collaborative efforts to produce a perceptible, novel product as well as their willingness, ability and knowledge to recognize, appreciate and combine all the members' "identity diversity" and "informational diversity" (Phillips 2017) become perceptible. In a second step we go more in depth: we transcribe the sequences and use filmic interaction analysis (e. g. Mondada 2005 or Stalder 2010).

The goal of this two-way approach is not only to compare and critically discuss the results of the qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The closer, "micrological" look at teams' interactions aims at learning more about individual and collective key competencies for creativity in intercultural working groups. The ultimate objective of the project is to develop, together with business partners, a novel tool for creativity assessment – and promotion – at the individual, team and organizational levels.

The next chapter opens the perspective on the filmic data. We give a glimpse of an interaction sequence, where the link between diversity, humor and creativity becomes explicit.

4. Diversity and humor – creativity facilitators?

In our films of intercultural teams, humor and laughter are frequent. Unsurprisingly: the interactions take place in an educational setting and the participants are all MBA students of more or less the same age. They know each other well and take part in a game. The rules are transparent and the same for everybody. All these aspects contribute to an egalitarian, playful and comfortable atmosphere, which limits the risks of negative humor and exclusive laughter.

The interaction sequences we present and discuss hereafter come from a team of master students filmed in a Swiss university in 2017.

Illustration 1 – The Team

A   B   C

We have studied the three team members' interactions during one specific phase of the game, the phase during which they have to find the name for the piece of furniture they have invented, designed and constructed (with the only material made available, i. e. white paper sheets, a stapler and/or an adhesive tape, a pair of scissors). In the creativity and innovation process of this game, the prototype itself is not the only product. The name to be found can be interpreted as a "product", too.

The team – composed of people with diverse professional, cultural and linguistic backgrounds and with a considerable set of different experiences – has conceived and built a sofa bed. The product itself is not particularly innovative.

Illustration 2 – The Prototype
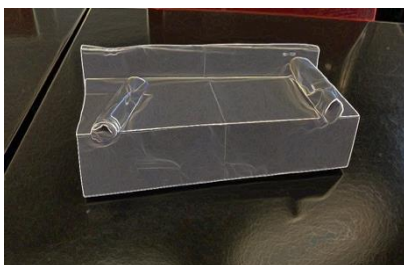
It is the name created during the interaction among the team members that turns the sofa bed into an innovation. During the interaction process, A has made a first suggestion for the name of the sofa-bed.

Sequence 1 – (0.00-0.22)

(1) A : Sleep Biz ((laughing)).
(2) B : Sleep Biz (..) ahm ...
(3) A : Biz, like business.
(4) B : Ahh/, Sleep Buiss!
(5) A : Biz. B, I, Z.
(6) B : B, I, Z, *ja*.
(7) A : B, I, Z.
(8) B : Sleep Biz ((while contemplating the prototype, B tilts his head from the left to the right)).

Yet, neither B nor C are convinced of this first idea. C takes the floor. He mitigates his face threatening act against B by welcoming and appreciating first her proposal. Only then he asks for the consideration of alternatives.

Sequence 2 – (0.23-1.05)

(9) C : Only (..), yeah, it sounds good, but let's give it *another* name [xxx].
(10) B : Which one ?
(11) C : We could call it Funo.
(12) B : Funo ?
(13) C : Funo, what means, Funo is a very rare bed, you know, a bed ((he cannot find the verb « fly » in
(14) English and uses gesture (bird flying)), this ⌈flies⌉, yes ((continues))
(15)   B: ⌊yeah⌋.
(16) C : it is a very rare bed, if you find it, you will be very lucky. So, this kind of couch I mean, if you
(17) live, if you buy it, you are a kind of a lucky person, you know. It is just, special.
(18) B ((to A)): I know who is selling it at the end.
(19) ((the 3 of them are laughing))
(20) B: Funo?
(21) C: Yeah, so, we should call it ⌈Funo⌉. How do you see?
(22)   B: ⌊Funo⌋
(23) B: It's a Funo.
(24) A: How do you spell it? ⌈F, U, … O⌉.
(25)   C: ⌊F, U, N, O⌋.
(26) B: Yes, Funo, ⌈Funo⌉.
(27) A: ⌊Funo⌋.
(28) B: It's a Funo.
(29) C: Yes, it's Funo, you know, it is a kind of, ⌈something very special⌉
(30)   B: ⌊Okay, what is the meaning/⌋, again/?
(31) C: Yeah, it is a bed, you know ((imitates once more the wings of a bird flying)), and this bed, to find
(32) it, to see ⌈it⌉ is very rare, very rare to see it.
(33)   B: ⌊Yeah⌋.
(34) C: And if you see it, like, you can, you know, according to our tradition, and you feel like, "oh, I
(35) am very lucky".

(36) B: Ok.
(37) C: Yes, so…
(38) B: Funo.
(39) A: Funo.
(40) C: Funo.

C suggests "Funo" for the sofa bed. C is originally from Tanzania. He explains that, according to the Tanzanian tradition, Funo means a very rare bed (line 31). A Funo flies, he explains, and also brings luck to those who get the chance to see it. C's proposal surprises A and B. The name is unfamiliar to them. It contrasts with their knowledge, experience and imagination. Thus, Funo is new. The "product" Funo is the result of the team members' interaction. In particular, it is their identity diversity that has favored their creativity and the originality of the outcome.

The proposal of "Funo" has an impact on the collaboration climate. There is a moment of surprise and astonishment which inspires humor: B is making fun of the situation. He turns to A and says "I know who is selling it in the end", meaning: it will be up to C to take the responsibility and the lead to present the prototype in order to explain the name's story and sense during the pitching session in plenary. B's humor translates into common laughter: the three team members meet on the same "scene". Their laughter expresses a moment of shared emotions.

Illustration 3 – Shared Laughter

In those interaction sequences diversity and humor indicate and facilitate the team's creativity. The members and the team are creative in the sense that they produce novel outcomes (e. g. the name). They confront their identities and combine their ideas in a playful, constructive manner. The three of them succeed in going together through all the stages of the creativity process. While doing so, they use their diversity as a resource. In addition, by using positive humor, A, B & C co-construct a comfortable collaboration climate which makes them feel safe so as to dare taking the necessary risks for getting to their novel product, which is "Funo".

In the specific context under study here, humor and laughter are strongly linked to positive emotions. Among other, they mitigate face-threatening acts, facilitate leadership delegation among peers and ease stress. They are important factors of the interaction climate. The empirical example thus supports theory. In theory, climate counts among the top dimensions for team creativity (Chompunuch & al. op. cit.). Team members show strong intercultural communication competences: they listen to each other well and negotiate their solutions while fully recognizing their multiple identities.

The example presented and discussed here is not representative of creativity in intercultural teams. Thus, at this stage of the project, diversity and humor cannot yet be considered as − empirically validated − facilitators of creativity; more research work has to be conducted on the subject in order to be able to do so. In addition, the observation and filming should be extended to other places, e. g. to innovation teams' interactions in "real" entrepreneurial work settings.

5. Conclusions and outlook

Creativity is a multifactorial and complex process. Cultural heterogeneity (in the sense we have defined the concept of culture in the introduction to our paper) adds to that complexity. In the innovation context, intercultural teams not only face the challenge of creating and developing new products, but also of negotiating and creating their working culture.

In the end, we are only at the beginning… What we have succeeded so far is, on the one hand, building a theoretical framework for the development of our quantitative approach to the assessment of creativity in intercultural teams. On the other hand, we have identified interesting film sequences in our data which allow for "micrological" analysis of intercultural teams' verbal and nonverbal interactions in the innovation context.

That two-way approach will now be continued, deepened, improved. It shall lead to the better understanding of the conditions and competences for creativity to emerge *in* and *from* the field, albeit the volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity characterizing today's working environments.

6. Transcription conventions (*cf.* Mondada 2005 or Stalder 2010)

(.), (..), (…), (4s)	pauses from 1 to 3, or 4 and more seconds
…	hesitation
[…]	omission
((description))	interaction description
⌐	overlap S1 (his/her speech overlaps with S2)
⌐	overlap S2 (his/her speech overlaps with S1)
‖	overlap S3 (his/her speech overlaps with S1 and S2)
//	interruption between S1 and S2
/ and \	intonative increase or decrease
[xxx]	unintelligible segment
(expression)	uncertain segment

7. Selective References

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International organizations' evolutionary impacts:
"The good, the bad and the ugly"?

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Abstract

Digitalization and globalization have changed the ways firms conduct their activities, multinational business enterprise (Coviello, Kano, & Liesch, 2017; Vahlne & Johanson, 2017) or global service firms (Kundu & Lahiri, 2015; Rammal & Rose, 2014) are now mainstream. This calls for a review of firms' value creation evaluation in relation to ethics. The use of traditional economic performance indicators is less and less relevant as business metrics (Yoon, 2017) and what's more performativity is social problematic (Fleming & Banerjee, 2016).

The objective of this conceptual paper is to enable theoretical development regarding organization behavior and export promotion and financing, with a focus on the account of the stakeholders' interests and CSR. I do a critical analysis on how and why EPOs produce the status quo among firms through their support. After understanding some of the root causes of this situation, I discuss what could be done in order to move towards supporting "corporate citizenship" (Banerjee, 2001, 2008, 2018b) oriented firms.

Regarding contributions this is the first time a research links the behavioral theory of the firm, CSR and the evolutionary mismatch hypothesis.

Keywords: Corporate citizenship; International Business; Stakeholders; International organizations; Export Promotion and financing; Behavioral Theory of the Firm; Evolutionary view; Evolutionary mismatch

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Introduction

Digital transformation has changed the ways firms conduct their activities, which might pose new ethical problems (Marshall, 1999). Multinational business enterprise (MBEs) (Coviello et al., 2017; Vahlne & Johanson, 2017) or global service firms (Kundu & Lahiri, 2015; Rammal & Rose, 2014) have become mainstream and this trend calls for a review of international firms' value creation and externalities measurement indicators. In the field of IB, when assessing the level of internationalization of firms the traditional metrics, e.g. the exports' amount based on equalizing value created with tangible goods produced or sold, seem less and less relevant (Yoon, 2017) and what's more performativity is social problematic (Fleming & Banerjee, 2016). Indeed firms, with the digitalization of the economy, have a significant part of their business based on knowledge only activities hence involving less or no physical goods circulation. This challenges the functioning and impact evaluation of their customers (in their current format) of export promotion and financing (EP-F) organizations since they equal added value with the amount of tangible goods produced. This restricted definition ignores the existence of externalities from the firms' activities, such as "necrocapitalism" (Banerjee, 2018a), for the society sustainability (Moratis & Melissen, 2019) and the individuals' health due to evolutionary mismatch (Giphart & Van Vugt, 2018; Hegde, 2015; Lieberman, 2013). And poses the following research questions: How international organizations reproduce "the good, the bad and the ugly" through export promotion and financing?

We anchor our conceptual research in the fields of IB and organizational behavior theories and especially the sub-literature of EP-F. As there is a gap in the literature on EP-F theoretical development (Gillespie & Riddle, 2004) in a first part we suggest some theoretical grounds, in the form of a cross-analysis review of four classic books (Ansoff, 1970; Carlson, 1975; Cyert & March, 1963; Luostarinen, 1979) in management, organization and international business. Our analysis has implications for the behavior of the firm, the strategic decision-making, the internationalization theory and the individual stakeholder. We discuss these results in the form of an analysis of firms' goals, distinguishing capabilities from willingness, and we propose to integrate firms' externalities in the behavioral theory of the firm (BTF).

Review

The IB field acknowledges the critical role of ethics in changing environment of business. Managers and governments need new ways of thinking to consider the new forms of conducting business and firm organization (Penrose, 1959, p. 235) especially the digital era (Coviello et al., 2017). To discuss these implications we depart from IB classic way of doing business through export and focus on EP-F services providers.

Since EP-F literature had so far produced little, or none, theoretical development (for a discussion on theoretical development in EP-F see Gillespie & Riddle, 2004), in order to overcome this gap we inquired into four classic books in management, organization (in the sense of the "business firm") and international business. Those four books are: the *Behavioral theory of the firm* from Cyert & March (1963)*;* the *Corporate strategy* from Ansoff (1970); Carlson's thesis (Carlson, 1975) *How foreign are foreign trade?*; and Luostarinen's thesis (1979) *Internationalisation of the firm.* The books were selected based on their relevance to the topic of the firm's evolution, especially the internationalization behavior. Those authors have made key contributions to the field of IB and the topic of organization's decision behavior and decision-making process. We place the focus on the work from C&M and the BTF since it has been influential on other authors and other fields, particularly of "*evolutionary economics, organi[z]ation studies, and strategic management*" (Piórkowska & Stańczyk-Hugiet, 2017, p. 248). Looking into the decision processes of firms to go international represents a relevant lead for EP-F theoretical development since EP-F services intend to incentivize firms' internationalization, originally through exports as a main entrance strategy.

Regarding the study of firm's evolution in IB, Vahlne & Johanson (2017) suggested to take into account the individuals' dimension in a new version of their classic theoretical model, the Uppsala model or internationalization process (IP). They proposed to study evolution by looking at the sum of individuals' changes, aggregated at the firm's level. Coviello, Kano & Liesch (2017) argued that the IP model overlooked the individual dimension as a key foundation in the international evolution of the firm. Clarke & Liesch (2017) also mentioned the need to focus on the role of individuals. They proposed that the modified IP model should account for the individual decision maker rather than for the decision-making system. Especially they pointed out the importance to include uncertainty and risk management in the internationalization process of firms. And they stated this omission as the main limit of two of the other most used IB models (aside from the IP model): the eclectic paradigm (OLI, (Dunning, 1988a, 1988b, 2000; Dunning & Mcqueen, 1981)) and the transaction cost theory (TCT, (O. E. Williamson, 1981, 2005, 2008)). According to Clarke & Liesch the OLI and TCT, although they accounted for the aspect of risk in international decisions, overlooked certain aspects of risk

management (i.e. the operational risk tolerance of the firm and its existing risk level acceptance) by neglecting the decision unit of analysis. Indeed IB focus is essentially about the firm-level (Toyne, 1989; Toyne & Nigh, 1998)[i] and they treated it as a black-box (Aharoni, 2010).

Since "*all human behaviors include an evolutionary explanation*" (Durante & Griskevicius, 2018, p. 7) taking an evolutionary lens is relevant to study the behavior of the firm. Yet Forsgren (2008, p. 65) stated that "*evolutionary theory [as in the fields of economics and business] offers no real possibility to question the social role of the multinational firm*". Therefore I proposed to take a dual approach of evolution (Lloyd, 2015): on one side as a process, emphasizing the time dimension and temporal co-evolution between institutions and changing environments, and on the other side as a product, through evolutionary biology (Ewald, 1980; Nesse & Williams, 1994) and the evolutionary mismatch (EM) hypothesis (Giphart & Van Vugt, 2018; Hegde, 2015; Lieberman, 2013).

In the essay we follow on Vahlne & Johanson's (2017) recommendation to account for evolution, with a stronger emphasize on the individual dimension as suggested by Coviello, Kano & Liesch (2017). And we complement Clarke & Liesch's (2017) review of theoretical models with the analysis of four classic readings, which were not accounted for in their article. The four books are historically following each other. We summarized and compared their research approaches and contributions in the following tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: Summary of the four book's research approaches

Books	Purpose	Research question(s)	Research method	Unit of analysis	Target audience
1- Cyert & March (1963)	To bring in the individual in the theory of the firm (economic and managerial variables into a common framework	How organizational objectives are formed? How strategies are evolved? And how decisions are reached within those strategies?	Positivistic, normative: develop a general model with predictive power and confirm it through specific application in case studies	Firm and all organizations that make decisions (e.g. non-business organization)	Managers and policy makers

for

decision-

making)

		To develop a strategic decision theory of the firm (both the individual and the institutions have influence on firms' strategic decisions)	How people in general and executives in particular, make strategic decisions, either individually or in groups within a firm? Can we produce a resource allocation pattern?	Normative, from theory to practice: development of new concepts, methods, procedures and frameworks based on theories reviewed from other fields (a checklist for practical application)	Business firm (business as the nature of the firm and not the decision-maker's mind)	Managers (US)
2- Ansoff	(1970[1965])					
3- Carlson	(1975)	Analysis of problems caused by the lack of knowledge ("level of ignorance", in Ansoff) in international operations (focus on knowledge of the	What importance has the knowledge factor (cultural distance and degree of foreignness) in international business operations?	Literature review of articles, references and recent studies	Firm	Academic scholars, primary Sweden, and IB in general

	internation al market)				
4- Luostarinen (1979)	Analysis of problems caused by the small size of open domestic markets (focus on direct environmen t of the firm, its domestic market)	Why do companies start internationalizing their activities? How have companies internationalized? Whether there is any orderly pattern to be found, dictated by the degree of lateral rigidity, and especially whether there is any orderly combined product-operation-market pattern through which the company's internationalization proceeds?	Positivistic approach: develop a theoretical frame and test its validity from the end	3 units of analysis: 1) companies 2) firms' environment and activities 3) international environment	Academic scholars, primary Finland, and IB in general, policy makers, SMEs, small open economie s

Understanding especially Luostarinen's work and contribution to EP-F seemed key to the purpose of EP-F theorizing due to his formulation of a theory of SMEs internationalization process and his recognition of the importance of IB finance. He specifically cited Cyert & March (1963). Sune Carlson (1975) was the first, as one of the IB founding fathers, to contribute to an IB finance literature, which included export finance. He did not explicitly quote C&M (1963), but he used of behavioral theory of the firm. Ansoff (1970) explicitly stated C&M's influence on his work development. His strategic decision theory will be the basis of the concluding proposal, of an EP-F strategy, to re-conceptualize EP-F policies.

Table 2: Summary of the four book's contributions

Books	Theoretical influences	Key concepts	Findings	Limits	Citation impact[ii]
1- Cyert & March	Coase, Simon, Marschak, Friedman. Departs from the theory of the firm.	The firm pursues several competing goals at the same time: survival sustainability, making satisfactory profit. Firms use simple rules and rules of thumb; they are not rational.	Organizations avoid uncertainty, rather than minimize it. Organizations collect data to make predictions, but they do not follow those.	Restrictive usefulness of the BTF for evaluation. No address of the initiation phase of decision-making. No investigation of individuals' motives influence on the firm.	Book citations: 27'754 on Google Scholar Authors': 78 on JSTOR (JIBS)
2- Ansoff	Cyert & March, Drucker, Keynes, Simon & Newell, Andersen, Drucker. Departs from the capital investment theory.	Define strategy based on the military decision-making method. Business decisions are ranked according to the firm's level of ignorance. The firm should have a strategy for it social function.	Decisions are made along information gathering. Organizational strategy has 4 components: product-market scope, growth vector, synergy and competitive advantage	The impact of individuals' non-economic objectives have not been developed; no account of internally generated influences.	Book citations: 296 on Google Scholar Author's: 21 on JSTOR (JIBS)

3- Carlson	Simon, the Carnegie School, Cyert & March, Aharoni. Departs from the practical observation of the importance posed by the knowledge problem.	The firm pursues several non-competing goals at the same time: long-term growth (after survival), short-term profit and financial stability. Uncertainty is related to the lack of knowledge due to the degree of foreignness.	The decision to go abroad is influenced by knowledge accumulation and acquisition costs. Knowledge accumulation follows a learning-by doing curve.	Use of secondary material only (possible interpretation bias).	Book citations: 213 on Google Scholar Author's: 47 on JSTOR (JIBS)
4- Luostarinen	Cyert & March, Ansoff, Penrose, Aharoni, Vaivio. Departs from Ansoff's organization strategy conceptualiza-tion.	Lateral rigidity. Role of time as a resource. Product-operation-market framework.	Internationalization is explained by smallness combined with openness of the domestic market. Internationalization can be a condition for survival.	Internationalization stage model, does not explain INV; time as a resource constraint, not process oriented; use of disaggregated data.	Book citations: 182 on Google Scholar Author's: 17[iii] on EBSCO (JIBS)

For a detailed summary of each classic book mentioned in the table 2, see appendix.

Results

Cross-analysis of the four classics: the behavior of the firm, the strategic decision-making, the internationalization theory and the individual stakeholder

In the four books, there was either an underestimation of the individual's weight (customer and employee) and influence on the firm (Cyert and March, 1963), especially concerning individuals' motives, or the individual was simply not the unit of analysis (Ansoff 1970, Carlson 1975, Luostarinen 1979). For instance, Ansoff did not focus on the individual level of analysis, although he initially stated his clear intention to integrate both the individual's and the institutions' influences on the firm. None of the three other classics included internally generated influences.

The last years there was an increase in the importance of the societal weight impact on firms' business (Banerjee, 2001, 2018b; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Tan & Wang, 2011) and the requirement to contribute within the scope of sustainable development (Dommerholt, 2009; Melissen & Moratis, 2016). Technological developments, such as the Internet, the instant circulation of information through digital media, the existence of international market makers platforms (Klein, Quelch, Klein, & Quelch, 1998) or the international diffusion of information due to the generalization of the use of English as the main business and communication language, have enabled the creation of groups of consumer and the emergence of communities. These gave more voice to customers' pressure, which consequently have impacted the changes of business practices (among others CSR, (Ansoff, 1970)) and the acceleration of this trend. For instance in all industrialized-countries the offer of gluten-free, organic and now locally produced products came to the market as a request from the individuals. In less then five years, in addition to the opening of numerous opportunities, all existing small and big market providers have also had to adapt their offers. If the evident complexity (if not "impossibility") to forecast and therefore to theorize individual's behavior would explain a neglect of focus on the individual, on the other side groups' behavior and the spread of social trends (e.g. due to customers' pressure) from local and domestic to international markets can be anticipated (see for instance the group effect of Ramadan on financial markets investments, (Al-khazali, 2014; Bialkowski, Etebari, & Wisniewski, 2012; Seyyed, Abraham, & Al-Hajji, 2005)).

The stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984 as in Elbaz & Laguir 2014; Buysse & Verbeke, 2003; Henriques & Sadorsky, 1999) could be used as a basis to revisit the theories from the four classics reviewed. Yet "*the [stakeholder] theory lacks the production of knowledge able to explain the complex and multi-faceted social relationships between the company and its stakeholders*" as quoted by (Berman, Wicks, Kotha, & Jones, 1999). The stakeholders' social influences have already been studied in IB to link the firms' strategic behavior with e.g. the environmental commitment (J. Williamson, 1966) and the financial performance (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). Researchers have also explored the relationship between international behavior of firms and CSR (Attig, Boubakri, El Ghoul, & Guedhami, 2016; Dinçer, Yüksel, Korsakiene, Raišiene, & Bilan, 2019; Ma, Zeng, Shen, Lin, & Chen, 2016; Strike, Gao, & Bansal, 2006). But to our knowledge no research has yet theoretically revisited the internationalization

evolutionary process model (Santangelo & Meyer, 2017; Vahlne & Johanson, 2017) to integrate the increasing role of different stakeholders' pressure linked with the digitalization of the (business) exchanges. On one side the digitalization of business democratizes and accelerates the internationalization of firms. On the other side the raise of big data in all segments of the economy (and also in impact evaluation (Olsson & Bull-Berg, 2015)), makes the global competition more challenging for the non-users and late-adopters. Hence increasing the need to account for CSR global management (Lee, 2008).

Discussion

Primary goal profit maximization, and the capability dimension

Guided by the US government's (Shelburne, 1997) and the European (Barnier, 2014; European Commission, 2014) policies, export promotion organizations (EPOs) implicitly justify their actions on the unchallenged (since first EPOs' emergence in the 19th century) assumption that firm's primary goal is growth (Carlson, 1975) and profit maximization (Berger & Udell, 1998; Cressy & Olofsson, 1997). Those are the assumptions of economic theories, which are very deterministic and take one single perspective into account; whereas management, organization and IB theories are more contextual (e.g., related to the firm's goals, the "*integration-responsiveness framework originally proposed by Prahalad (1975)*" (Ghoshal, 1987)) and they accommodate unexpected (explanatory) perspectives therefore enabling for richer and more realistic research. Those were also the assumptions of Johanson and Vahlne's original internationalization model (1977). EPOs' purpose in a nutshell would be to promote IB activities and help firms to sell abroad. That means EPOs either want to support or influence a firm's strategic evolution towards international markets. Through their offer of services for growth and international expansion governments implicitly assumed the unity of firms' goal. That goal would or should be performativity (Fleming & Banerjee, 2016), i.e. to seek profit maximization (based on the classic economic theory of the firm) through growth, hence exports and subsequent international commitments. Indeed EP-F initiatives are focused around raising firms' awareness of export opportunities and mitigating risks in export transactions through the use of export financing and guarantees.

Assuming the uniformity of firms' primary goal, EPOs have focused their promoting actions on the capabilities dimension. Indeed historically governments have justified their action through the assumption of either a finance market gap (Vos, Yeh, Carter, & Tagg, 2007) or the level playing field (Shelburne, 1997). The access to financial resources is seen by EP-F agencies as problematic for SMEs, Small and Medium Caps (SMCs[iv]) and MidCaps, while the level playing field issue is considered to be especially critical for large firms. Investment finance theories are based on the same unique economic

assumption of profit maximization. For instance regarding theories of investment, relevant in IB for FDI strategies: *"neoclassical theory, accelerator principle and Tobin's Q-theory of investment, all three theories assume optimization behavior on behalf of the decision maker (investor)."* (Eklund, 2013, p. 3). Yet, in a recent article, Welch, Nummela, & Liesch (2016) found that firms with an increased owner's involvement were "*financially safer firms and more profitable and that it was not related to growth*" (p.70). Therefore it is important to carefully select and interpret the meaning given to "performance" in the indicators used for impact evaluations.

I suggested that the EPOs create the status quo among their firm customers. This relative static situation would possibly prevent the happening of creative destruction (Schumpeter, 1934), hence change and renewal of older firms. As stated by Forsgren (2008, p. 148) longevity and survival are not necessarily a good thing in a changing environment and a volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA) world. Due to co-evolution mimetism behavior between EP-F actors and because of the level playing field argument- EPOs would tend to extend an existing support and/or to grant again the same firms they already supported through their services' design, hence maintaining firms' exporting and "expansionist monopoly capital" consolidation (Banerjee, 2003).

Regarding the level playing field argument, in his review of US government export promotion (Shelburne, 1997, p. 78) stated that: "*What is apparent when looking at the large number and variety of U.S. export promotion activities is that there is not one or two economic justifications for current policies but many that are often program-specific. In addition to the many economic welfare arguments, there are a number of equity, foreign policy, and social policy concerns that have been advanced to support export promotion efforts; in some cases invalid but popular argument such as the level playing field one are advanced. Thus it is very difficult to put forth a general criteria for evaluating these export promotion policies; instead, each needs to be evaluated in terms of its unique and specific circumstances*."

The level playing field argument is a dangerous justification to maintain existing support services for some old ineffective industries and/or detrimental for the national economy and the society sustainability (Banerjee, 2003, 2018a). Moratis & Melissen (2019) identified three root causes for unsustainability: 1) growth and the illusion that it would be infinite; 2) evolutionary mismatch (EM); and 3) instrumental thinking. Growth and means-end logics are already well stated and researched in social science literature, especially in CSR, impact assessment studies and the intersection of CSR-risk-financial performance (Davenport, 2000; Pava & Krausz, 1996; Price & Sun, 2017), but EM has not been accounted for so far. According to the EM hypothesis, the individuals' needs require non-international concrete situations with physical contacts, since the human biology is evolutionary

adapted to local context and it is influenced and regulated in its entirety by nature's circadian rhythm (Giphart & Van Vugt, 2018). Considering the EM hypothesis in relation to firm's international behavior would shed some new light on the impacts of IB activities especially for the wellbeing of the employees involved, and as feedback consequences for the functioning, performance and survival of the firms. The neglect to account for the individuals stakeholder dimension in firm's internationalization behavior lead to the ignorance of internal influencing factors (Penrose, 1959). Although at the level of the country the promotion of exports and IB support seems justified due to the expected economic benefits the impacts for the workers involved are potentially negative in multiple ways.

Through embracing this biological view of evolution, and accounting for the EM as product-evolution, (Lloyd, 2015) my approach offers the possibility for future studies to account for and audit the social role of the MNEs (Forsgren, 2008) or MBEs (Coviello et al., 2017; Vahlne & Johanson, 2017) in relation to their global corporate citizenship impact (Lee, 2008; Andreas G. Scherer & Palazzo, 2008). It offers a specific criterion, a zero-kilometer landmark, on which firms could possibly create consistency across their successive corporate policies (Levis, 2006) independently from their business particularities. Accounting for the EM hypothesis in relation to CSR is especially relevant in order to focus on firm's environmental and employee commitments (Davenport, 2000).

Alternative goals, and the willingness dimension

In a chronological order Cyert & March (1963, p. 31) have defined goals according to their description of firms as a coalition of individuals. Since "*people (i.e. individuals) have goals, not collectivities of people*" the definition of goals at the macro level of the organization should depart from the individual level. According to Luostarinen *"A firm [can be] regarded as a purposeful system, as an economic entity, which strives for a common goal or set of goals"* (Luostarinen 1979, p.24). Firms can pursue several competing (Cyert & March, 1963) or non-competing (Sune Carlson, 1975) goals at the same time; those will be either short- or long-term oriented. Such goals are presented in the scheme below.

Table 3: Firms' goals

Firms' goal(s)	Sources
Survival sustainability	Cyert & March (1963), Luostarinen (1979)
Financial stability	Carlson (1975), Vos & Roulston (2008)
Satisfactory profits	Cyert & March (1963), Carlson (1975)
Growth	Carlson (1975), Johanson & Vahlne (1977)

Profit maximisation	Traditional theory of the firm
Social function	Ansoff (1970)

The table above depicts different firm's goals. These goals are various assumptions that are prioritized by firms according to their different cultural context (Hofstede, Deusen, Mueller, & Charles, 2002). This is mainly due to diverging opinions about the fundamental purpose of the corporation, i.e. why do firms exist? (Graeber, 2019). Indeed the field of economics assumes there would be a unity and uniqueness of firm's goal, the profit maximization. From a management and organization science's angle, firm's goal can be manifold, either profit or turnover maximization or firm size growth. Finally from the society's point of view, firms beyond their goals should fulfill a social role and therefore they (would) have CSR, e.g. environmental protection, contribution to the wellbeing of its employees and to reduce the inequalities[v]. Yet CSR is also (mis)used by firms in order to legitimize their power (Banerjee, 2008).

In finance, Vos et al. (Vos & Roulston, 2008; Vos et al., 2007) proposed an alternative to the financing gap hypothesis for SMEs through the "*contentment (or 'happiness') hypothesis*"; they demonstrated that "*'connections' themselves provide utility*" (p.2649): "*Financial research based on presumptions of separateness seem inappropriate for the SME sector, since financial frustration (e.g. agency costs and a finance-gap) does not describe a connected reality with happiness as a by-product. The challenge for future researchers is to avoid using a Jensen and Meckling (1976) base case for SME financial analysis and hon[o]r the connectedness – happiness linkage shown here and elsewhere so that we may build structures for analysis from a connectedness perspective. Then we will gain a deeper understanding of the total – not just financial – contribution SMEs make to society.*" (2007, p.2669)

In the IB literature, one specific goal of firms, which might have been overlooked, is the firms' risk management strategy (Clarke & Liesch, 2017; Miller, 1992); risk mitigation is specifically the rational of export financing. The speed of the digitalization of the economy and the acceleration of the exchanges, have amplified the state of risk and uncertainty in IB processes in particular and business in general. Since Cyert & March (1963) we know that firms prefer to avoid uncertainty: "*Firms attempt to avoid uncertainties of competition by using standard industry practice and negotiated risk-avoiding agreements.*" (p.179). Their findings were in contradiction with the assumptions of previous classic decision theories, which searched for "*certainty equivalents (e.g. expected value) or introducing rules for living with the uncertainties (e.g. game theory)*" (p.167). Regarding risk-taking Cyert & March particularly emphasized its role in the decision-making process and the importance to distinguish the

individual managers from the firm as the individual and the organization have different risk preferences and risk taking behaviors (p.227).

Because IB theories have minimized or took a one-dimensional role of finance as a resource, there is a research gap regarding the role of finance as a credit and social trustworthiness indicator. Indeed, all firms might not have a social goal but they all have a social function, which can be labeled as social "role". As stated earlier (Ansoff, 1970) firms should have a strategy for their social function but this is usually not the primary goal of a firm and it is also time-consuming and expensive to implement. Yet this social function is more and more a requirement from consumers and the increasing access to and diffusion of information associated with the digitalization makes it an irreversible trend (see for a social networks communication example the boycott of the "Black Friday" by the firm la Camif, a French furniture company (Jacquillat, 2017)). As the ability of the government to regulate the global business is questioned a greater consideration of the public interest is expected from the business firm (Andreas Georg Scherer, Palazzo, & Matten, 2014). This social function of the firm is already accounted for in Germany, Netherlands and especially the United Kingdom since 2006 with the Article 172 of the "Company Act". Recently even a very conservative country like France has entered debates whether the social purpose of firms[vi] should be written in the Article 1833 of its "Code civil" (Boisredon, Lemarchand, Le Moal, Rouaix, & Terrien, 2018).

Due to the multiplicity of firms' possible goals and the nature of VUCA constantly changing business environment it might prove counter-productive to make decisions based on the mere accumulation of information (following big data trends in organizations), with the intention to evaluate all possible risks and minimize uncertainties. As stated earlier once all the information will be collected, sorted and analyzed the changes in the environment will make the related decision most likely already obsolete. Consequently the granted firm might not be willing to invest anymore (in the specific project it applied for) or it may change the scope of its project to a degree, which would make the former risk analysis irrelevant. Yet the firm would have captured the financing. Therefore one of the functions that EP-F and government agencies might want to fulfill is to provide social and/ or credit trustworthiness rating of firms. Regarding credit trustworthiness, the indicator could aggregate for instance payment effectiveness (terms and conditions) and new investments (tangibles and innovation-related) as percentage of revenues. For social trustworthiness it could include e.g. percentage of employees turnover and percentage of jobs (created) in industrialized or European countries versus in developing or emerging markets[vii]. Other innovative indicators could be related to employees' continuous personal development such as e.g. skills training or career transition support[viii]. This rating should perhaps be presented as a positive (even gaming[ix]) reputation feature for firms to compete and get better access to resources both financial and human. In a VUCA world global

competition and fast change speed matters for the process of internationalization (Toyne, 1989; Toyne & Nigh, 1998). The ability to make fast decisions e.g. based on the rating of a potential client (the buyer in case of exports) or to quickly procure enough financing will determine and firm's chances of success.

In a nutshell, EP-F and especially the way export support is analyzed and allocated by institutions could potentially be challenged through the introduction of the concept of firms' multiplicity of goals versus the current assumed uniformity. This revised approach of firm's goal would possibly change the approach for firms' international performance measurement but also export support organizations' attribution criteria.

Integrating firm's externalities in the behavioral theory of the firm

In order to possibly contribute to further theorizing, I go back to the initial influencing theory from C&M: the behavioral theory of the firm (BTF) due to its influences on other authors and its congruency with CSR (Ingenbleek, Binnekamp, & Goddijn, 2007). I further analyze the EM hypothesis in relation to the three core ideas of BTF (1963, pp. 214–215): imperfect environmental matching, bounded rationality and unresolved conflict. I explain how these ideas relate to the principles of corporate citizenship (Davenport, 2000). And I suggest some sub-dimensions that could be tested in further studies. The theoretical framework linking the BTF, CSR and EM are illustrated in the scheme 1.

Scheme 1: Theoretical framework linking the BTF, CSR and EM
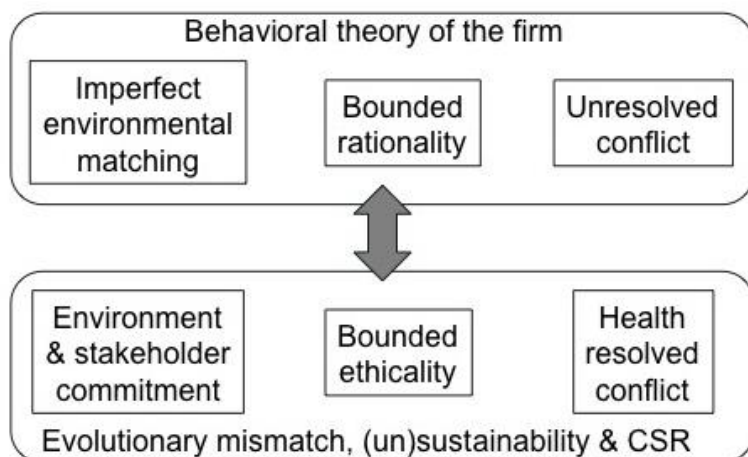
As reviewed in the theoretical background, EM would come from a mismatch between the individuals' evolutionary biology and the very structures that the human beings have created for themselves in

order to work (and live). The EM hypothesis posits the firm's design and organization's evolution process as potential causal factors for the apparition of EM. At the level of the firm, the concept of EM places the emphasis on the unit of analysis of the interaction between the firm and actors from the firm as a "coalition of individuals" (Cyert & March, 1963, p. 31). Those individuals are stakeholders who fight and negotiate over their diverging goals.

First the idea of *imperfect environmental matching (IEM)*, in the BTF organizational change is driven exclusively by external forces and organizational adaptation to its environment will bring survival advantage. Accounting for the EM in the BTF would require integrating internal forces of the firm, hence the individuals' biological evolution and biological requirements, in order to shape the evolutionary adaptations of the organization, the firm. For instance numerous studies have demonstrated the beneficial effects for the firm's productivity to make employees engage in physical activities; it can make workers "as much as 23 per cent more productive", increase their creativity, learning abilities and decision-making (Giphart & Van Vugt, 2018, p. 151). Since individuals do not find sense anymore in modern work (Alvesson & Spicer, 2016; Graeber, 2013, 2019) and because related structures ultimately make workers sick, the survival of the firm might al least partially rely on its ability to adapt to the evolutionary biology of the individuals, its employees. These dimensions would address the principles of corporate citizenship (Davenport, 2000) of environmental commitment, and stakeholder commitment, with a focus on employees' work environment. EM is especially relevant to measure firm's engagement into sustainable development (Moratis & Melissen, 2019). Testing for the idea of imperfect environmental matching would consist into looking at the firm's design adaptation with the environment, i.e. its cultural fit. And a second dimension would be to assess employees' physical exercise. Imperfect environment matching influences the well functioning of individuals, which later would be related to their bounded rationality.

Second regarding the idea of *bounded rationality (BR)*, the integration of the biological dimension of the individual would bring more possible explanatory factors to the concept. Indeed an individual's rational abilities are limited by its biological, especially physiological, state (S. Danziger, Levav, & Avnaim-Pesso, 2011; Shai Danziger, Levav, & Avnaim-Pesso, 2011; Volk, Köhler, & Pudelko, 2014; Weinshall-Margel & Shapard, 2011). The literature on finance and investment shows improved rationality under conditions of fasting (Al-khazali, 2014; Bialkowski et al., 2012). These studies of the Ramadan phenomenon show how a seemingly individual-focused physiological state can be relevant at the level of the group. Also some studies found that under fasting, opposed individual risk decision behaviors had a tendency to converge towards a central point (Levy, Thavikulwat, & Glimcher, 2013; Seyyed et al., 2005). So the physiology of food has both individual and group level effects, potentially relevant to the firm's performance. To link CSR and bounded rationality, Chugh, Bazerman, & Banaji

(2005) proposed the concept of "bounded ethicality". The dimension of bounded rationality is related to individuals possibly engaging into moral behavior as it *„results from the match (or mismatch) of the mental processes with the structure of the social environment"* (Gigerenzer, 2010, pp. 529–530), hence EM is related to the ethical business behavior of firms. Testing for the idea of bounded rationality would consist into looking at rational abilities' conditions, in relation to food physiology. And a second important dimension for the brain's functioning will be the food at work. The bounded rationality of individuals would be related to unresolved conflicts.

Third, evolutionary biology and the EM shed new light on the idea of *unresolved conflict (UC)*. For Chugh, Bazerman, & Banaji (2005) individuals' bounded ethicality, would prevent them from recognizing conflicts of interests therefore leading firm's managers to unethical decision-making. Yet Kahneman (2011, p. 342) mentioned that at individual's level conflicts are emotionally loaded and come from "mental self-dealing" with higher weight given to health in potential losses evaluation. Individual self-interested actors would unconsciously share a higher-level interest rooted in their evolutionary biology: the unintentionally maintenance of the individual's health. And this default search for survival would go through avoiding EM. If health is not the primary concern of individuals with an initial preference for earnings and social status, once sick health has a tendency to overshadow all other aspects and to become a priority. And this in turns would impact the firm; thus promotion of health at work is also relevant for CSR (Tanner, Bamberg, Baur, & Schümann, 2019). Indeed, if the individuals at large are getting sick, with increases in number -more individuals are getting sick of "noninfectious mismatch diseases" (Lieberman, 2013, p. 173) such as: depression, chronic fatigue syndrome, chronic constipation, Crohn's diseases, diabetes, hemorrhoids, irritable bowel syndrome, lactose intolerance, lower back pain, osteoporosis, multiple sclerosis, fatty liver syndrome, stomach ulcers, obesity, etc.-, diversity and intensity of cases, it may hinder the firms' correct functioning, performances and at last its survival. Thus the firm, defined as a coalition of individuals, i.e. the addition of single individuals and their whole, all together form an ecosystem which functioning would be kept into balance based on the lower unit's (the individual) needs rooted in its evolutionary biology. Testing for the idea of unresolved conflict would consist into looking at employees' health maintenance in relation to the firm's location and facilities. And a second dimension would be the extent to which the work's organization respects employees' health.

Conclusion

Through a conceptual paper of four classical books in management, organization and IB (Ansoff, 1970; Carlson, 1975; Cyert & March, 1963; Luostarinen, 1979) I shows that the individual's dimension, was neglected in the classical theories and I suggest revisiting them with the integration of the stakeholder theory. I underline the limitations of that latest, which is to not accounting for the social influences. I discuss the firm's multiplicity of goals. I argue that international organizations are producing the status quo among firms they evaluate and support, through the assumption of firms' primary goal uniformity of profit-making, and EP-F policies assuming that firms are lacking capabilities and not willingness.

Due to the difficulty to come up with a general economic impact evaluation criterion, EP-F policies should be assessed based on their customers' contributions; hence firms' value creation to the national economy and society sustainability. Among the root causes for unsustainability evolutionary mismatch (EM) has not been accounted for so far. In the present study I proposed to include EM in international firms' social role assessment.

Regarding contributions this is the first time a research links CSR and the EM hypothesis with the BTF. Academics can depart from the proposed theoretical framework to conduct future studies. Further research is especially needed at the intersection of EP-F and corporate (social) citizenship in order to ensure accurate evaluations of firms' added value, hence impact on the economy and the society sustainability. Practitioners can use this research to better understand firms' goals and role in a VUCA world.

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Appendix

Appendix 1: Summary of each classic book

Cyert and March (1963), Behavioral theory of the firm. In their analysis Cyert and March dealt with the decision-making process of firms and the particular role of managerial variables. They challenged the traditional rational conception of the firm in the theory of the firm, which only accounted for economic variables. They developed a model with predictive power and confirmed it through specific application in case studies. They focused their model primarily on the unit of analysis of the firm and all organizations that make decisions (e.g. non-business organizations). They introduced the concepts of bounded rationality, decisions based on rules of thumb (p.11) and stated that firms pursue several goals at the same time among other the main ones are its survival sustainability and making satisfactory profits. They found out that firms were avoiding uncertainty rather than minimizing it, are using simple rules to achieve multiple competing goals and that they do not follow the predictions they make based on the data they collect. According to the number of quotations of their book, they managed to successfully inform both the managers and policy makers, and the academic community.

Ansoff (1970 [1965]), Strategic decision making theory. In his analysis Ansoff dealt with strategic decisions of managers within the firm. His particular purpose was to offer sound practical decision-making tools grounded in theory. He departed from the capital investment theory and used theories from various disciplines far from his original field of applied mathematics. He defined strategy based on the military decision-making method, which was brought to management first. He found that decisions were make along information gathering and proposed a ranking of business decisions according to a firm's level of ignorance. He defined four components for organizational strategy and introduced the product-market framework as well as the growth vector, synergy and competitive advantage. Finally he paved the way to the development of corporate social responsibilities (CSR) by stating that firms should have a strategy for their social function.

Carlson (1975), Knowledge and costs in international growth theory. In his analysis Carlson dealt with the importance of the knowledge factor in international business operations. His special emphasis was on analyzing problems due to the lack of knowledge. His key concepts are the simultaneous non-competing goals of firms: with long-term growth, after survival, and short-term profits and financial stability. The author stated that uncertainty is due to the lack of knowledge is related to the degree of foreignness. He based his analysis on a literature review of articles, references and recent studies. Carlson found that the decision to go abroad is influenced by knowledge accumulation and acquisition costs. He also proposed that the knowledge accumulation was following a learning-by doing curve.

Luostarinen (1979), SMEs internationalisation process theory: product-operation-market. In his analysis Luostarinen dealt with the special case of small open domestic market, with an emphasis on the SME unit of analysis. His research questions were to answer why firms start internationalizing their activities, how companies have internationalized and whether there was any orderly pattern in their strategies. Alike Cyert & March, Luostarinen took a positivistic approach, he developed a theoretical frame and tested it through a teleological perspective. He focused on the concept of lateral rigidity, the role of time as a resource and introduced a third variable in the product-market component from the organizational strategy, as theorized by Ansoff: operations. He found that internationalization is explained by the smallness combined with the openness of the domestic market, and that internationalization can be a condition for survival.

Footnotes

[i] Toyne (1989) and Toyne & Nigh (1998) suggested the use of the international exchange and process units of analysis.

[ii] As of 2017, Nov. the 26th.

[iii] The JSTOR results included numerous 'Front matter' and Back matter', which we do not want to account for therefore the EBSCO search engine was preferred here.

[iv] 'Small and medium Midcaps' is a new category, which appeared recently in governments' discourse regarding their EP-F services. It intends to break the Mid-cap category (from above 250 to below 2500 employees) in two, as this later is rather large and in order to better serve firms' specific needs.

[v] www.economie.gouv.fr/facileco/quels-sont-objectifs-lentreprise

[vi] For a discussion of the "Reconceptualizing the Theory of the Firm- From Nature to Function" see (Petrin, 2013).

[vii] We avoid here the use of a « domestic » employment indicator as this would be inadequate with the globalised and fast changing economy requirements towards employees to be flexible and internationally open-minded and to have international skills. Once again you cannot as a government incentivise firms to grow international without inter-national resources, therefore firms will (or would) necessarily need to either hire or form international workforce de facto creating a certain amount of non-domestic flexible distance-based employments. Among the issues stated by firms for growth stands the difficulty to hire skilled resources. Perhaps government should re-conceptualise their "domestic content" requirement towards the firms they support. Beyond the necessary adaptation of the workforce with the global economy, workplaces flexibility and global virtual jobs is also a demand from the employees themselves, especially among the new generations called the Millennial. Therefore firms are more and more forced to create these new non-domestic jobs. The solution should come from the macro level either governmental or supra governmental through e.g. a taxation distinction. Indeed global virtual jobs would still create domestic taxes paid by the employers. The main issues remain yet with the social security, the unemployment and retirement pensions, which should perhaps be framed under a European work contract.

[viii] Although supporting employees' to move out of the firm might seem like counter-intuitive it is ultimately often beneficial to the firm. Three cases can be exemplified to support such argument: i) a job-contract break during, which the employee could learn new skills, provided that the firm will be able to retain its employee afterwards, will enable that firm's evolution through a like external-acquisition of knowledge; ii) intrapreneurship, turned into a new firm independent creation, will generally find its core business revolving around the previous firm's activity, reinforcing its network of stakeholders; iii) supporting career change might be less expensive than keeping or laying off demotivated employees.

[ix] See China's Social Credit System, already implemented as voluntary test and planned to be compulsory for all individuals and firms in 2020. Source: article 'Big data meets Big Brother as China moves to rate its citizens ' (www.wired.co.uk/article/chinese-government-social-credit-score-privacy-invasion).

HEAD for and DIVE into diversity management and intercultural competence

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Abstract

This contribution takes the concept of the HEAD (Higher Education Awareness for Diversity) Wheel (Gaisch et al, 2019) as a frame of reference and seeks to build a bridge between diversity management at the tertiary level and intercultural competence as a key transversal skill. It is argued that heightened awareness of the five diversity aspects of the HEAD Wheel (demographic, cognitive, disciplinary, functional and institutional) allows for more informed decisions of higher education institutions in terms of diversity management for both students and staff. Second, the DIVE (describe, interpret, verify, evaluate) strategy is introduced with the aim to look beyond the seemingly obvious and question implicit biases. Both concepts have the potential to transcend current narrative frameworks of diversity management and intercultural competence by enriching each other in innovative ways.
Keywords: HEAD Wheel, DIVE, diversity, diversity management, intercultural competence, higher education

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Introduction

The global knowledge economy has brought about challenges, unprecedented in scope and complexity. It has put a premium on (further) education and innovation and a nation's educational level has increasingly become synonym with economic growth and competitiveness. This paradigm shift that heavily impacts higher education has led to a competence portfolio that largely extends fact-based knowledge. In today's VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous) world, reflective thinkers that can look beyond the seemingly obvious and navigate our globalized and digitalized world have become a critical asset (Gaisch, 2014). It is for these purposes that this contribution introduces and seeks to marry two concepts, namely the HEAD Wheel and the DIVE strategy. Given that both have the potential to transcend current narrative frameworks of diversity management and intercultural competence, it is attempted here to demonstrate how they can enrich each other in innovative ways and what learning curve such lenses may bring. By combining these two models, it is hoped to make more informed decisions when it comes to assess context-specific settings. This is particularly helpful in higher education contexts where pressures are constantly increasing to educate reflective and critical citizens that can take different viewpoints and adopt fresh approaches. It is argued here that by drawing on demographic, cognitive, disciplinary, functional and institutional diversity, educators may open up hardened positions and encourage cognitive flexibility. In the following, the two concepts are introduced in more detail.

Literature Review

Despite numerous models that help to explain diversity management (Loden, 1996; Loden & Rosener, 1991; Gardenswarts und Rowe, 1998; Johnson, 2001), there has been no frame so far that explicitly addressed the context of higher education and its specific requirements. In view of these shortcomings, a university-sensitive framework was conceived that seeks to reinforce the perspective that persons studying and working at an institution of higher learning draw on a variety of demographic, cognitive, disciplinary, functional and institutional backgrounds that flow into one another, mostly with no defined borders (Gaisch et al, 2019; Gaisch et al, 2017).

The HEAD Wheel (Gaisch and Aichinger, 2016; Gaisch et al, 2019), short for **H**igher **E**ducation **A**wareness for **D**iversity serves as a comprehensive frame of reference for a holistic diversity management that embraces five interconnected segments. It may be understood as an all-inclusive lens that takes account of the reality that people "have both multiple differences and similarities" (Kirton and Greene,2005, p. 132) that intersect and consequently reshape the meaning of diversity.
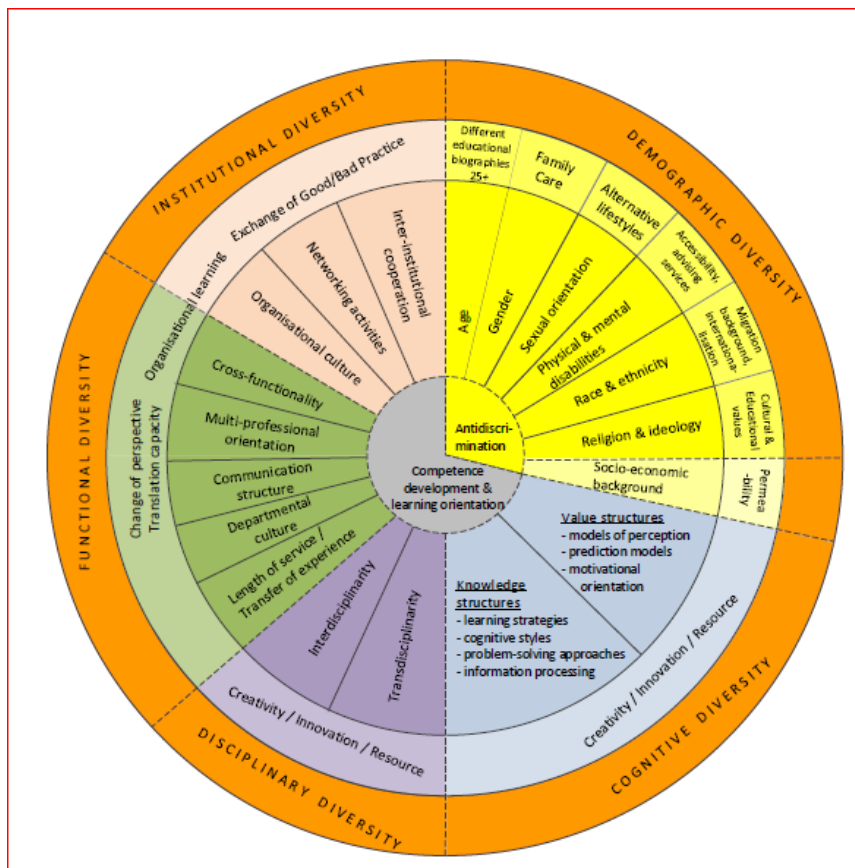
Figure 1: HEAD Wheel (Gaisch et al, 2019)

Given that the Wheel has no designated access point, it lends itself well to act as a gate-opener and entrance portal to various angles of diversity. Due to the intersectional nature of the Wheel, different agents can enter diversity-related issues through one of the five HEAD Wheel segments and therefore approach them through different doors, with differing rationales and various purposes.

A second aspect that is addressed in this contribution is the one of implicit bias. There are concepts that have proven to be helpful in explaining such phenomena as the one of the ladder of inference (Argyris, 1976; Argyris, 1977; Senge et al, 1994). It is regarded as an explanation model of those

processes used by individuals to reach conclusions about others and their world. In this sense, facts and events are on the one end of the continuum, and action, theories, and synthesized concepts are on the other end. It was found that the ladder is frequently climbed subconsciously, even more so as individuals are generally unaware of the reflexive nature of using adopted beliefs to influence current action and future perceptions (Brewer & Schwandt, 1997). A further strategy that may have the potential to reduce the complexity of all factors involved and help encourage a reflective process when jumping to conclusions, is the DIVE strategy, which will be sketched in more detail below.

The DIVE Strategy

The DIVE strategy can be understood as a description-interpretation- validation-evaluation model (Brewer, E., & Cunningham, 2009) to make more informed decisions about the world and its interrelated connections. Our unconscious brain is habit-driven and can process a huge amount of information very quickly due to its ability to recognize patterns and use them to assign people, objects and situations to specific categories. In doing so, the assumptions we make are not always correct and likely to be based on experiences we have gained from our cultural background, media coverage and other channels. This may result in unconscious bias or implicit prejudice, which uses shortcuts, based on our personal stories, socializations and cultural norms to make snap decisions about our immediate or distant surroundings. Consequently, each person has biases, so to say filters through which the world is perceived. Bias can be about race, gender, class, education, disability, about everything that is different from internalized social norms. This has to do with the affinity bias, which is a hard-wired preference to respond positively to persons that look sound and act like we do. Hence, we have a natural tendency to jump to conclusions when we do not fully understand a situation. First, we observe something, then we filter this experience and add meaning to it based on our own cultural beliefs norms and previous experiences. After that, we make assumptions to fill in any gaps and draw conclusions. Finally, we act based on these conclusions and beliefs. In other words, unconscious bias does not use analysis but rather instinct that allows us in milliseconds to judge and categorize persons and situations connect them to our learned ideas and constructs about what is good or bad.

In the following, an example is given how cultural and diversity educators can use the DIVE strategy in class and combine it with elements of the HEAD Wheel to allow for a more complex reflection on the task.

To illustrate this, a picture of persons that wear traditional garment with tall pointy hats and white matching ropes with the faces completely covered can be shown during the lesson. First associations need to be voiced immediately and openly. It showed that many persons climb up the ladder of inference within a second and appear to know the answer. This is a picture of the Ku Klux Klan they say, the American white supremist hate group with the typical hoods and white robes. However, jumping to conclusions too quickly without sufficient evidence is often misleading and wrong. Unconscious bias needs to be identified, addressed, acknowledged and mitigated against. Here, the educators start drawing on the DIVE strategy as a tool for reflection and further analysis.

In the following, the DIVE model will be described in more detail to see how this can be done. DIVE stands for "**D**escribe, **I**nterpret, **V**erify and **E**valuate" and works with four specific steps that help persons to reconsider their often premature steps taken at the ladder of inference. Step 1 is the description where it is necessary to neutrally look at a picture, person or situation and describe what is seen. Here, it is vital to stick to objective and observable facts. Step 2 is the interpretation phase

that encourages persons to think of the various meanings as to what is going on, draw on a wide range of assumptions that come into one's mind to describe this specific context. Step 3 is the verification phase. Here, it is vital to double check whether one's interpretations are correct. This can be done by talking to cultural and knowledgeable informants and draw on reliable and multiple sources that provide trustworthy insights into the context to understand it and look beyond the seemingly obvious. Finally, step 4, the evaluation phase, should help evaluate one's own interpretations and engage in a reflective loop. It should help to reflect on one's own judgements and biases.
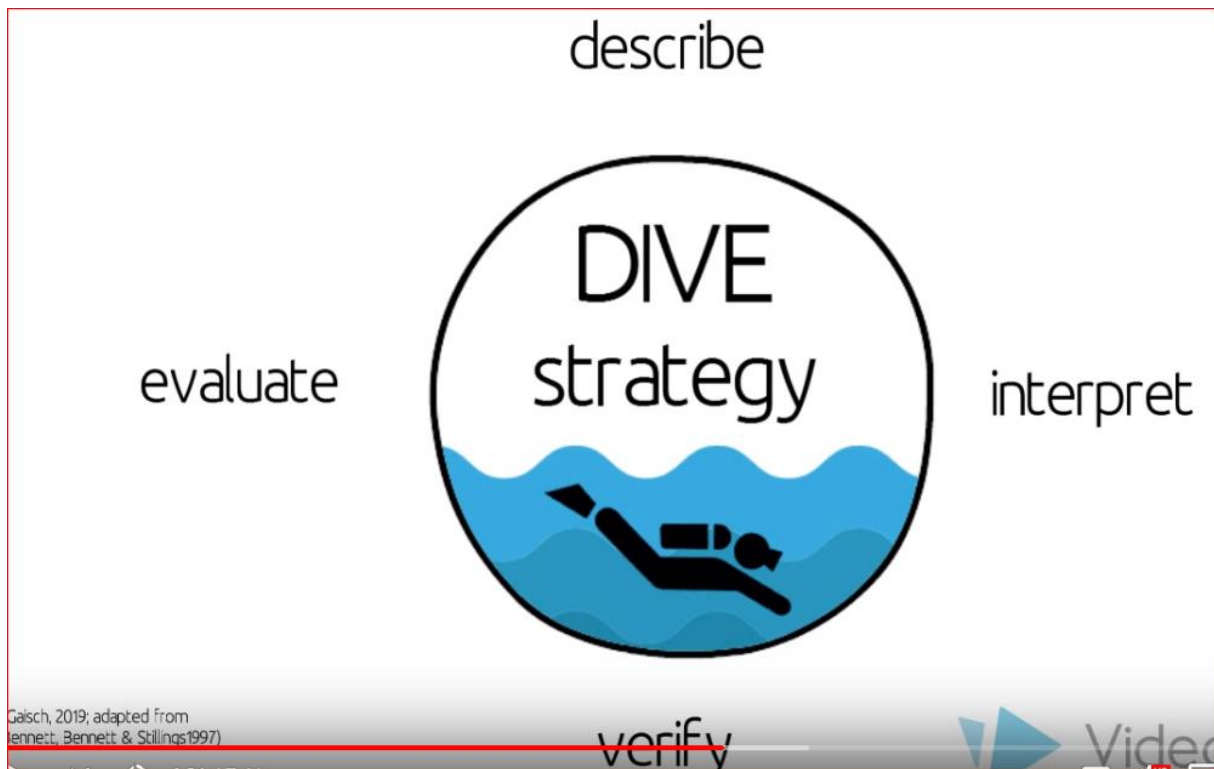
Figure 2: DIVE Strategy_Extract of youtube Video(Gaisch, 2019)

After these steps were taken, the picture (previously misinterpreted) is shown once more and explained in more detail. In this case, it is a picture of the Semana Santa procession with people wearing the traditional garment of the Holy Week in Spain the so-called "Nazarenos". These people are frequently confused with the Ku-Klux-Klan.

Examples like these have the potential to illustrate that unconscious bias is likely to color our assumptions and decisions without realizing it. To lessen the impact of implicit prejudice, it is important to raise awareness of it by deliberately slowing down decision-making, reconsidering reasons for decisions and assumptions, questioning cultural stereotypes, identifying one's own biases and verifying interpretations. The DIVE strategy may serve as a useful tool to differentiate between description interpretation and evaluation and is an effective approach to change ones micro behaviors it encourages us to take more informed decisions, based on analysis rather than instinct.

The HEAD Wheel applied – in the context of international students

In the following, it is attempted to approach the HEAD Wheel along the lines of international students that may have a variety of different demographic traits, which could be in terms of age, gender, race, ethnicity, religion, ideology or socio-economic background. Hence, the **demographic** diversity of such students is most likely in line with the so-called non-traditional students. These differences may further be displayed with regard to their **cognitive** diversity; so to say different value and knowledge structures. Students that had previously been socialized in cultural backgrounds different from the host country are more likely to have a much broader variety of models of perception, learning strategies, cognitive styles or problem-solving approaches. Understandably then that such students have the potential to enrich the international classroom by adding different perspectives that may lead to more innovative and creative approaches. This variety, however, can only become a resource if educators are aware of it and adapt their entrenched teaching and learning design with flexible and innovative classroom management and fresh and student-centered didactic approaches.

As to **disciplinary** diversity, it is likely that these students have studied in a similar or even the same field. Yet, it is equally likely that the domestic (higher) education institution and its educators have put a different educational or didactical focus. Further, issues such as power distance and uncertainty avoidance may have been coped with differently during the classroom setting and also communication structures may have varied heavily from the host institution/country. In addition, the degree to which interdisciplinary teamwork was encouraged may also vary between countries, higher education institutions, and their specific syllabi. With regard to **functional** diversity, so to say, the different functions students may take on outside their study contexts, it needs to be outlined that this largely depends on the range of possibilities their higher education institution offers. How flexible is the teaching and learning path? How much time is there to assume different roles? Is there a chance to extend one's knowledge base outside the classroom? If so, international students can further broaden their minds, work in different departments inside or outside university and by doing so, achieve perspective changes, get to know other communication structures and take on a more multi-professional orientation. In addition, international students also get to know **institutional** diversity given that they come from abroad and have already learned and studied at their domestic institution, which may have a completely different organisational culture, other networking activities, different priorities, missions and visions.

The DIVE strategy applied – in the context of international students

Undoubtedly, all persons are heavily influenced by their previous experiences in terms of societal, institutional, disciplinary and family socializations. Hence, it is only logical that we draw on these tacit assumptions, recurrent practices and conventions of appropriateness. When it comes to assessing specific situations, people have a national tendency to immediately jump up the ladder of reference and make snap decisions based on their previously internalized value system and knowledge structures. When applying the DIVE strategy, a number of aspects can be foregrounded that also take aspects of the HEAD Wheel on board.

First, it can be outlined that differences in demographic diversity are likely to affect the outcome and assessment of a situation. Age, gender sexual orientation, disabilities, race and religion may bring different perspectives on specific settings. Moreover, cognitive diversity will most probably bring different results, too. Differing value structures or prediction models influence the perception of the viewers and hence result in an information processing variety. In addition, the DIVE strategy may also be affected by one's disciplinary background and the cognitive style that is preferred in this field. Is objectivist knowledge with systematic rules and logical conclusion the ultimate goal of inquiry? Or, on the other hand, is knowledge rather actively constructed by learners while they interact with the world

around them? Such questions will most likely drive issues of absolute truth, course design, interaction and evaluation.

Method

To comprehensively understand the complexity of the topics involved, the author of this contribution has produced two videos that can be used as visual organizers for intercultural and diversity-related learning. The first contribution elaborates on the HEAD Wheel and the myriad of complex combinations of biographical backgrounds within higher education institutions.

(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TIenqW8cssg&t=1s).

The second one takes the concept of implicit bias as a starting point for an in-depth analysis of one's internalized prejudices and uses the DIVE strategy as a tool for further reflection and learning.

(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HgaoGubbFJA&t=1s)

In international classrooms or lessons that focus on intercultural competence both videos can be used as a discussion basis and for further elaboration on diversity-related issues. They can also serve as frame of reference for the specific classroom composition and as such foster inspection and self-reflection of one's own societal, cultural and institutional background.

Results

The two concepts brought forward in the videos were used in tertiary intercultural learning classes. Overall, more than two hundred students watched the videos and assessed its content by providing qualitative feedback.

After an intensive evaluation phase, it was found that students rated them as highly effective to overcome diversity-related biases and engage in reflective practice for more informed decisions about diversity-sensitive and contextualized situations. It was found that the marriage of both concepts (HEAD Wheel and DIVE Strategy) had the potential to provide a cognitive basis for a diversity-related shift of reference as well as an affective-emotional frame that allows for a behavioural change of internalized patterns. While the HEAD Wheel was seen as a useful tool that helps to adopt a broader range of diversity perspectives, the DIVE model was considered as an appropriate strategy for (intercultural) learning and an inclusive and anti-bias approach. Hence, it was seen as highly relevant to mitigate potential stereotyping on the basis of age, gender, religion, ethnicity, ability/disability, and family structure.

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Global perspectives: Designing a common undergraduate module to promote intercultural learning and interdisciplinary exchange

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Abstract

This paper presents a multidisciplinary teaching initiative to embed a common module in the curriculum for all first-year undergraduate students at a small private university in London, UK. Intercultural learning was encouraged implicitly through reflection on classroom experience and engagement with a range of constantly evolving ethical, political and societal issues that are assumed to be relevant to undergraduate students in their future lives and careers. A set of suggested principles to consider when embedding a common module into the undergraduate curriculum is proposed with the aim of drawing a highly diverse student body closer through shared experience, discussion of current affairs and reflection on self and other's perspectives.

Keywords: global citizenship, cross-disciplinarity, facilitation style, self-reflexivity

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Introduction

This paper gives an overview of a multidisciplinary initiative to embed a common module in the curriculum for first-year students across all undergraduate programmes at a small private university in London. The project involved three years of research and development by a cross-faculty team, retraining of the prospective teaching staff to follow an alternative mode of delivery, as well as the wholesale reimagining of the student experience through a series of creative workshops. The resulting module has been running for four years and has achieved a degree of acceptance despite initial scepticism from students, staff and management. There have been a number of positive effects stemming from this initiative, which will be discussed here, as well as the implications for seeding the development of intercultural competence among a largely sceptical student body through shared experience and individual reflection.

The structure of the module will be described, and the rationale for the choices made in the development of the content areas and the assessment scheme will be explained. Challenges faced by the team will be summarised and how such challenges have been approached and overcome. Furthermore, it is proposed that the principles underpinning this module offer a useful template for a number of areas of consideration that are currently in vogue in international higher education, namely student-centred learning, facilitative styles of teaching, interactivity through the medium of technology, and a focus on the operationalising of culture as an emergent phenomenon among students sharing a classroom and the experience of studying together on one campus.

This reflects an approach to culture that transcends fixed and simplistic ideas about what specific cultures 'are', but rather attempts to listen to the culture that emerges from interaction, a distinction described by Wood et al. (2012) as 'a shift from a top-down understanding of culture—as a supra-individual set of shared norms, values, actions, etc., that is, conveyed to, and acquired by, new members of a social group—toward a recognition of ideological influences on the development of culture and emphases on processes of cultural (re)production by individuals acting within cultural contexts' (p.123)

The 'Common Module' at Undergraduate Level

In the English tertiary education system, the so-called 'common module', a module that is mandatory for all students to take in their first year of undergraduate study, is not at all common. In many ways this goes back to the high degree of specialisation that has historically existed across the education system, even at A-Level (16-18 years). Along with this, departments at universities are clearly

delineated and often possess very different cultures, so what is deemed a suitable topic and approach for a dissertation at the end of a degree in Business and Management may be frowned upon by those who have been through methodological training in Psychology.

Liberal Arts curricula in the United States do sometimes offer courses with shared modules in their first or second year, and these are often focused on developing an understanding of global citizenship and encouraging cross-disciplinary thinking. In the UK, it was found that a number of institutions had expressed a commitment to embedding global citizenship and intercultural and/or interdisciplinary exchange within and across their programmes, but this aim had not developed further than introducing academic support modules or non-mandatory online courses asking the students to engage with global issues. However, there was one example of an institution requiring their undergraduates to go through a shared module across disciplines. The LSE100 course at the London School of Economics and Political Science has been running for a number of years, and offered Regent's a template, with the important difference that the Regent's common module would draw from a wider range of programmes not limited to the social sciences.

The Context

It is important to understand the particular context in which this initiative was launched. Regent's University London is a small private university located in one of the Royal Parks in central London. It was formed from a number of separate institutions in 2006 and achieved full university status in 2013. The idea of bringing together disparate parts of the university was therefore attractive to management, and this was, and still is, an important if implicit factor in the Global Perspectives project.

As a not-for-profit private educational establishment, Regent's stands apart from the majority of other universities in the UK, and generally attracts students from more affluent social and economic backgrounds from all parts of the globe. (Having said that, it also welcomes partner university and Erasmus programme exchange students who may not share such a background.) The student body is hyper-diverse, with students from more than 130 countries, and it is particularly noteworthy that there is no single national group that dominates, ensuring less of the ghettoisation effect of having large cohorts from certain countries and linguistic groups, as discussed in various commentaries on the potential failure of the British tertiary education system to live up to its promise of intercultural exchange (Brown 2009; De Vita 2005). The fact that home (i.e. British) students make up only around 20% of the student body at Regent's means that there is less concern for any divide between home

and overseas students, as in effect everyone is a stranger and in a minority at the start. Another important feature is the fact that the majority of all students are fluent in at least two languages.

As an indication of the prevailing mindset of the student body, in a survey conducted (anonymously) via a polling app in one of the first communal sessions of the semester, in response to the question 'What are you hoping to get from your time here?', the top three responses (from a closed list) were:

- Connections for my future (38%)
- Practical skills (23%)
- Subject-specific knowledge (19%)

This result perhaps expresses the preference among the student body for pragmatic, applied learning rather than theoretical or more academic approaches, and it should also be acknowledged that two thirds of the students taking Global Perspectives are in the business faculty. While we should be careful of making sweeping generalisations about a whole group of students based on a small number of statistics, there is little doubt that the aforementioned constitution and prevalent attitudes of the student body have a significant bearing on the project and how it has developed.

Method of Development

The initiative to introduce a common module across all programmes was inspired by the desire to bring together the disparate elements of a relatively new university, to break down the silo mentality of the different departments and faculties and to begin to offer a distinctive educational product based on the university's espoused values of internationalism, diversity, respect, entrepreneurialism and global citizenship. A working group was formed including representation from across the university, and over a series of workshops, for instance using Lego Serious Play®, the principles for the proposed module were established and the curriculum was shaped. (See Allinson and Mahon (in press) for a full discussion of the use of this tool in curriculum development.)

Principles emerging from the development can be seen as quite radical, but reflected a desire to innovate in response to a clear perception on the part of the teaching staff that students were not engaging with traditional methods of teaching and were inhabiting a different world to the one imagined by tutors and programme leaders, especially in terms of use of technology and ways of engaging with contemporary issues. It was also a response to the current turbulence in the world of work, and the fast-changing social and political environments the students would be entering once they graduate. For these reasons, the focus of the new module came to be global citizenship and critical thinking skills.

At the same time, it was decided that a facilitative style in which students had more involvement in setting the content of particular classes and, beyond that, the overall curriculum would be more effective than having teachers set the agenda. Students would be evaluated on their ability to reflect on their own interactions in and out of class, in the hope this would lead more naturally to increased self-awareness and, implicitly, intercultural learning. The decision was made to invite participation from staff across the university, even including non-specialist tutors from learning resources, careers and business relations and the VLE/technology team, so that no one department would be dominant. The syllabus should evolve from semester to semester in response to current issues in the news, and technology and experimentation should be at the forefront in the delivery of the module. Due to varying expectations of scholarship in different disciplines, it was decided to make the module less overtly academic; while background reading was encouraged, it did not form the primary source of content for the reflection work and there was no assigned textbook.

The structure of the 12-week module was simple: large 'lead events' taking place with all students every two weeks, which could include external speakers, interactive presentations using polling apps, conventional debates and more organic 'trade fair' type events toward the end of term where students pitched their ideas for community enhancement to each other; and smaller 'discussion groups' of 15-20 students taking place weekly. The terms 'lectures' and 'seminars' were rejected in an attempt to bypass the normal expectations of academia and make a statement about the different intentions of the module. Efforts were made to ensure a good mix of programmes in each discussion group, and the style of learning was to be informal, open and based around the students' input using a wide range of activities to stimulate discussion including video, simulation and role play, forum theatre and silent debate, where opinions are written down initially and then discussed afterwards, designed to encourage a greater diversity of opinions to be aired in class discussion.

Assessment was conducted through formative reflective tasks throughout the term, based on various classic frameworks for developing critical perspectives, including De Bono's 6 Thinking Hats (De Bono, 1985) and the DIE (describe, interpret, evaluate) reflection exercise (Bennett et al., 1988). Students then used feedback on these tasks and all their experiences during the events of the module to compose a 2,000-word reflective essay, which was evaluated on the student's ability to meet the learning outcomes requiring evidence of developing awareness of others' perspectives, self-awareness and reflection on learning.

There were mandatory team meetings once a fortnight throughout the term, and training was given to all new staff members in a facilitation style adapted to the needs of higher education (See

Brockbank & McGill, 2011). Later a mentoring system was introduced to ensure a uniform approach was taken by the teaching team, whereby new team members could observe more experienced tutors delivering their classes and then deliver their own class the next day. As part of the ethos of the teaching, the syllabus was exposed to almost constant review. In fact, students were invited to critique the content and delivery or format of the classes for their formative and summative work. Unsurprisingly, not all students felt comfortable engaging in such activity, while others embraced it wholeheartedly.

Results

In the academic year 2018-19, we conducted a thorough review of the module, employing focus groups for students, teaching staff, management and programme leaders, as well as canvassing the views of an external consultant. This gave us a chance to reflect on what had been achieved in the first 4 years of delivery and the challenges still facing the team.

In terms of student feedback, students said the module helped their integration by meeting students from other programmes at the start of their time at Regent's, especially if they were on programmes with a small cohort size. They appreciated the opportunity to discuss issues in an open, safe space, and a respectful and supportive environment, where they could share their opinions without feeling they were being judged. This gave them a flavour of the university as a whole. Students reported that the module had helped them when actually working in an international environment, because they had experiences they could refer back to allowing them at least to appreciate others with different perspectives. (For further selected student comments, see Appendix 1.)

This can be categorised as a form of intercultural competence, no matter what model you look at. An important part of Deardorff's (2006) model of intercultural competence set within the context of higher education learning is reflection on encounters with people different from oneself. Rather than teach this, or any other model to students explicitly, the principles of 'learning from reflection on experience' were built into the teaching and facilitation on the module. Initially, the majority of students rejected the rationale behind having a general discussion-based module on their schedules, but there is evidence of increasing acceptance, reflected in a gradual rise in student evaluation scores from 4.2 to 5.0 (out of 6).

Almost without exception, staff have enjoyed the experience of teaching on the module. While there is an element of self-selection, meaning that only those who are keen to stretch themselves beyond

their normal subject matter and discipline tend to opt in to the teaching team, it is nevertheless clear that staff gain in multiple ways from taking on the challenge of more unstructured teaching and learning in this environment. One member of the teaching team commented:

"*Each semester, there are a number of moments during the module that shift my understanding of our university and the world at large. It is easy for students and for lecturers to play institutional roles. Profound learning emerges when we move towards more immediate and authentic exchanges that acknowledge and explore the unique gatherings of diverse people that occur on our campuses.*" (Extract from an informal staff survey; see Appendix 2 for further comments.)

Above all, it is an opportunity to work in a close-knit team and engage in debate on fundamental pedagogical issues, such as what the role of the tutor should be in the multicultural classroom, how much of one's personal views it is appropriate to share, and what activities lead to learning taking place.

The module has also provided an opportunity for staff from non-academic disciplines with an interest in pedagogy to gain teaching experience through leading a discussion group throughout the semester. Some of them, particularly from the Learning Resources team, used the experience to help them fulfil the teaching requirements on a postgraduate certificate in teaching, which they would not have been in a position to achieve otherwise. In return, the teaching team has gained from having knowledge and insight on careers, VLEs and learning technology, helping to embed innovative practices into the teaching.

In terms of external recognition, the module received a special mention in a publication by the Quality Assurance Agency Higher Education Review (QAA, 2018) endorsing the approach taken and commending the way the module was designed and delivered.

Challenges

However, the introduction of such a module into the curriculum has not been without challenges. The first obstacle was logistical, as finding free space in the timetable for participating staff and students across all programmes was a daunting task, as was coordinating a large teaching team on the university's largest single module (around 420 students per year). It was necessary to start the timetabling process with this module, which was not popular among individual departments who wanted free rein over their teaching schedules.

This brings to light the second major difficulty arising from the introduction of a common module, namely resistance on the part of students, staff and programme leaders. Many students complained about having an 'irrelevant' general studies/ current affairs component as part of their degree programme, while uninvolved staff would often assume the module was concerned with academic skills rather than global citizenship. These misunderstandings meant that attendance rates were low, which had the knock-on effect that a higher proportion of students were failing the module and being held back in their progression due to lack of engagement and submitting conventional academic papers without the requisite self-reflection that would allow them to fulfil the requirements of the task and achieve the learning outcomes. It should, however, be noted that it was not only in the common module that this lack of engagement caused concerns.

Another challenge faced persistently – not only in this module but across the university – was plagiarism, collusion and outsourcing of assessed academic work to third parties (essay mills). It must be said that the Global Perspectives assessment was designed to make plagiarism in the form of copying others' work easier to identify than in other types of assessment, for a number of specific reasons: both formative and summative assignments are based on students' actual experiences in the classroom, so it is easy to identify work that is written by those who were not present and who do not understand the local context; the syllabus is modified slightly from semester to semester in response to what is in the news at the time, allowing easy detection of copying from others who have completed the module in a previous iteration; and finally, the fact that Global Perspectives is an unorthodox module and does not demand conventional academic outcomes in terms of wide reading and referencing of sources; essay mills generally fail to appreciate this.

As a result of the review, several key elements of the module have been changed, mainly in response to the higher than average rate of failure, but also in the spirit of constant experimentation that the team possesses. From the outset, the module had a Pass/Fail result rather than the percentage grade awarded in all other modules. This was due to the special nature of the module, as it was deemed unfair to judge students from diverse disciplines in the same way. This idea has now been dropped, and it is hoped that bringing the module in line with all other modules by having a percentage grade outcome will increase motivation to take it seriously. Module learning outcomes have been redrafted to make them less abstract and more tangible, and the assessment has changed from a final essay to an online portfolio (Padlet). It remains to be seen whether these changes will solve the current issues, but they are aligned with the ethos of the module: to innovate and explore new ways to motivate and connect with the students.

Discussion

In many ways, this initiative was approaching the development of intercultural competence by the back door – through exposure to alternative perspectives in large and small classes, carefully structured but non-binding participation in discussion and teamwork, and reflection on personal and cultural values as an implicit part of the assessment. In current models of teaching and training intercultural competence, there is arguably a tendency to neglect the experiential and reflective elements in favour of stressing the knowledge and skills components, or at least to start explicitly with knowledge and skills and then add reflection afterwards. What we attempted to do in this project was to promote discussion around individual identity, community priorities and cross-cultural perspectives without making it a cultural or intercultural module. In fact, what we were doing here was setting up a 'safe space' for the open exchange of opinions, where students were given the opportunity to share or at least to become aware of others' perspectives and find common ground.

This initiative has the potential to have a 'ripple effect' around the university, with several unplanned effects coming to light. There is at least anecdotal evidence that the Global Perspectives module has made the student body at this small, private university more engaged in actively shaping their time and experience on campus: higher participation in Student Union and outreach activities; engagement with mental health issues and LGBTQ+ rights; and more discernment in their attitudes to learning. It is not possible, in this context, to isolate the effect of this module from everything else happening at the university over a number of years. However, according to a report from the UK Higher Education Academy, a key factor in student engagement (and rates of retention) is promoting awareness of institutional identity and a sense of belonging among students (Thomas, 2012). This had been lacking across the campus before this initiative.

One might also add that the same positive effect has been felt in bringing together academic and non-academic staff members across departmental and disciplinary divides and getting them to engage in a thorough self-examination of their pedagogical principles and convictions. The emphasis on facilitation and participatory or experiential learning has helped to embed and disseminate more student-centred teaching practices and use of technology across the programmes; and it has been possible to fast-track adoption of technology, sometimes 'killing two birds with one stone' by requiring students to trial new platforms, apps and tools for learning, which can then be utilised on other modules further down the line.

Conclusion – Principles for Introducing a Common Module

Global Perspectives has resulted in deep personal and institutional learning and has been a successful experiment for the university in uniting staff and students around a set of espoused values. There are a number of principles that can be put forward to reflect the learning from the project.

The first is to not assume that what interests academics is necessarily of interest to students. The best way to capture their attention and keep them engaged is to allow them to set the agenda. On this module, we tried to gradually remove the scaffolding as the term progressed. From a cultural perspective, not all students will be comfortable with the idea of autonomy and freedom to set topics of discussion, and the result could be confusion and disengagement. However, our findings are that students want to learn new ways to interact and grow. By making the atmosphere in class more social and less hierarchical, even students used to more traditional transmission models of education were able to respond in their own way. Mixing individual and group assessment tasks and providing models of critical thinking helped to encourage individual reflection.

A related idea is to engage the students in processes of peer learning – students listen to fellow students and alumnae more keenly than to experts who lack knowledge of the students' particular contexts and aspirations. It was the invited speakers who could connect with and appeal to the values of the students who made the biggest impact, and who were judged to be the most 'relateable'; and conversely, some of the least successful events came when we tried out expensive 'off-the-peg' interventions by external groups and consultants.

You need to build in flexibility – to the parameters of the module, to the organisation of the team, and to the activities as they are performed. A current affairs module needs to respond to what is happening in the outside world, rather than sticking to a lesson plan. The author recalls a fascinating (and tense) discussion group on the morning after U.S. President Trump was elected, with some Clinton-supporting American students in the class saying they were absolutely devastated, but who then had to listen to a Russian student expressing strong pro-Trump sentiments. As facilitators, we needed to allow all sides to express themselves without taking sides, and we needed to address the question: why should I care what he or she thinks? This degree of flexibility can be very difficult for team members who like structure and forward planning, but it is necessary if you wish to follow through with the idea of culture as an emergent phenomenon and a focus in the learning outcomes on developing empathy as part of intercultural competence. In our view, it brings us closer to what Light et al. (2009) categorise as the reflective practitioner.

It is also necessary to build in support and close teamwork to a general module like this. Facilitation training was deemed a pre-requisite for participation in the teaching team at the start, as the move away from subject specialisation and viewing the lecturer as an expert is somewhat revolutionary. We have insisted on a high frequency of team meetings and introduced informal mentoring for new tutors in order to encourage integration. In effect, the module has its own small culture (Holliday, 1999) which needs propagating.

Long-term commitment to this kind of project is needed. You have to work constantly to get 'buy-in' across the university. You can't please all the people all the time, and this module could be classified as a perfect example of a Marmite course – you either love it or hate it. This applies for university management and educators as much as it does for students. However, we would argue that the strong intercultural principles underlying the development and delivery of the module mean that we have been increasingly confident in the outcomes and 'ripple effects' of the initiative.

Finally, the idea of Global Perspectives is not original: to create an open space rather than a narrow channel of learning – in the curriculum and even in team meetings. This is not the kind of closeted 'safe space' where people are sheltered from opinions that are different from their own. It is instead the principle of allowing students to challenge and learn from each other, sometimes imperfectly. Culture emerges through participation in a shared space and on a shared task. As educators, we are much less in control of this process than we believe.

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Appendices

APPENDIX 1: Student feedback on the Global Perspectives module, excerpts drawn from an internal survey in October 2018:

"I think this module is very vital to your education, because you get to talk about current happening issues, and you get to hear from all different sides. Then you can get to have a really good opinion. So I really like this course. Overall, it's a pretty important course."

"I think at the start a lot of people were sceptical and weren't really sharing their opinions, and were sort of wondering what the class is for, but I think that, throughout the weeks, getting to know the people that were in our class and the tutors allowed us to be more free and actually share our opinions, which people wouldn't have done at the start."

"I thought that the module was really interesting, because it's all about sharing, all about getting involved. It opens a sort of creativity cell in your brain."

"One of the issues that we discussed on the course was about nuclear weapons, and bombs, that are happening in different countries, so I thought that was really interesting to see everyone's different opinions and views on it. We did interesting activities; we used Lego for example in our smaller classes, to show what we thought. Rather than typically writing something, we used different activities."

"I think personally my views have broadened much more than they were beforehand. It gave me a different and a new perspective to not just only think from one side, but to, like, take everything into consideration and think openly, and be open to other thoughts and other opinions."

APPENDIX 2: Staff feedback on teaching on the module, excerpts drawn from an internal survey (email) in December 2018:

"I thoroughly enjoy teaching on the Global Perspectives module. It is a completely different format from what I normally teach. It is indeed not a module for the students to acquire some kind of knowledge – like business economics - nor to develop a skill – like learning a language - but to get the students to understand themselves better and to open up their mind to new perspectives. I feel that this module is perfect for first year university as they transition to adulthood and world citizens. I have become passionate about this module and feel very grateful to be able to teach on it!" (Lecturer in French Language)

"I was a bit apprehensive when I was invited to teach Global Perspectives this semester. However, I am finding the experience enriching and enjoyable. The module Global Perspectives challenges the students to question their thoughts and beliefs and look at the world from different perspectives which I consider to be very relevant not only to our students but also to any human being to promote tolerance, inclusion, equality and diversity in our society. I find the lead events and the materials and activities used in the discussion groups very engaging and thought-provoking for the students and for

me as a facilitator. I also appreciate the opportunity to share ideas and good practice with a wider community of lecturers inside and outside [the department]." (Lecturer in Spanish Language)

"Global Perspectives is my favourite course to 'teach' because it is built around the concept of facilitation, I feel there is a genuine exchange of trust and learning in this module between staff and between staff and students. I have seen Global Perspectives grow in strength since its inception, its values and reason for being make sense to me as an educator. I love the first sessions when we meet the students for the first time, what is, for some, their first experience of Higher Education, and to be privileged to see their growth throughout the module. I like that it is an 'unfinished module', the impact of which is felt beyond the first/second term into the following years. The best thing about Global Perspectives is that it is a great model of collaborative teaching and co-teaching, it is made of a group of people who come together every week, share and support each other in ways I have not experienced anywhere else on campus. I feel it helps you grow as a teacher and as a facilitator, you mature with others and you are in company of others in a genuinely meaningful way." (Lecturer in Creative Leadership)

"Global Perspectives is how I'd imagine addiction to be; if a class doesn't go well for some unfathomable reason, it's like a 'bad trip', which can shake you to the core. Conversely, when a session goes really well, you emerge feeling 'high' on the very real connections you've just facilitated between students. If you miss a semester, you tend to get withdrawal symptoms.   And once you've experienced the module, it tends to permeate all your other teaching – in the very best way." (Lecturer in Management)

"Global Perspectives is the part of my work that makes me connected to the community, culture and concerns of our student body. It is a challenge to facilitate interaction and guide a group process, but the fruits of gaining proficiency in those skills are enormous. Each semester, there are a number of moments during the module that shift my understanding of our university and the world at large. It is easy for students and for lecturers to play institutional roles. Profound learning emerges when we move towards more immediate and authentic exchanges that acknowledge and explore the unique gatherings of diverse people that occur on our campuses. I carry to all my work at Regent's the daring and openness that Global Perspectives fosters in all of us involved." (Lecturer in Acting and Theatre)

Lego serious play as a tool for promoting intercultural competence

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Abstract

Applying gamification methods in the educational sector has become increasingly popular in recent years in an effort to get and hold the modern generation-Y students' and training participants' attention and enhance their commitment. While computer-based gamification tools are more well-known and widespread, the haptic potential of concrete toy-like gamification tools such as Lego Serious Play should not be underestimated as students and participants of training modules crave for a counter-experience to the e-learning overkill. It is time for a new, more active and more activating approach particularly well-suited for the field of cross-cultural training.

Keywords: Gamification, Creativity, Curiosity, Learning-by-doing, Storytelling, Narrative

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Introduction

In the last two decades, the trend of "Gamification, the application of game mechanics to non-game environments (such as learning and development) is [sic] a much-hyped trend. But in fact it is more than simply applying badges, rewards and points to everything that cannot run away: Gamification addresses the sense of engagement, immediate feedback, experimenting with rules and interpretations, rising to challenges, the feeling of accomplishment and last but not least: fun! Gamification does not trivialize learning, though; on the contrary, well designed "serious" games help learners acquire skills, knowledge and abilities in short, concentrated periods of time with high retention rates and effective recall" (Simons et al. 2015).

All gamification tools make use of the concept of "storytelling". Storytelling is so helpful in teaching because it awakens the interest of course participants, networks course content, is based on a familiar way of disseminating information, and, last but not least, can render the trainer's relationship with their course participants more personal by exchanging experiences and ideas.

Method

Lego Serious Play (LSP) combines the advantages of playful fun, creativity, imagination, learning by doing, storytelling and an inclusive sense of engagement; at the same time, it reduces complexity by creating metaphoric artifacts used as a basis for storytelling.

This LSP workshop will be kicked-off with a short overview of the origins, theoretical background, principles, limitations and benefits of LSP as a tool for training and improving intercultural competence.

In the subsequent interactive part, participants will be given the opportunity to try out LSP themselves. Unlike in traditional LSP settings, a new rule will be introduced that allows each participant to integrate one personal item into his/her model. This ensures even more creativity and personal involvement. The theme of the exemplary workshop held with the participants' input will be the academic, i.e. learning cultures in their countries of origin. Participants will split up in small country-specific teams and will first be asked to build models of how they perceive learning in their home countries. In a second step (if time permits), they will be requested in cluster-specific teams to try to unite the previously built models by agreeing on and creating a joint learning setting in higher education

institutions in 2025. A hands-on, haptic, interactive, do-it-yourself approach of playful learning will be used.

Results

To conclude the workshop, participants will be invited to share their experiences and emotions while playing in a debriefing round and to come up with further LSP scenarios enhancing intercultural learning in the multicultural classroom, international higher education and the global world of business, depending on their individual background.

Discussion

Ideally, the extrinsic motivation evoked by this innovative gamification learning tool can be playfully transformed into intrinsic motivation. The advantage of gamification methods like LSP is that there are quick observable results, there is no right or wrong, no winners or losers and no one who remains passive, which is also more than conducive to individual motivation and the overall learning outcomes.

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Impact of stays abroad on intercultural competence of students

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Abstract

Insights in the development of intercultural competence and its links to individual traits are crucial for companies and researchers to face the requirements in a globalized, increasingly complex world. This study examines the relationship between the time students spent abroad, personality traits, work attitudes and patterns as well as circumstances during this time with intercultural competence and integration performance in the target culture using a correlative cross-sectional design with 202 subjects. There was a positive correlation between duration and cognitive, motivational and behavioural intercultural competence. The different types of competence influence each other at diverse times. The suggested structural equation model showed the effect of the assessed patterns to work on intercultural competence, moderated by the stay abroad and the social competence. We position ourselves in a functionalist perspective, in line with the work on paradigms of Burell and Morgan (2017) and Deetz (1996) in social sciences and Cross-Cultural Management.
Keywords: stay abroad, students, intercultural competence, AVEM, personality

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Introduction

To broaden one's horizon by traveling around becomes more and more normal in the globalized world. This raises the question in how far staying, studying or working in another than ones home country influences an individuals' competence in interacting with people from other cultures and how the personality influences this consequences. 137.000 German citizens left to study abroad in 2015 (Statista, 2018). However, reasons for involuntary movements such as poverty and war force working migrants and refugees to leave their own culture and accommodate to new environments. Therefore, individuals, societies and organisations have to face the fast changing, complex requirements of this situation, in order to stay able to compete. Sam and Berry (2011) define sociocultural and psychological adaptation as the consequence of intercultural contact. They outline different strategies to deal with the requirements of acculturation. These strategies are expressed through behavioral patterns, sense of ethics, language, well-being, identification and many other aspects. The development of acculturation is influenced by personality factors, the cultural relations and direct environmental factors. It becomes apparent that adaptation to a new culture is both, a complex process, which requires but also fosters various competences (Berry, 2011). Swiaczny (2016) assigns the increasing heterogeneity of cultural backgrounds to the term "diversity". The competence to deal effectively with diversity in an occupational setting has become a key competence in the modern labour market (Genkova, 2019).

Review

In order to investigate the topic of intercultural competence and its influence on individuals, an understanding of the term "culture" is necessary, as well as insights on how individuals from different cultures interact, when they get in contact. Therefore, the following section will explain the term "culture" as well as the process of acculturation and intercultural competence.

Within the psychological literature, culture is understood as result of a society's history and traditions. They are considered "natural" assets of people (Helfrich, 2013). Thomas (2003) finally defines culture from a psychological perspective as an orientation system that gives people a sense of belonging.

Nowadays interaction between cultures is part of everyday life. For instance, exchange semesters abroad during college are becoming normal. Companies and institutions pay more and more attention on the active design of intercultural interactions in their occupational process (Ringeisen, Genkova & Schubert, 2016). And, as organizations additionally send employees abroad more frequently than ever before, intercultural competence and diversity management have become key issues in research and practice (Deardorff, 2018).

The Interaction of cultures, when they get in contact is seen in various ways. Berry (2003) conceptualized this interaction by distinguishing between an individual and a societal perspective. Figure 1 shows the acculturation model according to Berry (2003).
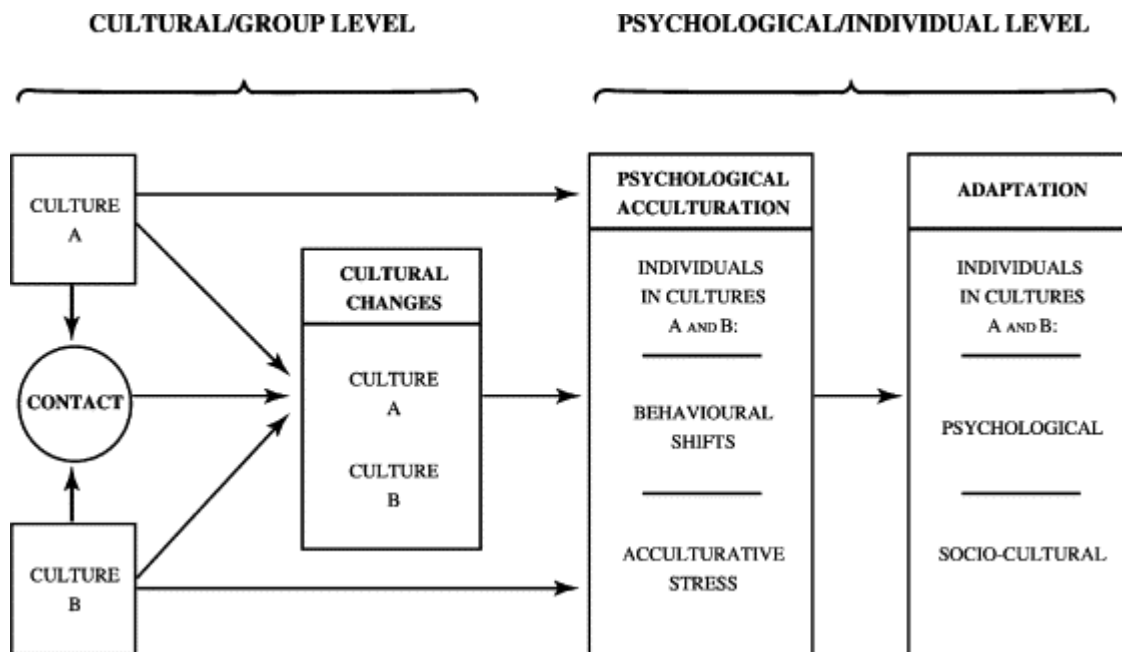
Figure 1. Acculturation Model, according to Berry (2003)

Cultures, which get in contact, inevitably influence each other through the exchange of norms, values, traditions, perceptional-, relational-, and behavioral patterns (Sam & Berry, 2011). To be exact, cooperation between humans and respective social competences, which enable peaceful interaction, are vital for traits since the beginning of small human settlements and the basis for negotiations between modern countries up to this day (Pahre, 2012). The micro level of the culture clash refers to the individual and with that to the cultural distinctiveness of personality traits. Individuals differ in their degree of acculturation and gain more or less pleasant experiences (Sam & Berry, 2011).

On the one hand, intercultural contact regards the more or less successful communication between cultures, but also leads to an adaptation process of the individual to the new environment (Berry, 2011). The process of reciprocal adaptation between two or more cultural groups is called "acculturation" (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936). It happens on all levels, biological, social or psychological level (Berry, 1980). The research at hand looks at acculturation from a psychological perspective and therefore investigates thoughts, feelings and behaviours regarding interaction with other cultures.

Considering different aspects, acculturation processes have been segmented in two levels that determine the reaction of people to intercultural situations. These are the degree to which a person clings to one's own cultural heritage and respective identity and the degree to which people want to have contact to other's from different cultural groups (Berry, 1980). Thus, there are four strategies to deal with intercultural situations: assimilation, integration, separation and marginalization. In various investigations, these strategies had the highest impact on acculturation success. Integration was the most successful strategy; marginalization was the least successful (Liebkind, 2001; Sam et al., 2008; Berry et al., 2006).

The ABC model according to Ward (2001) describes that acculturation happens on an affective, behavioral and cognitive level. Based on this and the Big 5 personality trait model (1. Extraversion 2. Agreeableness 3. Neuroticism 4. Openness to Experience 5. Conscientiousness) (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993), personality factors are described that determine successful communication during intercultural situations. These dimensions are Empathy, Openness, Social Initiative, Emotional Stability and Flexibility (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000).

The affectional level describes the processes that influence the psychological well-being and the overall life satisfaction (Sam & Berry, 2011). Adaptation usually happens to strong changes in an individuals' environment. This experience can lead to stress, as often previously learned coping strategies do not work and social support is not given. The fundamental issue of acculturation stress is the inability of a person to change behaviors and/or expectations in interpersonal situations. There are various moderation and mediation effects on the experience and the handling of acculturation stress, before as well as during the adaptation phase (Berry et al. 2006). Especially age, sex/gender and social support play an important role. According to Berry (2017), the pursuit of the integration strategy is related to higher well-being.

According to Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2013), situations can be viewed negatively as stressful or positively as a challenge. Studies showed that personality factors, which are potentially relevant for intercultural situations, influenced the individual perception.

They found low emotional stability and flexibility as predictors for the experience of uncontrollable intercultural situation as more threatening. Also, low manifestations of cultural empathy and openness, lead to the perception of intercultural situations as more stressful.

Masgoret and Ward (2006) identify insufficient competences as potential reason for a failed acculturation. People can get in the situation not being able to deal with their everyday life in a foreign society. Therefore, it is necessary to develop specific competences that are required in the host society (Bochner, 1972).

However, language is considered a skill that is always useful, as it is a strong predictor for sociocultural adaption, leading to more intercultural interaction (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Furthermore, the amount of languages spoken strongly correlates with cultural empathy and openness (De Waele & Van Oudenhoven, 2010).

The cognitive aspect represents the way people think about themselves and others during intercultural contact, regarding in- and outgroup perception and social identity. To ask oneself about one's sense of belonging is a crucial part of the acculturation to a new group (Berry, 1997). People who move from one cultural environment to another have to decide, to which culture they belong. Thereby, relations to familiar people of the ingroup and relations to the new group are put to the test (Phinney, 1990). Miller, Brewer and Arbuckle (2009) conceptualized a model of complex identity, which does not require this decision to be "black or white", but acknowledges the fact that individuals can switch between cultures in their behavior.

What Sam and Berry (2011) define as sociocultural adaptation is similar to the definition of a central criterion for competence by Spitzberg and Changnon (2009). Competence can be viewed as handling of interactions, which are socially appropriate and effective for cooperation in any given context.

Yeke and Semerciöz (2016) define cultural intelligence as the ability to effectively interact and solve problems in intercultural situations. Intercultural competence and cultural intelligence are mostly used as synonyms (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). In the following sections, solely the term of intercultural competence will be used to avoid confusion and because of its stronger association with agency and ability. The acronym CQ stands for "competence quotient".

Based on the high relevance of the topic, there is a long list of models, which conceptualize the construct of intercultural competence. It should be noted that there is no generally accepted and empirically proven overall model of intercultural competence in the literature to date (Genkova, 2019). Since intercultural competence is viewed as a substantial part of sociocultural adaptation, models explaining intercultural competence will be introduced. Building up on this, methods will be explained, that served the purpose of testing the generated hypotheses of the research at hand.

Deardorff (2006, according to Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009), tried to integrate different perspectives on intercultural competence in a single model. The consensus of 23 intercultural experts lead to the conceptional approach, which is depicted in figure 2. Based on this model, there are three fundamental personality traits, which are essential for the development of intercultural competence. These are: respect, which is expressed by the appreciation of other cultures and cultural diversity, openness to intercultural learning and holding back on prejudices. They are the premise for acquiring knowledge and understanding about other cultures and the development of several skills. Knowledge

and understanding comprises facts about the unfamiliar culture and sociolinguistic awareness. Aspects of this are the ability to listen, observe, interpret, analyse, evaluate and connect.

Deardorff (2006, according to Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009) segmented intercultural competence in internal and external results. Internal results mean the meta-cognitive, cognitive and affective process, whereas the external result comprises the visible behavioral patterns.

Van Dyne, Ang and Koh (2008) conceptualized a compositional model. The researchers divided intercultural competence into meta-cognitive, motivational, cognitive and behavioral aspects. Meta-cognitive refers to thinking and reflection processes and describes the interpretation of behavior in other cultures. The cognitive component, as described by Ward (2001), comprises the ability to learn new rules and norms in the new culture. The motivational level entails the urge to get to know the new culture, adapt and master challenges. Behavioral intercultural competence describes the actual ability to interact, such as acquisition of language and other qualifications (Racicot & Ferry, 2016).

Obviously, an individual, who is well adapted to a new culture, does not necessarily possess all skills of intercultural competence, but only the behavioral aspects. Likewise, intercultural competent individuals can adapt better and faster, because they possess skills beyond the ones that are necessary for mere acculturation. Consequently, time spent in a foreign culture plays an important role for the increasing process of intercultural competence. It is assumed in the study at hand, that the longer individuals stayed abroad, the more intercultural competent they are.

The question in how far intercultural competence influences an individuals' occupational performance has been taken into account closely. Motivational intercultural competence significantly predicts adaption (Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2006) and job success (Chen et al. 2012). In addition, Peng, Van Dyne and Oh (2014) stated that increased intercultural learning predicts sociocultural adaptation. Meta-cognitive and cognitive intercultural competence are important predictors for decision-making (Ang et al., 2007). Across all four facets of intercultural competence, Lee and Sukoco (2010) showed moderation effects of intercultural competence on the relationship between intercultural experience and effectivity. Furthermore, the contact of individuals abroad are predictors for sociocultural and psychological adaptation (Shafaei and Razak, 2015). It becomes apparent, that there is evidence for the relationship between the occupational performance and the intercultural competence. This raises the question, whether an interculturally competent person does have a different grounding attitude to work and stress. The study at hand therefore examines this question in more detail.

Based on the model of Ward (2001), the development of intercultural competence is coined by reflecting and understanding of results. This indicates that intercultural experience is not necessarily a sufficient criterion to gain intercultural competence (Steixner, 2011). Considering Deardorffs'

compositional model it stands to reason that stays abroad facilitate personality traits and different aspects of intercultural competence, which enhances adaptation performance and effectiveness. To sum up, it can be said that experienced situations and various personality traits predict the development of different aspects of intercultural competence in complex interactions. Under this condition, the effect of time spent abroad can be explained. Interaction of the given variables will be investigated through the study at hand.

Method

As described before, the relationship between intercultural competence and cultural empathy, openness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility has been thoroughly investigated in the past, predicting better adaptation and increased intercultural competence. Previous scientific work on the topic mostly used the Neo-FFI Questionnaire, which assesses the Big Five personality traits. As this study stems from an occupational approach to psychology, scales for measuring personality in a working context are of high interest. Considering the complex and partly contradictory results in this field, the following research questions have been raised: What is the dynamic relationship between intercultural competences and stays abroad? From that, factors that ought to play a role in this relationship were identified such as duration of stay, contact frequency and the interpersonal skills of workers. Following hypotheses were derived:

Hypothesis 1: Longer durations of stays abroad increase intercultural competence.

Hypothesis 2: Aspects of Intercultural competence differ in their relation to patterns on the AVEM.

Hypothesis 3: The personality traits of the AVEM predict intercultural competence, moderated by the stay abroad and social competence.

Following measurement tools were chosen: The Work Related Behavioral and Experiential Pattern Scale (German: AVEM-44), the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS). Additionally, questions about the circumstances of the stay abroad were assessed using the Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS).

The AVEM assesses patterns workers can be classified by regarding their work attitude. Pattern G (German: Gesundheit; English: Health) is coined by: high but not excessive value for engagement, resilience, satisfaction and well-being without losing emotional distance and with low resignation tendencies. Overall, a healthy attitude towards their work.

Pattern A (German: Anstrengung; English: Effort): High importance of work, expenditure willingness and strive for perfection, yet low emotional distance, low resilience, low satisfaction and low

experienced social support. Nevertheless, high engagement is present. Hence, involvement with the work is high, without positive emotions as reward.

Pattern S (German: Schonung; English: Conservation): Low engagement, importance of work, ambition and expenditure readiness, yet without low resignation tendency. High inner peace and satisfaction, which are not caused by the work, however.

Pattern B, (German: Burn-Out; English: Burn-Out): This pattern is defined by low work engagement together with a low emotional distance to the job. Resignation tendency is high, satisfaction and experienced social support are nonexistent. The symptoms of this pattern resemble the highly discussed Burn-Out Syndrom (Freudenberger, 1986; Schaarschmidt & Fischer, 2008).

Intercultural competence was assessed with the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) by Van Dyne, Ang and Koh (2008). The CQS is a self-evaluation questionnaire based on the four-factor model discussed previously. It measures the dimensions meta-cognitive (question 1-4), cognitive (question 5-11), motivation (question 12-14) and behavior related (question 16-20) of intercultural competence. The participants indicate on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "I totally disagree = 1" to "I totally agree = 7". Values were summed up and evaluated according to their loadings on the four dimensions of intercultural competence. Van Dyne, Ang and Koh (2008) tested the scale on two samples with N = 576 and N = 447. For the dimensions, α-values between .77 and .85 were obtained. The tool is considered valid and reliable (Van Dyne, Ang, Koh, 2008). The original English scale was translated into German with for- and back-translation method.

Of the 202 student participants, 106 were female and 57 were male. 39 did not indicate an answer. 33 % were below the age of 21 years, the mean was 22.43 years. The youngest participant was 17, the oldest was 46 years old. The highest proportion of the sample was single, 17 were in a relationship. 83 % graduated from high school and/or university, whereby the highest proportion of this cohort came from business sciences with 16 % and the second highest from psychology with 5.4 %. 82 % of the participants stated to study or to be without occupation. Of the rest, half was employed full-time, the other halftime. Overall, 55 % of the participants lived in a big city.

Results

Hypothesis 1: Duration of stay increases intercultural competence

People who went abroad were segmented into people with stays abroad longer or shorter than 5 months. The single factor ANOVA produced significant differences between those three groups on the cognitive dimension of the CQS ($F_{(2.146)} = 4.419$, $p = .014$). The t-test for independent samples (Table 1) showed that participants, who went abroad, differ significantly from those who did not on the

cognitive level (t (164) = -2.257, p = .025, r = .189) and behavior related (t (123) = -2.001, p = .048, r = 0.178) of intercultural competence. For the discriminatory criterion "duration of stay of 5 months or longer", significant group difference in cognitive (t (34) = 2.147, p = .035) and the motivational CQ (t (35) = 2.608, p = .013) were found.

Calculations for the Pearson Correlations showed for the cognitive CQ r = .346 and the motivational CQ r = .403.

Table 1. Hypothesis 1: t-test results

Group Difference for Stay Abroad (Yes/ No)				
	t	df	Sig. (2-sided)	r
Meta-Cognitive CQ	-1.480	139	.141	
Cognitive CQ	-2.257	147	.025	.189
Motivational CQ	-1.853	137	.066	
Behavioral CQ	-2.001	123	.048	.178
Group Difference for Stay Abroad (> / < 5 months)				
	t	df	Sig. (2-sided)	r
Meta-Cognitive CQ	2.142	33	.223	
Cognitive CQ	2.147	34	.035	.346
Motivational CQ	2.608	35	.013	.403
Behavioral CQ	0.543	29	.591	

The positive relationship between duration of stay and the four aspects of intercultural competence, cognitive, motivational and behavioral was confirmed.

The hierarchical regression analysis showed that the aspects of intercultural competence influenced each other and were significant predictors for patterns on the AVEM (R^2 = .444). Meta-cognitive competence had the strongest effect (b = .415), whereas cognitive and behavioral competence had a rather weak influence (b = .209 and .220). Furthermore, the motivational aspect determined whether a participant displayed on of the two risk patterns or not (b = -1.646, p = .32). The meta-cognitive competence was only influenced by the motivational aspect (b = .426 and .316, p < .001). As listed in table 2, the influence and the duration of stay are not significant anymore, if results from the other scales are included in the calculations.

Viewed isolated, the duration had a significant effect of b = 1.379 (R^2 = .024, p = .041). The behavioral competence was only influenced by the motivational with b = 0.388 (p = .002, R^2 = .260).

Table 2. Results of the Regression Analysis of the CQS Subscales

	Meta-Cognitive CQ		Cognitive CQ		Motivational CQ		Behavioral. CQ	
	b	p	b	p	b	p	b	p
Constant	2.952	.124	5.084	.053	9.437	.000	6.796	.017
Met CQ			0.426	.001	0.415	.003	0.260	.075
Cog CQ	0.226	.001			0.209	.000	-0.012	.910
Mot CQ	0.312	.000	0.316	.007			0.388	.002
Beh CQ	0.118	.075	-0.010	.910	0.220	.009		
Duration	-0.119	.790	1.108	.068	-0.073	.884	0.882	.181
AVEM	0.155	.603	-0.075	.855	-1.648	.032	-0.083	.852
R^2	.419		.340		.444		.260	

Hypothesis 2: Aspects of intercultural competence differ in their relation to patterns on the AVEM

The results for the t-test of the independent sample are displayed in table 3. It was found that risk and non-risk patterns significantly differ regarding motivational intercultural competence with t (127) = 2.172 and a small effect-size of r = .189. The non-risk pattern G and S differ not meaningfully concerning the other aspects of intercultural competence. The risk patterns A and B differ significantly in the areas of meta-cognitive (t = 2.254, r = .332) and behavioral intercultural competence (t = 2.473, r = .395).

Furthermore, the contact quality differs across the patterns of the AVEM (F (3, 105) = 3.543, p = .017). As demonstrated for hypothesis 1, the presence of a risk or non-risk model affects the motivational intercultural competence. Hypothesis could be confirmed for meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioral aspects of intercultural competence.

Table 3. Hypothesis 2: Results of t-Tests for the independent sample

Risk- and Non-Risk-Patterns				
	t	df	Sig. (2-sided)	r
Meta-Cognitive CQ	-0.264	129	.792	
Cognitive CQ	-0.789	135	.432	
Motivational CQ	-2.172	127	.032	.189
Behavioral CQ	-0.888	63.961	.378	
Pattern A and B				
	t	df	Sig. (2-sided)	r
Meta-Cognitive CQ	2.254	41	.030	.332

	t	df	Sig (2-sided)	r
Cognitive CQ	1.744	34	.088	
Motivational CQ	2.001	37.879	.053	
Behavioral CQ	2.473	33	.019	.395

Pattern G and S

	t	df	Sig (2-sided)	r
Meta-Cognitive CQ	1.118	86	.267	
Cognitive CQ	0.255	90	.815	
Motivational CQ	-1288	86	.201	
Behavioral CQ	-0.467	80	.641	

Hypothesis 3: The personality traits of the AVEM predict intercultural competence, moderated by the stay abroad and social competence.

A structural equation model was tested for the relationship of intercultural competence with personality traits of the AVEM, the stay abroad and the social competence. The chi-square-test confirmed this model ($x^2(1) = 1.237$; p = .266; CFI= .978; RMSEA = .053 (LO90= .000; HI90= .303).

Figure 2. SEM for intercultural competence
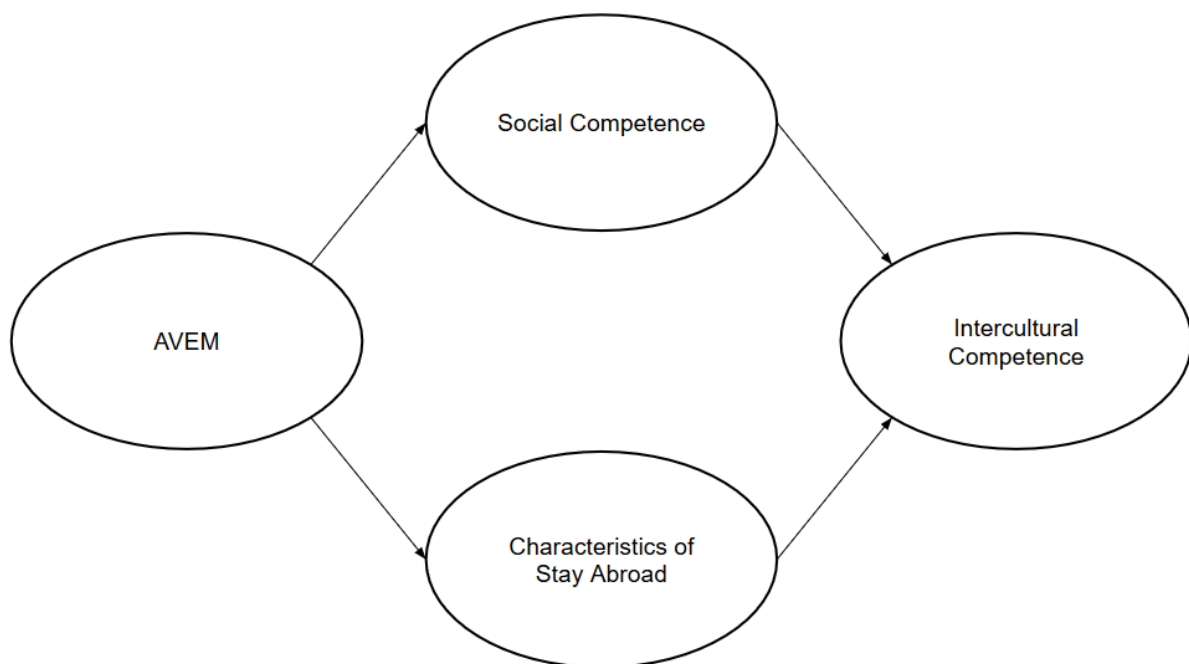
Discussion

Cognitive CQ increases across all the three groups, yet even stronger after 5 months. Behavioral CQ increases below 5 months. Motivational CQ is observed being significantly higher after 5 months. The meta-cognitive CQS does not differ across three subgroups. The influence of duration and the type of

intercultural competence are not linear. The types of intercultural competence influence each other more than the duration. The behavioral CQ does not differ across different durations of stay.

This indicates that even short durations abroad make the acquirement of intercultural competent behaviors possible. However, it has to be stated, that the CQS, as a questionnaire is able to measure actual behaviour only to a limited extent. It is also possible that participants who went abroad generally focus more on their language and behavioral patterns. This could have let to the situation in which people do not differ in their behavioral competence. It also could be the case that behavioral intercultural competence strongly depends on personality factors as the other subscales, which would explain the low quality of the regression model (R^2 = .260). Zick (2010) argues that acculturation is basically a change of identity. In how far the development of multiple identities (Benet-Martinez et al., 2002) and taking on the perspectives of the host society are distinct processes or not is debatable (Sinclair, Hardin & Lowery, 2006; Kiang, Yip & Fuligni, 2008). However, a change in identity occurs in almost every model and goes hand in hand with acculturation (Zick, 2010).

The meta-cognitive competence does not systematically differ across different durations of stay and not across the other investigated factors. It is weakly influenced by the cognitive competence and a bit stronger by the motivational competence. However, it affects the two more, than vice versa (b = 0.426 und 0.415). Racicot and Ferry (2016) found a relationship between motivational and meta-cognitive competence. However, this did not significantly affect work performance. Building up on this, it has been assumed, that different facets of intercultural competence could build up on each other or have to be learned in a specific order. Van Dyne, Ang and Livermore (2010) brought this idea forward and suggested a looped sequential alignment of the four aspects: 1. Motivational, 2. Cognitive, 3. Meta-Cognitive, 4. Behavioral. However, they never validated their claim. The results could not verify this sequence. In addition, Racicot and Ferry (2016) also found different connections. Complex interactions between the factors as stated in the study at hand are more likely to describe the actual processes, than a strict, hierarchical approach.

Cognitive intercultural competence increased over all three subgroups. The gain after 5 months suggests that relevant factors changed during this period, yet it is still not clear which factors changed. The data shows that the increase in motivational intercultural competence is responsible for this phenomenon, rather than the duration of stay. Both aspects of intercultural competence influence each other. The motivational CQ differs between groups below and above the stay of 5 months.

The results for hypothesis 1 support the claim that first the culturally appropriate behavior and knowledge improves and then the affective adaptation starts to the new structures, which explains the increasing cognitive competence. Heightened motivation also helps to learn structures and rules

faster. This is congruent with the theory of Van Dyne, Ang and Livermore (2010) and Racicot and Ferry (2016). They showed that the motivational intercultural competence was significantly influenced by cognitive- and meta-cognitive competences.

Furthermore, the CQ changes linearly across all AVEM patterns. However, all four aspects depend on different factors. Considering this, the model of Deardorff (2006) seems not complex enough to represent the actual processes. It's likely that there is not a single panel with traits, but each phase and each aspect is influenced by different factors individually. The process of adaption and the gain in intercultural competence are considered not the same. In fact, it is assumed that an individual who adapted to another culture before, will probably adapt better in the future and, therefore, is more efficient in gaining competences (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009).

Hypothesis 2: Aspects of intercultural competence differ in their relation to patterns on the AVEM.

Participants with the patterns G or S on the AVEM test had significantly higher results in motivational intercultural competence than people with A or B patterns. The hierarchical regression analysis supported this. They both differ about their work satisfaction, resilience and emotional distance. According to Sam and Berry (2011), the affective acculturation relates to the psychological well-being. Schaarschmidt and Fischer (2008) report that during the validation of the AVEM questionnaire, dissatisfaction and aversion toward other patterns, ranging from pattern G to pattern B, increased. To be more satisfied in general could possibly lead to a higher motivational competence. Also, the fact that resilience decreases from the not-risk patterns to the risk patterns could play a role for the thesis on well-being according to Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2013).

The AVEM patterns represent different approaches to work engagement. As apparently they have influence on the acculturation process, they are an interesting research subject for future investigations.

Hypothesis 3: The personality traits of the AVEM predict intercultural competence, moderated by the stay abroad and social competence.

The effect of the AVEM pattern is moderated by the type of stay and the social competence. This leads to the assumption that some requirements have to be fulfilled for the successful gain of competences through a stay abroad. Some of them are already met by most of participants: A significant amount of time, which has been shown in previous studies, and the urge to perform under the circumstances of the new culture, which leads to a higher motivation to get to know the new culture. Furthermore, additional measures to prepare the individuals for their stay abroad by telling them about cultural rules and norms. However, it is necessary to conduct more research on relations between

occupational related scales like the AVEM and intercultural performance. The SCAS data could be one option for future investigations. A study on SCAS-R can be found, for example, in Wilson, Ward, Fetvadjiev and Bethel (2017) which could serve as an impulse. This variation leads to an increase in validity compared to the original version.

For the intercultural business psychology and human resource management the following conclusions can be drawn. Next to traits and abilities, the intercultural competence is a factor that becomes increasingly important regarding job profiles for a variety of vacancies. That is, due to the growing diversity in societies, also in Germany. This makes intercultural competence a leadership qualification (Deardorff, 2018; Swiaczny, 2016). Of course, this does not apply for every job. However, if only some intercultural points of contact are given, intercultural competence might already prevent tensions within the team that reduce performance.

CQS as self-evaluation questionnaire cannot reach high levels of validity as a test focusing on testing a skill. Participant's actual experiences and abilities remain unclear. For future investigations additional test like language skills are recommended in order to assess the actual increase in abilities as valid as possible.

The results of this study show, that the complex interdependencies of intercultural contact and acculturation are still not fully understood, as it needs more complex models to investigate it. Taking the perspective of personal selection processes in consideration, to predict future performance as valid as possible (Kanning, 2004), measuring the dimensions on the CQS offers the possibility to test prospect employees for their performance in an intercultural environment. Since intelligence offers the best predictor quality for success in the most jobs (Kanning, 2004), intelligence in an intercultural context is of high interest for business psychology. The relationship between intercultural experiences, work-related personality traits, intercultural competence and how it can be improved, offers a promising perspective for future investigations, since more research is needed. A pre- and post-stay design is recommended for future investigations, since it would have gone beyond the scope of the study at hand. However, under this limitation, the present study provides important insights and at the same time impulses for further research.

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When "real" intercultural learning is happening: Case of American study-abroad students in Tokyo

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Abstract

This study is an analysis of how intercultural learning was negotiated and developed by twenty-two American study-abroad students who participated in a fieldtrip with Japanese university students. Both groups were novices in either Japanese or English. The objective of this study was to understand what the study-abroad students with major language barriers could learn from their intercultural experience with local students, how and why their intercultural learning was attained, and what roles educators could play in order to support intercultural learning. The students mostly had access to superficial information about the Japanese students, such as whether they had a brother, or whether they went to a women's college. However, the well-organised group discussions conducted after the fieldtrip helped them to reflect on their intercultural experiences and encouraged them to explore diverse points of view on the Japanese and their own culture.

Keywords: Intercultural learning, Intercultural competence, Study-abroad, Language barriers, Cultural differences and similarities, Japanese and American university students.

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Introduction

Building intercultural competence is an important aspect of learning a language in a globalised society. A wide range of methods, such as telecollaboration (Saba 'Ayon, 2016), student tutoring (Tomita, 2012), and project-based learning (Marwan, 2015) have been implemented in language learning, to enable the learners to interact with native speakers and develop intercultural competence. Building close, meaningful relationships with native speakers is also integral for students in a study-abroad context for improving their awareness of the target language and culture (Pearson-Evans, 2006). Nevertheless, attempts to improve intercultural competence through interactions with native speakers often start only after students attain a certain level of fluency in the target language. Intercultural training in general, with or without the involvement of native speakers, is often designed for individuals who can already communicate in another language. A study by Tran and Duong (2018), for example, examined the effectiveness of intercultural training with Vietnamese participants, who were already fluent in English.

Very few educational experiments have been implemented with students with little to no fluency in their second language. There are few studies on whether meaningful intercultural learning through interactions with native speakers is possible for those with no fluency. This study revolves around three research questions and an analysis of case studies of twenty-two American university students learning Japanese in Tokyo: What would the study-abroad students with major language barriers learn from their intercultural experiences with local students? How was their intercultural learning attained, and why? What roles could educators play to expedite intercultural learning? Understanding more about students without language fluency is urgent today, as diversity without fluency is common in many parts of the world.

Literature review

Developing intercultural communicative competence is not just about becoming familiar with a foreign culture. According to Van Houten and Shelton (2018), it is integral for expanding one's own world view, and to develop an insider's perspective on the target culture's beliefs, traditions and mannerisms. It is also important to cultivate a sensitivity toward alternative perspectives and cultural differences and navigate through these differences through language. Last but not least, an individual must expand one's own identity as a global citizen (Van Houten and Shelton, 2018). Byram, Gribkova, and Starkey (2002) suggested that intercultural competence is the whole package of having intercultural attitudes and knowledge, along with skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness. Their interpretation of "intercultural attitudes" suggested that students should be able to "decentre" their own values and explore how they appear to people from different cultural backgrounds (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002, p.12). This attitude, reinforced by knowledge about social groups, products and practices in their own and other cultures, serves to sustain "skills of interpreting and relating." The ability to interpret the meaning of cultural practices, and to compare and relate these to their own, is the advantage of being an intercultural speaker who understands why misunderstandings may occur with someone who has a different social identity (Byram, Gribkova and Starkey, 2002).

Liddicoat (2008, p.280-284)'s framework of intercultural language teaching also placed importance on having the skill to compare cultures. This begins with noticing cultural similarities and differences. Then, it moves on to comparing elements in the existing knowledge of their own background culture to the incoming information from their target culture. The next step is reflecting on these, and trying

to make sense out of this new experience, as well as exploring what the new information about linguistic and cultural diversity might mean to them. Finally, learners reach the interacting stage, where they activate their learning experiences to create personal meaning. Incorporating these four stages into teaching helps learners to actively engage with the target culture while undergoing a deep process of meaning-making (Liddicoat, 2008). Language teachers can engage in a dialogue with students to expand their comparative perspectives, when the target culture is being discussed in relation to their own. Intentionally scaffolding student thinking can also help them keep moving forward during this process (Liddicoat and Kohler, 2012).

Bennett (2013)'s Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) suggested a similar path to becoming an interculturally sensitive individual. It first starts with an ethnocentric stage of "denial," "defence," and then, "minimisation." People in the first stage, deny the existence of cultural differences. Once they come to realize the significance of cultural differences, in stage two, they start to defend their own or another culture by insisting which one is better. An alternative scenario is where the individual minimises the significance of cultural differences by claiming that cultures do not matter. When people gradually become interculturally more sensitive, they are able to decentre their own cultural values and see other cultures in an ethnorelative manner with measures of "acceptance," "adaptation," and "integration." Individuals begin to accept the significance of cultural differences and adapt to some of these as their own. Finally, they start integrating their old and new cultural values and are able to swing back and forth between cultures appropriately, depending on the situation (Bennett, 2013).

The aforementioned studies illustrate that students need an opportunity to discover cultural similarities and differences, which can become a starting point for developing comparative and ethnorelative intercultural perspectives. It is likely that the American students studying in Japan had abundant opportunities to recognise cultural similarities and differences prior to their fieldtrip. It should be noted that noticing these similarities and differences does not necessarily mean that any kind of deep meaning-making regarding the two cultures was being processed. Creating an educational environment that would encourage noticing, comparing, and reflecting on cultures is effective in terms of promoting the circle of intercultural language learning, and enable students to function, when interacting with those from another culture (Liddicoat, 2008).

Method and outline of the study

Data from ethnographic strategies of investigation, including participant observation during a fieldtrip, as well as group discussions and assignments that were submitted via email after the trip, were analysed. 22 American study-abroad students and 15 local Japanese university students attended the fieldtrip. The primary objective was to build intercultural competence through engaging in interactional activities and collaborative noodle-making at the Cup Noodle Museum in Yokohama, south of Tokyo. An additional objective was to give students the opportunity to use Japanese and English, because both groups had little opportunity to use their target languages with native speakers in their daily lives.

The American students were studying in the Tokyo campus of an American university, where the classes were all taught in English. Administrative matters, curricula and degrees were all based on the American university system, without any local Japanese influences. The students therefore had little opportunity to use Japanese, despite living in central Tokyo for two months. It was their first time to learn Japanese as a second language and meet Japanese students who were not fluent in English.

The Japanese students were recruited from three different universities. The main criteria for selection was whether they were interested in practicing English conversation and meeting non-Japanese students for an intercultural experience. Except for one volunteer who had lived abroad, all the Japanese students were novices in English communication. Since both American and Japanese students were limited in terms of their target languages, communication barriers were expected. Carefully designed icebreaking activities were implemented in the first half of the trip, so that the students would feel more comfortable with each other, before moving on to the museum. The outline and objectives of the activities were given to all the students in advance and they practiced their Japanese and English prior to meeting each other.

The American students were asked to discover three similarities and three differences versus Japanese students during the fieldtrip. This is one of the classic exercises suggested for implementation in the initiation stage of building intercultural competence (Bennett, 2013; Liddicoat, 2008). The students took notes during and after the fieldtrip and submitted their findings to their teacher, approximately a week later. Before the trip, guidelines were given as to what they should look for, to find cultural similarities and differences. The teacher and the researcher of this study, instructed students to discover something through their interactions with the Japanese students, and avoid superficial observations irrelevant to culture, such as eye-color difference or whether one was left-handed or not. After the fieldtrip, the American students participated in group discussions in two groups in order to talk about their findings.

The findings of cultural similarities and differences were analysed using a coding technique (Creswell, 2013). The data from the group discussions was analysed based on the "framework analysis" proposed by Ritchie and Spencer (1994). There were five steps in the analysis: 1. familiarization, 2. identifying a thematic framework, 3. indexing, 4. charting and mapping and 5. interpretation. In this study, interactions between the students during the group discussions were particularly scrutinized, to study the process of how individuals established a framework of thematic ideas. Pseudonyms are used in order to protect the privacy of the participants.

Results

A total of 127 statements, with 63 statements regarding similarities and 64 statements regarding differences, were collected. A two-stage process analysis was used for each statement. The first process was to categorise the types of their discoveries in terms of what or whom the students compared themselves to, to identify what the similarities and differences were. For instance, some statements were a comparison of specific Japanese students whom they had met, while others were more general comparisons. The second process constituted categorising the data based on selected topics of comparison, such as lifestyle, university systems, and hobbies.

Regarding similarities, 22 statements were comparisons of an individual to someone specific they had met, 20 were broad comparisons of the group of Japanese students versus the group of American students, 11 statements were comparisons of the similarities of the Japanese and Americans groups, and 11 statements were unclear about what or whom they were referring to. Please refer to Table 1 for specific examples. The categorised topics of statements are shown in Table 2. The statements regarding the differences were analysed in the same manner. Please see Table 3 and Table 4 for more details.

Table 1. Types of comparisons (similarities)

Similarities	
Types of comparisons	Examples
Individuals (22)	Miki has a pet bunny. I had one when I was young.
Groups (19)	They struggled to speak English like we do with our Japanese
General (11)	Baseball is popular in both cultures. This became apparent in a discussion.
Unclear (11)	Interested in travelling abroad.

Table 2. Topics of similarities

Similarities	
Topics	Examples
Customs (mannerisms, fashion, etc.) (23)	My group mates all had at least one part-time job but didn't need the money desperately.
Personalities/likes/dislikes (23)	The people I talked to had similar interests in entertainment. (action, horror films, music videos)
Language (learning) (6)	Slang is common in both cultures.
Communication (4)	One Japanese girl called me cute for speaking Japanese. I also think it's cute when Japanese people speak English.
University system/college life (4)	Required to learn a second language as a part of the curriculum.
Humour (3)	Some of the Japanese students, like Kenichi, resorted to making a lot of jokes and using humor in their conversations, just like the American students.
Seasonal events (1)	We both celebrate Christmas and New Year.

Table 3. Types of comparisons (differences)

Differences	
Types of comparisons	Examples
Individuals (10)	One student really liked taking selfies with us. I'm too shy to do the same.
Groups (18)	People from our group seemed more willing to get up in front of everyone to talk about themselves or make friends.
General (29)	Much less talkative compared to Americans. Mostly small talk.
Unclear (7)	Dresses very nicely for school.

Table 4. Topics of differences

Differences	
Topics	Examples
Customs (manners, fashion, etc.) (23)	Americans cheat in school more often.
Personalities/ likes/dislikes (6)	Noted in discussion that a general quietness and being respectful of other people 's opinion is a cultural difference.

Language (learning) (4)	My partner said she had been studying English since she was very young in school, whereas my school didn't offer language classes until high school.
Communication (12)	They spoke more quietly; I really felt like a loud American.
University system/college life (7)	Going to a women's university is common.
Humour (8)	They didn't really find American humour funny, probably due to cultural differences.
Seasonal events (4)	Christmas is celebrated by couples and children. It isn't religious.

It was interesting to note that the students mostly compared specific individuals or groups of students when identifying similarities. On the other hand, there was a tendency to generalise when describing differences. The students observed more similarities in terms of customs and personalities. To the students, the most outstanding differences were in customs, followed by communication and humour.

The students interacted with each other quite actively despite having language barriers during the ice-breaking activities. They often used their phones to translate words or phrases they were unfamiliar with. They also took advantage of the students with a better command of their second language as a main source of information. Except for some students who stayed in the background without talking much, many others, especially the Americans, engaged in lively conversations with the Japanese students in English.

As a part of their ice-breaking activities, the students worked on mini-poster presentations regarding holiday-celebrations, humour and slang, with other students pointing out cultural similarities and differences. Some of the students were ambiguous, as to why a particular observation was made. For example, several students noted that "Japanese students don't curse as much," although not only the Japanese, but the American students rarely used curse words in an academic context. It should be noted that even though the Japanese students, in fact, were cursing in Japanese, the American students simply did not have the vocabulary to understand what was going on.

The American students took part in group discussions in two groups, approximately three weeks after the trip. The purpose of these group discussions was to have them reflect on their intercultural experiences based on their findings of cultural similarities and differences. "Comparing" and "reflecting" are the next stages of developing intercultural competence after noticing what the similarities and differences are (Liddicoat, 2008).

Through conducting a framework analysis (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994), a certain pattern of addressing cultures emerged in both discussion groups. A bold statement would be made from a single perspective, followed by a critical reflection interjected by a teacher or contradicting statements from other peers, which lead to rephrasing and rethinking. This conversational flow is described in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Pattern of addressing cultures in discussion groups

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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Reporting cultural    │
                    │  similarities/differences│
                    └─────────────────────────┘
            ↙                                       ↘
┌─────────────────────────┐           ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Critical reflection by  │           │ Contradicting statements│
│ teacher                 │           │                         │
└─────────────────────────┘           └─────────────────────────┘
            ↘                                       ↙
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Rephrasing/Rethinking │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
                                ⇩
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │ New/related topic for   │
                    │ discussion              │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
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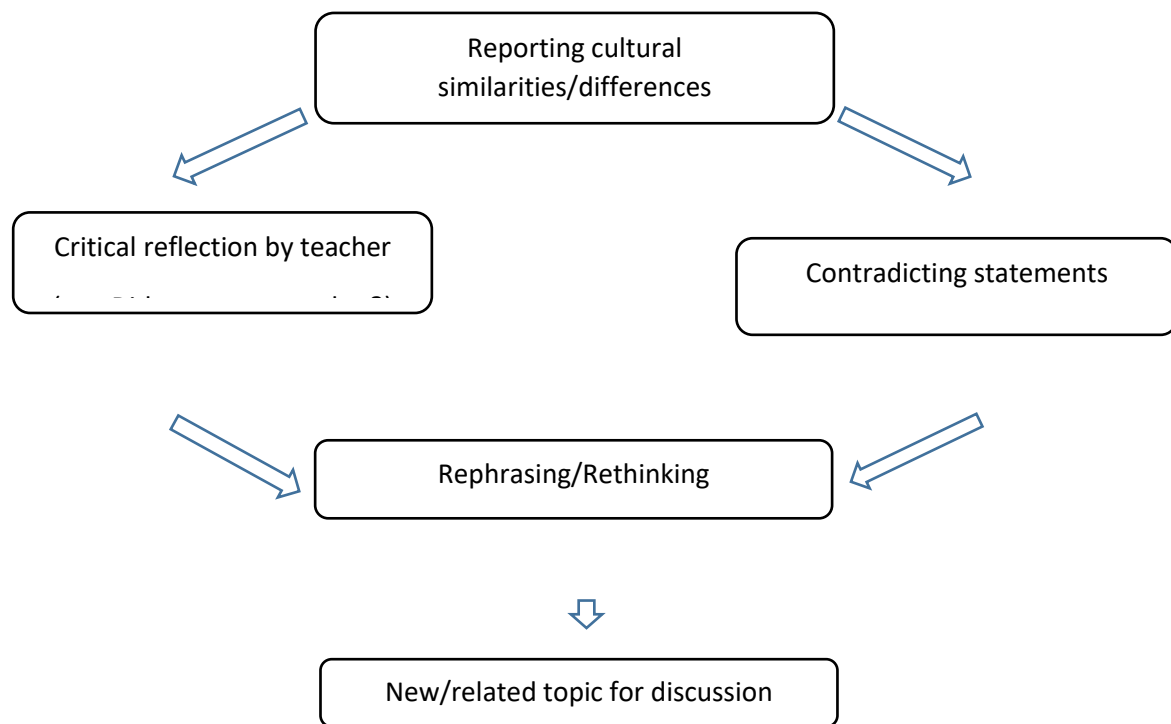
The reflection process often started when someone made a bold statement from a single perspective. This tended to be the most memorable event from the fieldtrip. The statement would elicit a critical question from the teacher, which often led to the speaker rethinking about his/her original statement. Please see Excerpt 1 for examples of these. Single perspectives modified through a teacher's critical comment have been underlined. Words used for indexing are in brackets [] (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994)

Excerpt 1.

Mike: One of the things that I have is that people will travel far for university. They will not just stay in a place that is close to their house. [bold statement]

Teacher: Okay, so that is similar to you guys. [emphasising "similar" and "you guys"]

Mike: Yes. [confirmation]

Teacher: You find that everybody travels and they travel far away, okay.

[confirmation with a critical eye]

Mike: Not everybody, but some. [rephrasing]

Another conversation pattern was developed by the first speaker's classmates, who had different experiences and perspectives from the same field trip. They did not necessarily contradict the first statement, but they had different interpretations and versions of the same experience, which suggested that there were alternative perspectives. In many cases the teacher's critical questions and

responses coming from their classmates helped move the discussion forward. An example of this flow is presented in Excerpt 2:

Excerpt 2.

Sally: Differences. <u>Going to a women's university is common here</u>. [bold statement]

Teacher: Okay. It isn't common in the States? [confirmation]

Patricia: No. And <u>I want to talk about Greece</u>. [different background]

Teacher: Greece? Yes? <u>Not common in Greece</u>? [confirmation]

Patricia: No. [confirmation]

Teacher: So, okay. <u>Why do you think</u> we <u>have</u> women's universities? [critical question with a focus on "why" and "have," avoiding the word "common"]

Kate: <u>There are women's universities</u> in the States. [different perspective]

Teacher: You do? [encouraging the speaker to bring a different perspective into the discussion]

Kate: Yes. <u>They are uncommon, but yes, there are</u>. [different perspective]

Sally assumed that going to a women's university was common in Japan, based on her single experience of meeting someone who was going to a women's university. The statement was made in such a way that there was a strong suggestion that this was unique to Japan and distinctively different from the United States. Her statement was slightly modified by Patricia who talked about how things were in Greece as well as Kate who pointed out that there are women's universities in the United States. The word "common" was rephrased by the teacher to "have," which resulted in bringing awareness to the fore that there are, in fact, women's universities in the United States. The differences underlined by the first speaker were modified to commonalities with the United States in this manner. This became possible through another speaker, who opened the door to exploring broader perspectives.

Bringing different perspectives into discussion enabled the students to deepen and expand the idea presented by the first bold statement. In the case of "going to women-only schools is common" (Excerpt 2), the students started discussing why Japanese women would go to women-only schools. Some underlined that Japanese women behaved in a more feminine manner than American women who have both feminine and masculine attributes, which could be the reason for gender separation. This statement was replaced by another perspective that focused on the quietness of Japanese students of both genders. From the new bold statement, "The Japanese are much quieter than Americans," they expanded their discussion to investigate the reasons for this quietness. Some attributed this to shyness, whilst others said it was due to respectfulness. One student pointed out that the number of American students exceeded the Japanese saying that this might have been overwhelming for the Japanese students, discouraging them to speak up in English. Another student pointed out that none of the Japanese students in her group tried to talk to her even in Japanese. She suggested that the quietness was not because it was difficult to speak English, but it was perhaps something more cultural.

Similar conversation patterns repeatedly emerged throughout the discussion. The repetition did not always result in a clear conclusion, with one answer. Rather, repeated attempts to explore different perspectives served the purpose of making the participants question whether the first statement was the only truth, and opened doors to other perspectives.

Discussion

This study examined the intercultural learning experiences of 22 American students who participated in a fieldtrip with 15 Japanese students. Their task was to identify three cultural similarities and three differences through interacting with the Japanese students. To further explore their findings, they also participated in group discussions after submitting their assignments,

The first research question was about what the study-abroad students with major language barriers could learn from their intercultural experiences with local students. Their responses suggest that students identified with cultural similarities and differences regarding customs, personalities (likes/dislikes), languages (learning), communication, university systems/college life, humour and seasonal events. The students were most interested in information about differences or similarities in customs. This might be due to customs being a broad topic, including conventions at part-time jobs, their living situation, manners, fashion and how to spend free time. These findings were gleaned from having conversations with each other, e.g., "My partner said" or "Kaori has," or direct listening, as well as, the observation of particular topics in the mini-poster presentations, e.g., Japanese New Year, and general observations whilst spending half a day together, e.g., general quietness or the femininity of Japanese students.

Most of these findings, however, seemed superficial, grazing only the tip of the cultural iceberg (Oberg, 1960). It is unclear whether some observations, such as, "Americans cheat more often," were identified through their interactions with the Japanese students or whether they just wrote down their predetermined assumptions as "findings." It is possible that a superficial analysis of cultural similarities and differences might have occurred due to language barriers and situational factors. The students were unable to ask or talk about why some Japanese female students dressed nicely, spoke with a higher tone, acted womanly and went to women's colleges. They were unable to expand the conversation to determine whether having one sibling was common or whether it was just the person they happened to have a conversation with. The lack of fluency in languages and time constraints limited the possibilities of them having a more in depth conversation. It is possible that they did not have enough time to probe deeper.

Interestingly, the "superficial" cultural findings were expanded to probe deeper in the group discussions, which was related to the second research question on how and why their intercultural learning was attained. Noticing cultural similarities and differences is the first step to intercultural learning, but it is incomplete until a cross-cultural comparison is made and there has been some time for reflection (Liddicoat, 2008). When the students noticed similarities, it was often too personal, such as "We both liked video games," whilst it was too general when they noticed differences, such as "Americans are louder than the Japanese." These findings, which were mostly based on a single experience from a single perspective, were negotiated with their peers who also had their own versions of experiences and perspectives. The diversity of perspectives, expressed in their native language apart from the Japanese students, appeared to be produced by a deep meaning-making process of cultural comparisons and reflections (Liddicoat, 2008). A single bold statement such as "going to all-women's school is common," (Excerpt 2) for example, developed into a discussion of

whether the Japanese were generally quiet due to language, cultural barriers or due to situational factors. Many students only wrote about the general quietness of Japanese students in their assignments. It was only through group discussions that this generalised concept was examined in more detail and the students had thought about what this quietness was all about.

It was unclear whether the students felt that their intercultural competence had improved through group discussions. However, each bold statement based on a single perspective was modified, negotiated, and slightly altered through discussions (Excerpt 1 and 2). The discussion instigated students to think about alternative ways to interpret their findings. Decentring and ethnorelative perspectives are the keys to improving intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 2013; Liddicoat, 2008).

The third research question was about what roles the educators can play in order to support intercultural learning. This question yielded insights on how educators could support students during their meaning-making process of cultures, by asking critical questions and helping them to arrive at the realisation that their findings may not be the only truth. What the students with almost no fluency in Japanese identified in their intercultural experience might be limited and superficial, but their findings became an excellent source of discussions which were often helped along by the teacher, who intentionally scaffolded student thinking (Liddicoat and Kohler, 2012). The teacher's supportive role in the meaning-making process was observed only in the group discussions in this study. The same kind of support can be given when students are making presentations on their findings or writing collaborative reports in groups, or any situation where the students have the opportunity to exchange their thoughts.

Conclusions

American study-abroad students who participated in a fieldtrip with local Japanese students were studied to analyse how intercultural learning was negotiated and promoted. Both student groups had almost no fluency in Japanese or English and observations were made on whether it was possible for them to have a meaningful intercultural experience from a joint fieldtrip. Language barriers and a lack of intimacy with the Japanese students resulted in the American students only being able to make superficial observations and discoveries. During the group discussions, however, the students started challenging each other and questioning the findings of each individual from different perspectives as well as different interpretations of each reality. This resulted in broadening and increasing the single interpretations of what each individual observed and learned during the trip. A deep meaning-making process was also encouraged by the teacher, who frequently asked critical questions as the facilitator. The students without language competency appeared to be unable to access meaningful, deep intercultural learning through effective communication. It can be argued, however, that even their superficial observations from these intercultural experiences could be a catalyst in broadening their perspectives, if these new experiences and observations are compared and they are encouraged to spend time reflecting on these (Liddicoat, 2008) in an appropriate educational setting.

It remains to be seen how intercultural competencies developed during this fieldtrip, through engaging in assignments and participating in group discussions. It would be most interesting to conduct further interviews about perspective changes in the future. This may shed light on how this experience has impacted on how each student thinks. It is hoped that students will receive support in broadening their perspectives as well as improving their understanding of how to build human relationships even with language and cultural barriers. Arming students with such skills would make for a much more productive and pleasant work life in the 21st century.

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Diversity beliefs and diversity climate: Potentials for organisations

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Abstract

Do multipliers have to be more sensitized for the issue diversity?; Do they have to develop specific competences?; Which do they already have? These questions were analysed by a qualitative investigation. Ca. 70 interviews with managers of the large DAX companies and employees were conducted. The results show a field of tension between self-perception and perception of others and the assessment of the relevance of diversity attitudes and measures, competences and their actual implementation. The results indicate the need of promotion of competences, especially regarding the intercultural competence. We position ourselves in a functionalist perspective, in line with the work on paradigms of Burell and Morgan (2017) and Deetz (1996) in social sciences and Cross-Cultural Management. We present these results from a functionalist perspective in order to ensure the greatest possible "objectivity".

Keywords: migration, diversity potentials, intercultural competence, human resource management

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Introduction

Diversity has become a major issue in Germany as well as in the other European countries. The process of globalisation as well as the European Integration increases the necessity for action of organisations and societies to adapt their structures and processes to demographic changes and diversity. For example, people are getting older. Since the 19th century, peoples´ life expectation in Germany has doubled (Eurostat, 2017). This not only has consequences for society, but also for organisations, as teams are perceived as more heterogeneous.

To ensure the companies success, organisations have to select the best fitting employees, who bring required diversity-competences like intercultural competence, social and digital competences, to meet the challenges of the 21th century. As it was an exception seeing people from different cultures interacting, this has become everyday present (Fantini, 2009). People with migration backgrounds are often discriminated in practice, even though they are important potentials for organisations. Therefore, companies nowadays must promote proactively, especially people with divers attributes as ageing employees, women and persons with an immigration background (Fuchs and Dörfler, 2005).

A successful Diversity Management is essential for organisations. The strong interest of society and economy regarding Diversity Management has raised as a consequence of the fast changes European society is experiencing since 2014. More than 2.600 organisations are signatories of the Diversity charter of German companies. However, the national cross section of organisations in Germany shows that around two thirds of the organisations are not actively implementing diversity management (KFW Research, 2017). Diversity has to be well organised and consciously integrated (e. g. Thomas, 2003; Franken, 2015). It should be mentioned that migration might delay the process of ageing society, though cannot stop it permanently (Eurostat, 2017).

Review (for academic contributions)

The term "Diversity" describes the personnel diversity in companies (Becker, 2006) and the common attributes and differences of individuals (Mayer et al., 2018). It means both the obvious and barely

perceived and salient characters like age, religion, sexual orientation, cultural values as well as barely obviously changing characters like language und competence (Genkova and Ringeisen, 2017) and the values of equal opportunity and fairness.Diversity Management aims to integrate diversity in organisations and to adapt the values, attitudes and behaviours of organisation and working groups (Ashikali and Groeneveld, 2015). The requirement for an organisation for the success of diversity is the appreciation of employees and their heterogeneity (Vedder, 2011). Employees should be treated fairly, except of their cultural individual characteristics and should be able to use their skills free from norms and prejudice (Vedder, 2011). Diversity of employees can cause various effects in an organisation. This depends especially on how diversity is respected. If variety bases on status, the consequences might be negative. Experience in living and working under the circumstances of high diversity has a positive effect. To promote diversity actively can contribute to a companies success (Garib, 2013).

When people do a perspective change, diversity can be enriching for companies and individuals (Page, 2007). Studies show that individuals with a pro-diversity belief describe multicultural groups as better, precisely because of the group's diversity. People with a pro-diversity belief identify themselves more with the group (Van Dick et al., 2008). This complies with the social identity. Wolf and Van Dick (2008) showed that people, who see migrants as an enrichment, have more contacts to them and express less racism than those, who do not see migrants as enrichment for the society. Stegmann (2011) pointed out in his Meta-Analysis that pro-diversity beliefs and a positive diversity culture lead to beneficial results for groups and individuals and increase job performance.

Various reasons exist about the organisation's motivations and normative convictions to integrate diversity in their strategy and culture (Ely and Thomas, 2001; Jansen, Otten and Van der Zee, 2015). One approach is the discrimination-and-fairness approach. The central idea is the equal opportunity. This leads to quotes like anti-discrimination laws. In addition, there is the access-and-legitimacy-perspective. This perspective sees diversity in the organisation as an access to new markets and is understood as an additional value by the organisations (Jansen, Otten and Van der Zee, 2015). The third approach is the integration-and-learning-perspective. Managers understand diversity as a resource for learning, changing and renewal. They appreciate diversity on every level and encourage the exchange of different opinions. All this diversity's approaches are successful to motivate managers to diversify their staff. Only the integration-and-learning approach increases success sustainably (Jansen, Otten and Van der Zee, 2015).

Leaders have an influence on the satisfaction, health and performance of employees (Franken, 2015). They take over different roles and are stuck between role model function and performance pressure

(Franken, 2015). Especially, managers take over a central role by integrating diversity management (Wildermuth and Gray, 2005). Top managers develop the diversity strategy. The middle management implements it. Therefore, it plays a key role and demonstrates heterogeneity. They are responsible for the success of diversity management and support diversity competences (Thomas, 1990). The task of the leaders is to convince of the issue of diversity (Dreas and Rastetter, 2016).

All studies have one in common. Organisations that do not implement diversity management have to face negative consequences and disadvantage themselves and others.

Research has shown that diversity is an advantage, but can also be a source of conflicts and counterproductive behaviour. A diversity fair personnel selection is crucial for organisations as it gives companies flexibility and adaptability (Kersting and Ott, 2016).

Around 4.7 million migrants have immigrated in the EU in 2015, while around 2.4 million people were from third world countries. Germany, the United Kingdom, France, Spain and Italy noted the highest level of immigration. Around 35.1 million people, who were born outside of Europe, live in the EU. 19.3 million people migrated inside the EU (Eurostat, 2017). Romanians, Poles, Italians, Portuguese as well as Englishman are the five biggest groups of EU-citizens, who immigrated into another EU-state (Eurostat, 2017).

In the context of migration, stress as well as the physical and psychological health have been considered in the past (Eggerth and Flynn, 2013). Due to ineffective coping behaviour and appearing stressors, the experienced burden is high (Eggerth and Flynn, 2013). Discrimination, stress events and social isolation can have an impact on the well-being of persons with an immigration background (Bozorgmehr and Razum, 2015). Not only individuals cause discrimination, but also organizations, that processes and structures make it difficult for migrants to get access to the labour market and to work in their key qualification. This is called structural discrimination. Only structural integration is able to support persons with an immigration background to work in their key qualification.

Most organisations show signs of structural discrimination. As a consequence, persons with an immigration background have less labour market chances, compared to persons without an immigration background. The foreign graduations are often not recognised and, therefore, migrants are not allowed to work in their primarily qualification (Badura et al., 2010). Studies showed a negative relation between the education and psychological integration. This phenomenon describes that higher educated immigrants surrender from the host society (De Vroom and Verkuyten, 2015).

The so-called glass ceiling effect regards gender and discrimination. It is stronger for persons with an immigration background, as frustration and disappointed career expectations lead to a negative consideration of the host society.

Not only persons with an immigration background feel stress. People without an immigration background feel stress, too, due to the change of habitual, social established perspectives. Both, persons with and without immigration background have to adjust to changing points of views and methods (Van Assche et al., 2018).

Normally, research tries to show how diversity management causes positive effects on the organisations success. However, the results are heterogeneous and strongly depend on the specific cultural circumstances (e.g. Genkova and Ringeisen, 2017).

The question which advantages diversity management brings for organisations is getting more and more important. The effects of diversity actions are often queried and expected to show quantifiable results immediately. Research and practice show that diversity sensitive attitudes are predictors for success. Top down processes are the most likely to change attitudes of employees, what shows the importance of management for the implementation and acceptance of diversity actions (Dreas and Rastetter, 2016). This also applies for other employees with diverse attributes, such as age, gender and skin colour.

Finkelstein et al. (1995) showed in a meta-analysis that younger persons tend to estimate the development potential of ageing employees less. At the same time, younger employees considered ageing employees reliable. Human Resource Management are more likely to assess inter alia ageing persons, if they fit to the advertised position. This strongly depends on how the position contains role expectations, that fit to ageing persons (Diekman and Hirnisey, 2007). Bell et al. (2011) showed that diverse team age has no effect on team performance. The advantages ageing team members are their experiences and routine in cooperation with e.g. long-term customers (Wei and Lau, 2012).

Top-down processes and leadership as instruments to integrate successful diversity management are seen as empirically verified. Thus, there are following research questions investigated in the study at hand: Which context variables are seen as important?; Which obstacles exist in the implementation?; Do managers and human resource managers see the problem fields?

Method

Explorative qualitative interviews investigating issues of diversity in organisations were conducted, to analyse which role managers have for the integration of successful diversity management and which competences are necessary regarding diversity in companies.

63 telephone interviews with managers (N = 17) and human resource managers (N = 13) as well as employees with (N = 18) and without an immigration background (N = 15) from different organisations were conducted. They have been asked about the issue of equal opportunities, especially equal opportunities of persons with an immigration background and elderly employees. In order to answer the leading questions, following hypotheses were generated:

Explorative hypothesis: Managers and employees assess the need of diversity actions as equivalent.

Quantitative hypotheses: Hypothesis 1: Managers and employees differentiate regarding the expression of the stress level of employees with and without an immigration background.

Hypothesis 2: Managers and employees differentiate regarding the forms of the subjective assessment of the social competence.

A qualitative interview was chosen as a survey method because there are rarely praxis-relevant and scientific results of diversity, especially cultural diversity and age diversity regarding managers. It enables, to present the relationships and backgrounds of the topic diversity and the challenges of the Human Resource Management from the view of managers and human resource managers. Additionally, conclusions for diversity potentials and obstacles regarding the equal opportunities of persons with an immigration background and ageing people are possible. The interviews were conducted using a structured interview guideline.

Through qualitative interviews, non-considered aspects can be figured out to generate new conclusions. In this case, this especially regards diversity actions and the competences, leading to successful outcomes (Mayer, 2013). Additionally, it is examined to what extent stress has an impact on employees with and without an immigration background. Standardised interviews are designed deductive, theory-based and increases the comparability of the data (Mayer, 2013).

Open and closed questions are used, e.g. "How stressed are employees with an immigration background in your company at the moment, in your opinion?" For the closed questions a 5-Point Likert Scale is used, e.g. 1= not at all stressed until 5 = very stressed. The combination of open and closed questions enables on the one hand to experience the individual views of participants and on the other hand to compare the interviews among each other.

The interviews were analysed by the quantitative content analyses by Mayring (2015). The elements of the material were counted and compared in their frequency with other elements using Excel (Mayring, 2015). The sample consists of 17 managers and 13 human resource managers. 17 of them are male and 13 female as well as 15 employees without an immigration background and 18 employees with an immigration background. 20 are female and 13 male. The age average of the managers is M = 40.83 years (N = 29; SD = 9.30). The age average of the employees is M = 35.48 years (N = 33; SD = 9.99).

Results

Explorative hypothesis: Managers and employees both consider the need of diversity actions equivalently high. The results show that managers and employees assessed highly the diversity quotas, e.g. quota of women and migrants. However, these quotas are usually not legally consolidated and there is a subjective lack of official guidelines. Mangers claimed that such quotas exist and are implemented as internal orientations in organisations. Further actions are a diversity department, equal opportunities officer and a diversity representative.

A lot of of diversity actions deal with the diversity aspects of gender in Germany. Managers were able to list up various measures such as trainings, language courses and exchange programs or culture trainings, which contribute to the implementation of diversity. Human resource manager listed up trainings, joining the Diversity Charter of Germany Companies and the cooperation with the Federal Employment Agency. According to the statements of recruiters "individual intercultural competence trainings are offered for employees who would like to deal with intercultural competences and to analyse their own intercultural competence." The trainings include e. g. issues like "How to recruit internationally?, which aims at the intercultural difference at the recruiting." Further issues are "anti-prejudice [...] or emotional competences.". In contrast, employees stated that they didn´t experienced any diversity measures at all. Employees with an immigration background perceive the implementation of diversity actions as insufficient and are unsatisfied with that. Most of the diversity actions deal with the communication of diversity in companies like On- and Offline platforms, diversity departments and diversity committees. Both groups mentioned that trainings are offered in the organisations.

Most of the interviewed employees work in companies that belong to the Diversity Charta of German companies (Charta der Vielfalt and Ernst and Young GmbH, 2016) and, therefore, have implemented diversity in their company strategy. Important points for employees were the own professional

development and the equal treatment at the personnel selection. Employees mentioned the following aspects as solutions: "Anonymous applications will not asserted. […] Those, who have employee responsibilities and make personnel selections, should do diversity competence training. They have to reflect themselves, if they are poised to hire someone, who is different from them. […] I think that is actually the question and has to be answered by the human resource managers: Am I ready to hire somebody, who is different than I?" Following the statements of employees, also a form of benefit analysis can be helpful "[…] which hide the background of people as good as possible. So therefore, only the professional skills, social competence and media competences are measured without being influenced by the appearance of the person, e. g. gender etc."

All participants agreed that openness, cultural interests are very important. Tolerance and self-reflection are also important, followed by the intercultural competence and the cultural knowledge and awareness. The employees with and without an immigration background list up more competences and differentiate stronger regarding the promotion of intercultural competence. This fits to previous results.

Managers point out, that diversity competence will be an important issue in the future. They do not see the importance of this theme for the present. They attribute externally. Furthermore, managers mention risk tolerance as relevant for diversity competence. They also mention emotional stability, intercultural flexibility, social identity, intercultural anti-prejudice as well as sensitisation for cultural differences. Employees mention instead empathy and openness, social competence, self-reflection, cultural knowledge and tolerance.

Previous research showed that perspective change and experience exchange are stronger predictors for intercultural decision-making (e.g. Genkova and Ringeisen, 2017). The perspective change is a stronger predictor than empathy. Risk tolerance is not considered as relevant for diversity and the increasing of intercultural competence. Managers assess diversity as a threat and the stress level for them as high as they are seen as multipliers for diversity (see Table 1).

Table 1: Importance of Diversity

Managers/ Human Resource Managers	Employees with and without an immigration background
Seriousness and urgency of diversity is not clearly recognized Incorrect assessment of the stress of migrants	Seriousness and urgency of diversity is not clearly recognized by employees without an immigration background

No consideration of the stress level of migrants in the day-to-day management	Good assessment of the stress level of migrants by employees without an immigration background
	Risk to see diversity as a problem

Both, managers and employees, assess diversity measures as important. The results show, that employees deal more with diversity, based on the number of mentions and differentiation. This might be due to the fact, that employees face more diverse circumstances during their daily life and work than managers.

There is a difference between self- and outside perception of managers and employees. Both groups attribute deficits and the need for diversity actions stronger to the other group. _Diversity processes usually proceed top-down (Dreas and Raststetter, 2016). A further result is that top-down processes are only successful, when the expression of diversity sensitive competences is strong (Dreas and Raststetter, 2016).

Hypothesis 1: Managers and employees differentiate regarding the expression of the stress level of employees with an immigration background.

The results of the hypothesis demonstrate that the assessment of the stress level of employees with an immigration background is the same of managers and employees (T = .035; df 1; 49; p = .972).

Results are supported by the qualitative analysis. It showed that especially prejudices and the impatience of others based on eventually language problems as well as different work attitudes based on intercultural differences are stressing for employees with an immigration background. Employees with immigration background supported this: "People with an immigration background have the feeling: I have to give more than 120 % than my German colleagues. This is one reason why migrants feel more stressed."

Hypothesis 2: Managers and employees differentiate regarding the forms of the subjective assessment of the social competence.

There is no significant difference between managers and employees regarding the subjective assessment of social competence (T = -.489; df 2; 59; p = .628). This might be an indication that both groups feel prepared for the challenges of diversity management. This show, fitting previous research, that the need to develop one's competencies is attributed to the other group.

Discussion

To sum up, employees and managers do recognize the relevance of diversity in modern organisations. However, this is stronger for employees than for managers. Managers spoke mostly about the importance of diversity measures for the organisation performance, as well as justice and fairness for employees in the interviews. However, they assessed this issue as important for the future, as they see no actual need in the present. Managers deny the actual need of action and do not recognise or diagnose the stress level of employees with and without an immigration background enough, based on the diversity change. Managers have recognised the seriousness and urgency of diversity, but they do not see the urgency regarding cultural diversity and equal opportunities of persons with an immigration background. Human resource managers are not able to assess the additional stress of migrants correctly and to consider them in their day-to-day management. The employees have recognised the importance of diversity. Employees without immigration background have difficulties to see the importance of personal actions regarding equal opportunities of people with and without immigration background. However, they assess the stress level of employees with an immigration background well. Employees have spoken about the risk of problematization of diversity. There are differences in attitudes within Germany. In the western part of Germany, like the Ruhr-region there is a high proportion of migrants. Consequently, it is normal to work in a cultural highly divers setting.

An important part of diversity competence is the intercultural and social competence. empathy, tolerance and communication competences, openness, self-reflection and emotional competences as well as cultural knowledge and awareness were also mentioned. Managers and employees have assessed the need to promote the competence by trainings and experiences abroad. This sounds contradictory to the results that both groups do not have significant differences regarding the subjective assessed social competence. The self-assessment is very high in addition, although the qualitative questionnaire classifies it as high.

It can be positively highlighted that the sample of 63 managers and employees with and without an immigration background in total has a relative high diversification. Furthermore, diversity aspects could be considered by different perspectives, by involved employees and managers, who develop diversity strategies for their companies and employees. The interview guideline covers many issues of diversity management. The combination of closed and open questions increases the comparability of the interviews, compared to interviews with only open questions. Nevertheless, the results of structured interviews are less comparable, inter alia due to the open questions, whereby the analysis is more difficult. The topic diversity, especially equal opportunities of persons with an immigration

background is hardly investigated. Therefore, the explorative approach is considered crucial for generating hypotheses and perspectives for future research.

There are some limitations of the study. The interviews dealt partly superficial with the issues of ageing employees and diversity measures regarding them. However, it is possible to differentiate from the sample due to other characteristics, e.g. size, structure, implementation of a diversity department. Based on the results the interview guideline should be extended, also to investigate the category systems regarding their quality criteria.

The results that regional difference exist in Germany regarding the importance of diversity actions have to be considered critically, as the interviewed persons have answered the questions of the interviews differently in detail. The results of this study have been used to generate a new questionnaire. Additional aspects regarding equal opportunities of persons with an immigration background could be measured. These aspects could not be asked in detail in conventional quantitative surveys. It was able to take a stronger focus regarding the urgency of diversity.

There are also limitations regarding the sample: The results of the interviews give only approaches regarding the equal opportunities of persons with an immigration background and ageing people. To get a representative sample, it is necessary to generate a sample with managers from different working fields, locations in Germany and other small, medium-sized and large organisations.

As the survey method was an interview, also the topic of social desirability has to be kept in mind. A deliberate misinterpretation is not likely, as the respondents participated voluntarily and had not to expect any sanctions or other effects by specific statements. Social desirability could be minimised by the anonymization of the data but it could still occur due to the social interaction during the interviews. This could lead to a distortion of the results because e.g. the individual responsibility or the skills of the own person were presented more positive.

In summary: It is important so integrate diversity principles more in the company guidelines and manager guidelines. Apparently, to diagnose the present need of diversity correctly, leaders should be more sensitized, so that they are able and are willing to implement the actions now and not in the future.

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Language skills' influence on intercultural competence learning during international student mobility

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Abstract

This paper investigates the link between foreign language skills, the international experience gained during a year of study abroad, and intercultural competence, using structural equations modeling. To this purpose, we exploit longitudinal survey data collected among student of a French Higher Education Institute, before and after a one-year study stay abroad. Intercultural competence was measured through the understanding of critical incidents. The results show that the level in English and the competence in the local language have an impact on intercultural competence, along with open-mindedness, the length of the mobility and negative emotions experienced during the stay.

Keywords: Critical incident technique, Intercultural competence, International Experience, Language, Language Skills, Personality traits, Study abroad, Survey data

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Introduction

In the context of a growing globalization, more and more people are now mobile internationally, professionally or in their private lives. Over the last two decades, study abroad programs have been offered to more and more students in higher education, in Europe notably thanks to the Erasmus program. International student mobility has been strongly encouraged by public education policies because of its contribution to human capital in the context of the contemporary global knowledge economy (Guruz, 2011). Overall, international student mobility gets very positive feedback by students, future employers, and public institution. But some returning students also mention that they spent most of their time with other students from their home country, talking in their mother tongue.

Study abroad stays have been introduced in many student curricula with the objective to develop the students' intercultural competence, through significant international experience. To succeed in international interaction, that is to say, to understand its interlocutors, and to be understood by them, intercultural competence is essential. Intercultural competence is considered as a key competence in companies and international organizations. It is seen as an important criterion for the adaptation of the international manager or foreign assignee (Black et al., 1991), as necessary for successful interactions within multinational companies (Ralston et al., 1995) and as one of the key performance factors of intercultural team leaders (Hajro & Pudelko, 2010).

The aim of this study is to understand to what extent and under which conditions foreign language skills influence intercultural competence learning during international student mobility. To do so, we collected longitudinal survey data among two student cohorts of a French Higher Education Institute, measuring their language skills and personal characteristics before the IE, and the conditions of the IE and their IC after the IE. Data analysis relies on structural equations modeling in which observed variables describing language skills, individual characteristics and international experience drive IC.

The results contribute not only to research, but also to curriculum design in higher education, concerning study abroad programs design and preparation. This paper first reviews the literature, then details the method of survey data collection and analysis, before presenting the results.

Literature review

The following literature review is threefold. The first section presents the concept, approaches and measures of intercultural competence; the second section focuses on international experience as a factor enhancing intercultural competence; the third section reviews the literature on foreign language skills and their link with intercultural competence.

Intercultural competence

In the field of international business, IC has been defined as "an individual's effectiveness in drawing upon a set of knowledge, skills, and personal attributes to work successfully with people from different national cultural backgrounds at home or abroad" (Johnson et al., 2006: 530). In other words, IC includes the ability to draw on personal resources and traits to understand the specifics of intercultural interaction and to adjust one's behavior to these specifics. Competence is an intelligence of action that mobilizes knowledge in and through action (Zarifian, 1995). As such, competence cannot be directly observed empirically.

Numerous contributions, including literature reviews, on IC in the field of international business have been published during the last 15 years. However, this abundance of publications suffers from ambiguous construct definitions and poor integration (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar, 2007). A striking example is the lack of connections between literature on IC, cross-cultural competence (CCC), and cultural intelligence (CQ). Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) never mentioned the term CCC in their literature review, while Johnson, Lenartowicz, and Apud (2006) quote IC in only one sentence referring to Hofstede's (2001) formulation. More recent literature (e.g. Ang et al., 2007, Thomas et al., 2008) has added a third wording "cultural intelligence." CQ is defined as the "capability to function effectively in culturally diverse settings" (Ang et al., 2007: 335). We consider that the constructs of IC and CQ are very close: both involve the understanding of specificity of cross-cultural interaction and the capacity to adapt one's behavior to this specificity. It appears that CQ largely overlaps with a forth concept, "global mindset" (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017). Although the definitions largely converge, scholars not only use different terms for the concept of IC but also hardly ever integrate contributions using a different terminology. In contrast, we consider that these

concepts are very close. We use the term "intercultural competence" here but include literature on CCC and CQ within this wording.

Spitzberg and Changnon's (2009) presentation of 22 models of IC makes evident that conceptualizations are highly diverse in their disciplines and terminologies and their scholarly and practical objectives. Van de Vijver and Leung argued in 2009 that the strong interest in IC has not led to a significantly better understanding of the concept. The fuzziness of the developments on IC has even led scholars to question the usefulness of the concept itself (Livian, 2011). The main categories of models are as follows: (1) compositional models listing elements/components of IC such as individuals' knowledge and behavior (e.g. Deardorff, 2006), (2) co-orientational and adaptational models focusing on communication and interaction between people from different cultures (e.g. Fantini, 1995), and (3) developmental models including successive competence levels that can be reached through learning processes (e.g. Hammer, Bennett & Wiseman, 2003). In other words, the huge majority of contributions on IC define the concept in terms of components, interaction processes, or levels. Among these, the compositional conceptualizations predominate in the subfield of IC, and this approach has been adopted by the subfield of CQ. This paper also adopts a componential approach to IC.

Componential definitions of IC provide lists of components that together are thought to constitute the concept. Four types of components of IC have been identified (Ruben, 1989): attitudes, personality traits, cognitive abilities and skills, and actual behavior. These types of components roughly correspond to the classification of "knowledge, skills, abilities and other personal characteristics" (KSAOs, Caligiuri, 2006), with the particularity that abilities are addressed through actual behavior and other personal characteristics through specific personality traits and attitudes. For each component, Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) list dozens of elements mentioned in the literature. They argue that "the more a model incorporates specific conceptualization of interactants' motivation, knowledge, skills, context, and outcomes, in the context of an ongoing relationship over time, the more advanced the model" (2009: 44) of IC. However, the authors also recognize that "there is a need to provide a more parsimonious model" (2009: 45) than the list of 300-plus terms and concepts related to IC they provide.

Personality traits and attitudes that are most frequently quoted in the literature (e.g. Caligiuri, 2006; Johnson et al., 2006; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001) as being strongly linked or equivalent to IC are open-mindedness (or openness), absence of ethnocentrism, sociability (or extraversion), emotional stability, self-confidence, empathy, attributional complexity, and tolerance for ambiguity. Some of them are stable personality traits (openness and extraversion

are two of the "big five" personality traits), while others such as ethnocentrism and empathy are more specific attitudes (Shaffer et al., 2006). Ethnocentrism, "a view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it" (Neuliep, 2002: 201) means the absence or lack of intercultural competence. Ethnocentrism is also an attitude toward cultural diversity, which means a component of IC, and can therefore be integrated as such in a component approach of IC (Bartel-Radic & Giannelloni, 2017).

The cognitive dimension of IC, intercultural knowledge, is a component that is rarely objectively measured in scholarly research. However, culture assimilators are tools that are appropriate to do so. They are based on the critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954). Critical incidents are short stories of cross-cultural situations and encounters. They are considered as critical because they are likely to be interpreted differently by people from different cultures, and because they tell of misunderstandings that might result in conflict. Each critical incident is followed by several possible answers (in most tools, four) that include an interpretation of the situation, potential courses of action, or future events. "Wrong" answers reflect ethnocentric considerations from other cultures or a stereotyped worldview. Several "right" answers are proposed in order to avoid an isomorphic presentation of cultures and to place value on tolerance for ambiguity.

Culture assimilators including several critical incidents are either culture-specific (all of the critical incidents concern one particular "host" culture) or culture-general (including critical incidents in various cross-cultural settings). Culture-general assimilators are less common; the most frequently quoted one was developed by Brislin (1986: 218). Ideally, they are based on theory (Bhawuk, 2001), i.e. dimensions of culture developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) and others. Initially developed for training purposes, culture assimilators also represent a good tool for measuring intercultural knowledge because they can capture tacit knowledge linked to IC (Johnson et al., 2006).

International experience as a factor enhancing intercultural competence

Scholars generally consider that IE and training enhance IC (Bartel-Radic, 2014; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Deardorff, 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Three categories of intercultural training are commonly proposed in the professional and higher education context, focusing respectively on cognitive (university lectures), emotional (cultural awareness / sensitivity seminars) or behavioral content (Waxin & Barmeyer, 2008). The last two categories are to some degree based on intercultural interaction. **International experience** is a concept often mentioned, but rarely precisely defined. At the individual level, IE corresponds to somebody's experience in other national contexts (Hambrick et

al., 1998). IE includes a confrontation with other cultures, different political, economic, social and administrative contexts, and foreign languages. Takeuchi et al. (2005) distinguish work and private experience (as well as experience in the country of destination of a foreign assignee and experience in other foreign countries). Sommer (2012) lists five elements of IE: work experience abroad, international education, professional experience in an international context or environment, trips to one or more foreign countries, and private international experience. International experience can therefore be categorized according to the place of acquisition (in an international context within the country of origin or in more or less distant countries), according to the object (professional or private life) and the mode or the period of acquisition (school, university, or work) (Sommer, 2012).

Practical experience is one of the key elements of the individual **learning** process (Kolb, 1984). Experience and competence are therefore inextricably linked. IC as a simultaneous understanding of one's own culture and that of others, and as "the ability to recognize and use cultural differences as a resource for learning and designing effective action in specific contexts" (Friedman & Berthoin Antal, 2005: 70) is a complex and difficult skill to acquire. It is determined by many factors, but literature considers that the most important among them are IE and related intercultural interaction.

The **link between IE and IC** has been discussed in the field of higher education (Deardorff, 2006). The ability to acquire and improve mastery of a foreign language has long been seen as the main benefit of graduate programs abroad (Chak & Makino, 2010). There is also broad agreement that executive's IE is a necessary resource, and a potential source of competitive advantage, for multinational companies (Takeuchi et al., 2005), but **empirical research** remains scarce. Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) found a significant impact of between 14% and 28% of international experiences in the private setting on three personality traits associated with intercultural competence. Paradoxically, both types of international experiences have a negative impact on international leadership performance. However, Bartel-Radic (2014) shows a very weak impact (5%) of IE on IC. Bartel-Radic, Moos and Long (2015) found no impact of an international student learning experience on IC. Given the difficulty to define and measure IC, IE is frequently used as a proxy of IC in the context of human resource management decisions in the professional context. The scarce empirical results show that this equivalence is not supported by research.

Language skills and their impact on IC

In recent years, several studies have shown a link between **language** skills and IC. Language skills refers to the extent to which an individual is able to communicate via the linguistic and semantic signals of

the specific language in order to transfer meaning (Brannen, 2004). Language skills predict the performance of expatriates (Caligiuri, Tarique & Jacobs, 2009) and have a positive impact on a manager's ability to adapt to a new culture (Peltokorpi, 2008). No matter an employee's position, he/she may become a so-called "language node" if they possess relevant language skills for their organization (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014). These "language nodes" may act as "language mediators" or "bridge individuals," serving a boundary-spanning function across subgroups within an organization (Barner-Rasmussen et al., 2014). Grin and Faniko (2012) found significant links between foreign language proficiency and several dimensions of IC, namely open-mindedness, empathy and social initiative. Neyer and Harzing (2008) showed that mastery of one or more foreign languages allows members of intercultural teams to better adapt their behavior (thus, to demonstrate IC). In recent years, there has been growing interest in language diversity in teams and organizations (Church-Morel & Bartel-Radic, 2016), but the concept often remains included in the theme of cultural diversity (Kassis Henderson, 2005). One of the lines of thought emerging in the literature is the complementarity of language skills and IC, both of which imply the ability to change codes and express oneself in different contexts. Therefore, individuals with advanced language and intercultural communication competency may better adapt to the language fluency of the listener, recognize different meaning of verbal and non-verbal language and listen and question as to understand the opinions and views of others (Cohen & Kassis-Henderson, 2012). Cohen and Kassis-Henderson (2012) also found that speaking a shared language void of syntactic and lexical anomalies does not simply guarantee a shared meaning between individuals; it can in fact be detrimental when individuals are "lured into false confidence" despite coming from different cultures (Kassis Henderson, 2005). Therefore, IC is essential for understanding within the specific context.

There is a clear research gap concerning the influence of language skills on IE and on IC. This study intends to provide additional answers to these questions. The model that we will confront with the data is presented in Figure 1: it questions the impact of IE and personality on IC. We consider IC as an unobservable variable. But the higher a person's IC, the better he/she will understand cultural differences and intercultural interaction, which means the better he/she will interpret "critical incidents".

Figure 1: Impact of international experience on intercultural competence: theoretical model
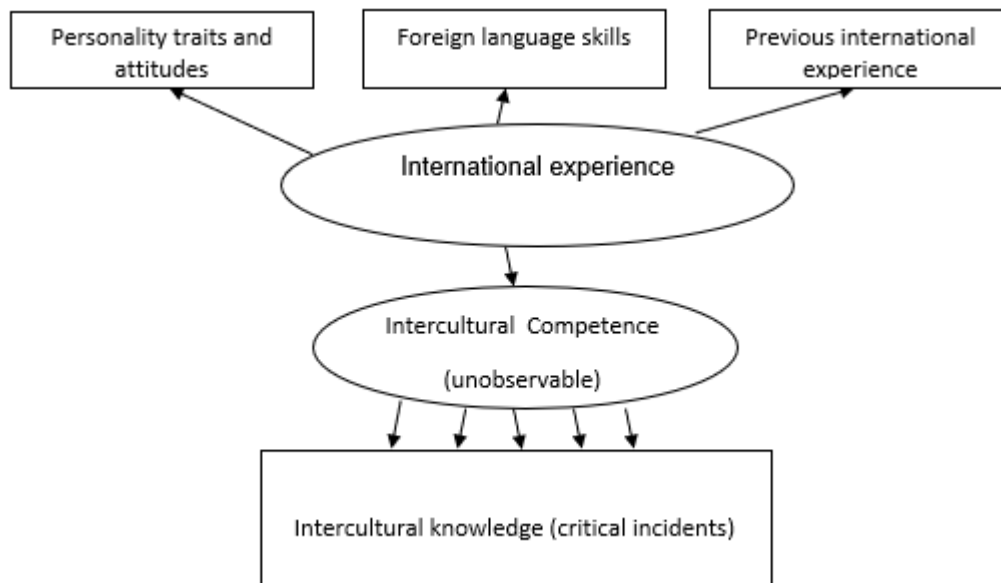
This paper investigates the link between international experience gained during a year of study abroad, foreign language competence, and intercultural competence, using a structural equation model. More precisely, the aim of this study is to understand under which conditions and in which contexts international experience during international student mobility (IE) augments intercultural competence (IC), and how language skills (LS) is related to this intercultural learning.

Method

Our empirical study is based on a unique survey dataset, collected by the authors among students of a French public Higher Education Institute. All of the students of this institute are required to study abroad during the second year of their bachelor. The objective of the survey was to identify the impact of this one-year study stay abroad on their IC. For this purpose, we collected longitudinal information, before and after the international mobility, in 2017 and in 2018 on their characteristics, language skills and IC, as well as information about their study stay.

Data analysis relies on a structural equation model in which observed variables describing international experiences and individual characteristics such as age and personality traits drive IC.

Measures of intercultural competence

As stated above, IC cannot be directly observed, but the higher somebody's IC, the better he/she understands cultural differences in intercultural interaction. To measure this intercultural knowledge, we followed guidelines provided in the literature and constructed a "culture-general assimilator" (see above). Five "critical incidents" were selected from handbooks in the field of intercultural management, student internship reports, and personal experience (see Table 1).

Table 1: Cultures concerned by the critical incidents used in the survey

Critical incident number	Main national culture concerned*	Other national culture concerned**	Main cultural dimension concerned
1	India	Czech Republic	Power distance
2	USA	Finland	Private / public space
3	Argentina	Denmark	Monochronism / polychronism
4	Singapore	United Kingdom	Individualism / collectivism
5	Germany	France	Universalism / particularism

* Knowledge of this culture is essential to answer the critical incident correctly.

** Knowledge of this culture is helpful but not essential to answer the critical incident correctly.

We selected critical incidents that were not too stereotyped, not "too easy to answer," but theory-based (Bhawuk, 2001), which means that cultural differences related to a dimension of culture reported by the literature (e.g. Hofstede, 2001). One critical incident is given as an example in Appendix A. For each critical incident, four possible interpretations of the situation were formulated. For most of the incidents, one answer was completely right (offering a very good interpretation of the situation) and at least one answer was completely wrong (offering a completely false interpretation of the situation). The two remaining answers were often "partly wrong." To define the "ideal grading" for the four interpretations of each of the five critical incidents on a scale from 0 to 10, a pilot study was carried out among eleven intercultural experts, and then interpreted by the authors who also took into consideration their own interpretations of the different critical incidents. The respondents to the survey were also asked to grade all the explanations on a scale from 0 to 10. The score (between

0 and 10) achieved by the respondent on each critical incident corresponds to the "grade" of the answer chosen as best answer by the respondent. In other words, the higher index 1, the higher the respondent's intercultural knowledge.

Measures of personality traits enhancing intercultural competence

For the personality traits and attitudes included in our model as factors contributing to IC, we used scales developed and tested in former research. The "NEO-FFI" (revised NEO Five Factor Inventory; Costa & McCrae, 1992) was used in a revised version (Bartel-Radic, 2014, 5 items) to measure emotional stability, and the scale developed by Davis and Rubin (1983, 6 items) and was used to assess self-confidence. Communication ability was measured with Bartel-Radic's (2014) revised version of Hogan and Hogan's (1992) "HPI" sociability scale (3 items). Empathy, the "tendency to adopt the psychological point of view of others," was measured with Davis' (1983) 7-item scale. Porter and Inks' (2000) construct of attributional complexity includes six factors. We considered three of them as relevant for IC and included the 15 related items in the survey: the tendency to give simple versus complex explanations of human behavior, metacognition (the tendency to think about the underlying processes involved in causal attributions; Fletcher et al., 1986), and motivation to understand human behavior. The measure of open-mindedness was based on Bartel-Radic (2014, 4 items). The attitude of ethnocentrism was measured with Neuliep's (2002) generalized ethnocentrism scale (15 items; we left aside the 7 filler items). Therefore, 55 items measuring the personality traits and attitudes linked to IC were included in both surveys, before and after the study year abroad.

For each question, a scale from 1 to 5 was used to measure the respondents' self-evaluation. Answers have been aggregated to obtain an average score for each trait, between 0 and 5. The more the respondent considers that the trait or attitude applies to him or her, the higher the score.

Measures of international experience

The study includes many groups of variables measuring IE. A first group of variables measure IE that has preceded the year of study abroad: we measured the degree to which students had interacted with people from different countries, namely if they have met people from other countries (*interexpe1*), if they have traveled abroad (*interexpe2*), if they have already experimented with studies abroad (*interexpe3*), if they have already lived abroad (*foreign*), and in this case in how many countries (*nbcountry*) and the length of their stay (*lstay1*). These variables allow the evaluation of the level of IE, yet they are capitalized by the student before the study stay abroad, they are an indicator of their

individual human capital in terms of IE before the study stay abroad. In this sense, these variables will allow identifying the long-run persistent relationship between IE and IC.

The second group of variables describes the study stay abroad during the year, respectively 2016-2017 or 2017-2018, and assess the conditions of the additional international experience acquired by the students during this year of studies abroad. These variables allow identifying the short-run relationship between IE and IC. These variables deal with the different kinds of interactions between the students and people in the host country. For that purpose, the survey includes questions about the length of their stay (*lstay2*), if they spent most of their time on the university campus (*campus*), if they had friendly relations with students from the host country (*friend1*) or from foreign countries others than the host country (*friend2*), if they have tried to discover the host country's culture (*cult1*), participated in intercultural events with other international students (*cult2*), or visited firms or local organizations (*cult3*). Other questions assess the frequency of group work conducted by students with foreign students from the host country (*coophost*) or from other countries (*coopother*), courses taught in English (*eng*), in the language of the host country (*host*), and by international professors (*internprof*). We also inquire if the student had experienced flatsharing with foreign students (*coloc*).

Finally, the students were asked about the emotions they experienced during their studies abroad, more precisely if they felt fear, nervousness, disgust, sadness or disdain in connection with this international experience.

Measures of language skills

Language competence was assessed through teacher evaluation before the international mobility. The study includes three groups of variables measuring foreign language skills namely general level, average score obtained during the year before the stay and one dummy variable taking the value 1 if the study stay occurs in a country where the student speaks the language, and zero otherwise. Individual language skills are measured for the two languages studied, namely 'langue vivante 1' and 'langue vivante 2'. Finally, we retained 5 variables *level1, level2*, *score1*, *score2* and *adeq* for the dummy variable.

Data analysis

We used Structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the data. SEM encompasses a broad array of models from linear regression to measurement models to simultaneous equations (Baum, 2016), and

both includes latent and observed variables. Latent variables are describing abstract concepts, such as intelligence, satisfaction… or intercultural competence (IC) in our study. Latent variables require several observed indicators: personality traits and international experience in this research. Generally, SEM models consist of two parts. A measurement model allows identifying latent variables through relations linking latent and observed variables. They can be thought of as a composite score of other variables. Paths or structural models are analogous to linear regressions and allow identifying direct relationships and causality between variables (including latent and observed variables). In the SEM framework, a pure structural model may include no measurement component of latent variables. For these reasons, SEM is a suitable method to deal with IC determinants and measurement.

Here, we implement the MIMIC (multiple indicators, multiple causes) model. In this framework, observed variables describing international experiences and individual characteristics such as gender, age and personality traits drive a latent unobservable variable, IC, which in turn is related to measures of intercultural knowledge (using the critical incident technique, with the five critical incidents mentioned above). This model has both a structural and a measurement component and can be graphically represented as in Figure 1 above.

Our empirical strategy includes the following steps:

In a first step, we retain a restricted SEM model including personality traits and individual characteristics only, in order to evaluate personal or individual determinants of ICC.

In a second step, we add to the former specification, variables describing international experiences before and after the study stay, in order to identify the additional contribution of the study stay abroad in the final model.

In each step, a forward stepwise procedure is used by including one by one each explanatory variable, in order to dismiss incrementally insignificant variables and so, to limit multicollinearity issues.

Data collection and descriptive statistics

Data are available for 103 students who were studying in the same Higher Education Institute in Social Sciences, in France. The average age of the students is 20, and 68% among them are female. They answered the survey when they returned from their second year of study in 2017-2018 which takes place in an international partner university. The international mobility lasted between 7 and 12 months (around 10 months in average). Descriptive statistics including a description of the sample are reported in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary statistics of the variables measuring international experience   n= 103 students answering the survey after the study stay in 2018.

Variable	Definition	Mean	Min	Max	Stand. Dev
Gender	1 if female, 0 if male	0.65	0	1	0.47
Age	Unit: years	19.8	18	22	0.83
lstay	length of international mobility in months	9.63	7	12	1.11
interexpe1	to have met people from other countries before the international mobility	3.84	2	5	0.86
interexpe2	to have traveled abroad before the international mobility	3.96	1	5	1.01
interexpe3	to have studied abroad (including language courses) before the int. mobility	2.75	1	5	1.42
Foreign	to have lived abroad in 0, 1 or 2 and more foreign countries before the int. mobility	0.24	0	2	0.51
Campus	has spent most of the time during int. mobility on the university campus	1.99	1	5	1.27
friend1	has become friends with students from the host country	2.87	1	5	1.44
friend2	has become friends with other foreign students not from the host country	3.22	1	5	1.37

cult1	has tried to discover the host country's culture	4.29	1	5	0.78
cult2	has participated in multicultural events with other international students	3.51	1	5	1.13
cult3	has visited local firms or organizations	2.28	1	5	1.20
flatshare	has shared a flat with other foreign students	3.68	1	5	1.72
coophost	has done group work with students from the host country	3.10	1	5	1.44
conflictwork	has experienced conflicts with students from other countries regarding group work	2.05	1	5	1.28
coopother	has done group work with foreign students not from the host country	2.87	1	5	1.46
internprof	has attended courses teached by int. professors (not from the host country)	2.41	1	5	1.35
Eng	has attended courses teached in English	3.37	1	5	1.67
Host	has attended courses teached in the local language	3.23	1	5	1.78
Fear	has felt fear during the int. mobility	1.81	1	4	0.79
nervous	has felt nervousness during the mobility	1.64	1	5	0.85

Disgust	has felt disgust during the mobility	1.17	1	4	0.63
sadness	has felt sadness during the mobility	1.91	1	4	0.90
Disdain	has felt disdain during the mobility	1.43	1	5	0.85
Score1	Average score LV1	13.15	8.45	17.85	2.15
Score2	Average score LV2	12.89	5.95	18.5	2.79
Level1	Level LV1	12.33	7.2	18.4	2.54
Level2	Level LV2	11.81	2.9	18.5	3.57
Adeq	value 1 if the study stay occurs in a country where the student speaks the language, and zero otherwise	0.43	0	1	0.49

Scale from 1 to 5, 1 meaning "does not apply to me at all" or "never happened", 2 "a little", 3 "more or less" / "relatively often", 4 "applies" / "often", 5 "completely applies" / "very often".

Results

The main empirical results are summarized in Figure 2. While age and gender both have a significant impact on intercultural competence, only two (open-mindedness and emotional stability) out of the nine personality traits and attitudes do.

Figure 2: Impact of personality traits, language skills, emotions and personality traits on intercultural competences
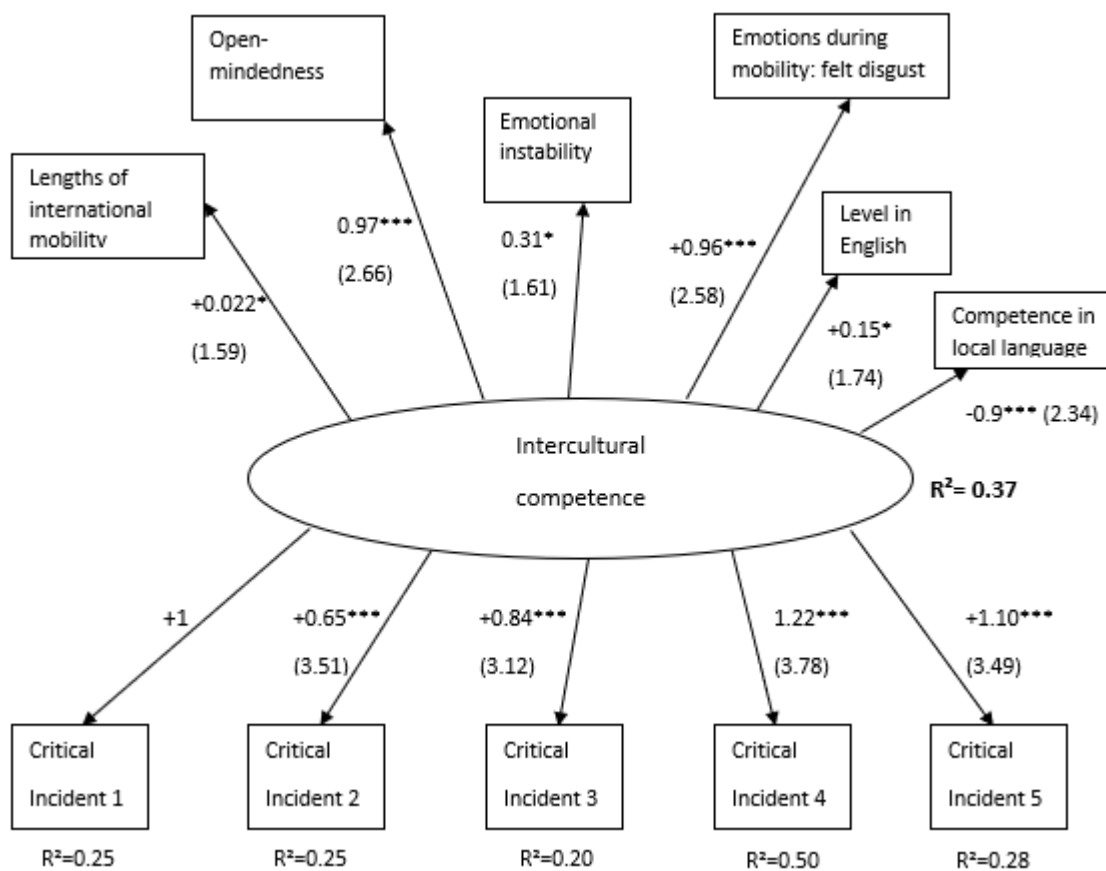
t-stats for the Student significance test are in brackets. The likelihood-ratio (LR) statistic which compares the two SEM models to the saturated one. The corresponding p-value equals at least to 0.70, which lead to non-rejection of the null hypothesis that our models are adequate.

Finally, only two variables measuring language skills influence intercultural competence, namely the average score related to the competence in English, and the dummy variable taking the value 1 if the study stay occurs in a country where the student speaks the language, and zero otherwise. But they have opposite effects. The average English score increases along with IC whereas the knowledge of the language of the country reduces it.

Next, we observe a direct positive effect of open-mindedness and emotional stability on the latent variable measuring intercultural competences. Finally, the introduction of variables describing international experience from the one-year study stay abroad does not influence IC, with the exception of the length of the study stay.

Discussion

Conceptualization and measurement of IC

This study contributes to the debate concerning the link between different components of IC, namely personality traits and intercultural knowledge. Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) found an impact of the same personality traits on five different critical incidents of 18%. Our results end up with a similar figure (17%), but which includes the – quite strong – impact of gender and age. Thereby, this study confirms Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) in the critique of mainstream literature on IC (Johnson et al., 2006) that treat both components of IC as interchangeable and use personality traits as a measure of IC (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001).

However, only two personality traits out of nine have a significant impact, namely open-mindedness and emotional stability. Both traits are also found to be significant by Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni, but emotional stability in the opposite way. Concerning open-mindedness, this is consistent with a wide body of literature that includes this trait among those supposedly contributing to IC (e.g. Johnson et al., 2006; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2001). In opposition with previous literature, here, emotional stability diminishes IC. We will come back to this specific aspect below. Moreover, attributional complexity (to prefer complex rather than simple explanations of human behavior, and motivation to understand behavior) are not significant here, as well as communication skills.

Contribution to social learning theory

The main theoretical contribution of this study lies in support brought to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) that founds the impact of IE on IC; including variables describing the international mobility improves the explanatory power of the model to 25%. Among these, eight points are related to the IE. This result is close to the figures of Bartel-Radic (2014) who found an impact of IE on IC of 5%.

Most interestingly, our results show negative experiences strongly encourage IC; having felt disgust during the international mobility strongly increases IC. Moreover, having experienced conflict within student workgroups does as well. Both elements somehow give support to the contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954) stating that contact between hostile groups might reduce negative stereotypes. Above, we mentioned the positive impact of emotional instability on intercultural competence. A possible interpretation of this results is that "emotional instability" measured in the survey expresses the consequences of these negative emotions and conflicts on the student's feelings. Items such as "I sometimes have my emotions going up and down" are part of this scale. As a consequence, three variables related to the experience of strong negative feelings during the IE have a positive impact on IC. This result goes along with the variables explaining intercultural learning in global teams (Bartel-Radic, 2006), among which long-term interaction and conflict among equal team members. Conflict is "one of the most important engines of change" (Deschamps & Devos, 1993: 27) because it is a particular form of interaction including destructuration and re-structuration. Negative interpersonal emotions are often temporary and do not fundamentally modify people's thinking. Yet, conflict is capable of making people conscious of something. Conflict in top management teams can have valuable consequences (Eisenhardt et al., 1997), and conflict is even more likely in diverse teams (Kochan et al., 2003). Cultural diversity means a high variety of values, behavior and ways of working; global teams are even often set up because of the diversity of points of view inside the team. In consequence, conflict appears to be a logical outcome. Empirical studies show that diversity in teams produces more conflict (cf. Kochan et al. 2003).

The learning process of IC starts with the realization of the existence of cultural differences (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003; Hofstede, 1994), and conflict and strong negative emotions experienced during the international mobility are capable of starting this learning process.

Impact of language skills on IC

This study confirms, to a certain extent, the link between language skills and IC. As revealed, English language skills correlate positively with IC. Kassis Henderson (2005) confirms that English is often the *lingua franca* employed among groups of speakers of different native languages, and these groups can be considered as both multilingual (in their diverse linguistic competences) and monolingual (in their English proficiency). English proficiency allows these individuals from different cultures to communicate, especially in a study abroad context. Those with the best English skills may become those so-called "language nodes" who serve the four boundary-spanning functions in groups: exchanging, linking, facilitating and intervening (Barner-Rasmussen *et al.,* 2014). In maintaining these

roles, students may be confronted will more opportunities to increase their IC by helping others confront difficult situations and resolve problems. As demonstrated, difficult and trying situations seem to facilitate IC.

The fact that proficiency in the language of the host country does not necessarily have a positive impact also reinforces that it is not the easiness of the international experience that increases IC, but the more difficult and trying experiences that cause strong emotions that increase IC. As Cohen and Kassis-Henderson (2012) point out, simply sharing a set of linguistic codes does not increase IC. Even if students share English as a common language, the fact that they came from different backgrounds and understandings may distract them from inhabiting a so-called shared "mental space" (Kassis Henderson, 2005). Just as seen with cultural diversity, language diversity can demonstrate negative consequences relating to a lack of (intercultural) communication competence (Kassis Henderson, 2005). We are convinced by Grin and Faniko's (2012) findings that intercultural skills are not independent of foreign language skills.

Conclusion

An empirical contribution of this study lies in insights for student curriculum design. A year of study abroad clearly adds to the students' IC. Interaction with students from the host culture or from other cultures should be encouraged. Intercultural teamwork is helpful for their intercultural learning. To some degree, strong negative emotions contribute to IC. However, the higher the cultural diversity experienced by the students, the lower their IC.

Limitations of this study lie in the exploratory nature of the measures used, mainly concerning intercultural knowledge. Moreover, results in some areas remain ambiguous. More data analysis needs to be done here to understand the mutual relationships between language skills, characteristics of the study stay, and IC.

Avenues for future research are the relationship between foreign language skills and IC, and their link with IE. The role of cultural distance, and beyond to the characteristics of the host culture, on intercultural competence, is also worth further investigation; it might be supposed that the cultural dimensions on which home and host cultures differ have an impact on which personality traits evolve and which critical incidents are better understood. The role of emotions in the learning process and outcomes should also be studied more in depth. Another important research perspective lies in the consequences of IE and IC in terms of university achievements (grades), employability, career

perspectives, and others. Longitudinal studies over longer periods and with bigger samples are necessary to collect relevant data to study these questions.

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APPENDIX : Example of a « critical incident »

Tomas, a student from Czech Republic, worked for some time behind the bar of an Indian Members Club in London, together with an Indian guy called Ali. One day, the waitress got an order wrong, with the result that the customer did not receive what he wanted. Just at the time when the customer was complaining about this, the manager of the club entered, and he started reprimanding Tomas and Ali for the mistake that had been made. Tomas replied to the manager that he had better get the full story and the facts straight before jumping to conclusions, and that it was not really their fault. But Ali did not say anything to support him. After the manager had left, Ali turned to Tomas and said `how could you talk like this to the boss?' In fact Ali seemed to be madder with Tomas than with the way the boss had treated them. Why did Ali react like this?

Out of the following explanations, which one is the most appropriate, according to you?

☐ Ali did not like Tomas' excuse that it was not his fault; he believes all workers should take responsibility for the teamwork regardless who made the mistake.

☐ Ali wanted Tomas to apologize so that the customer would calm down.

☐ Ali is not team player, he was not supportive when Tomas discussed with the boss.

☐ Ali believes that Tomas will be dismissed because he has argued with the boss.

Intercultural adjustment of expatriate partners:
The role of multicultural personality traits

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Abstract

Weak intercultural adjustment of expatriate spouses is considered as a major reason for premature returns of expatriates. Because of the high costs of these failed international assignments, the avoidance of premature returns has been of high priority in intercultural management in the past years. Nevertheless, evidence of the causes of expatriate partners' weak adjustment is still limited. This contribution presents empirical findings of a study among partners of German expatriates (N = 221). By means of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire Short Form (MPQ-SF) by Van der Zee et al. (2013) and an adapted version of Black and Stephens' (1989) questionnaire asking for general, interaction and personal adjustment, it has been examined how the personality of the expatriate partners influences their adjustment process. Results show that the personality traits 'cultural empathy', 'open-mindedness', 'social initiative', and 'emotional stability' have a major impact on the adjustment process of the accompanying partners. These results clearly suggest that organizations should include partners while selecting and supporting their expatriates.

Keywords: International Assignment, Expatriate Partner, Intercultural Adjustment, Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ)

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Introduction

International assignments are an inevitable element of HR policies in most international organizations these days (Bolino et al., 2017; Remhof et al., 2014; Takeuchi, 2010). In order to remain competitive in an increasingly global business environment, organizations send their employees to foreign subsidiaries (Huang et al., 2005). Consequently, the need for business expatriates in internationally operating organizations is steadily growing (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2010).

At the same time, those assignments are expensive and risky since many of them fail or end prematurely. The exact number of failed international assignments as well as their estimated costs are difficult to determine and vary widely among different studies (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012; Harzing, 1995; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985). However, these investigations have in common that cultural issues as well as weak adjustment have been identified as major reasons for the premature returns, whereas 'adjustment' can be operationalized as "the degree of a person's psychological comfort with various aspects of a new setting" (Black and Gregersen, 1991a, p.498). Assignees have to leave friends and family members behind and start a new life within an often completely new cultural environment (Ali et al., 2003).

The majority of expatriates are partnered or married (e.g. Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2016; InterNations, 2017). Hence, besides the expatriates themselves, often also their families are affected by the transition to a foreign country. The adjustment process to the new environment might possess manifold challenges to the various family members. Indeed, as early as in the 1980s, weak intercultural adjustment of expatriate spouses has been identified as a major reason for premature returns (Harvey 1985; Mendenhall et al. 1987; Tung 1981). Subsequent studies have confirmed this finding (e.g., Andreason, 2008; Arthur and Bennett 1995; Black and Gregersen 1991a; Canhilal et al. 2015; Shaffer and Harrison 2001).

The point is, for accompanying spouses intercultural adjustment can be more challenging than for the expatriates themselves. Due to strict regulations in the target countries, spouses are often forced to step back from their own career paths when going abroad (Black and Stephens, 1989; Shaffer and Harrison, 2001). Consequently, the everyday life of the accompanying spouses differs significantly from their working partners' and from their previous lives in the home country. While the expatriates are surrounded by colleagues who possibly build a network for support, the accompanying spouses cannot draw on these social ties and hence may experience a strong discontinuity in their lives (Ali et al., 2003; Harvey, 1985).

Nevertheless, evidence of the causes why some of the expatriate partners easily adjust to the challenging new environments and others do not is still limited. The personality of expatriate partners and its influence on the adjustment process need exploration for being better understood. What is more, past studies focused on spouses. But expatriation realities are changing. A growing number of expatriates are accompanied by non-married partners (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012). It is the goal of this contribution to shed some light on the role of expatriate partners' personality on the adjustment process to culturally different environments. For this purpose, an empirical study among partners of German expatriates – married and non-married partners – has been conducted. In this study, personality has been operationalized by the multicultural personality traits 'cultural empathy', 'open-mindedness', 'social initiative', 'emotional stability', and flexibility' (Van der Zee et al., 2013). It has been hypothesized that all five personality traits are positively related to the expatriate partners' intercultural adjustment. In order to gain detailed insights, the adjustment process has been divided into 'general adjustment', 'interaction adjustment', and 'personal adjustment'.

Method

The sample of this study consists of 221 accompanying partners of German expatriates. In total, 365 subjects participated in the survey, but various inclusion criteria led to the exclusion of several participants. E.g., the partner's international assignment should have been initiated by the delegating company and respondents should hold the German citizenship or should have had their permanent place of residence in Germany prior to the stay abroad. Only completely filled-in surveys were considered in the data analysis.

Given a confidence level of 95 % and a significance level of $p \leq 5$ %, power calculation suggested a sample size of $N \geq 147$. So, the sample of this study is representative for the total population of the estimated 60,000 accompanying partners of German expatriates. However, the estimate is affected by some uncertainty since no statistics of expatriation exist.

The survey was conducted by means of a quantitative online questionnaire of approximately ten minutes length. It consists of three parts: a section with sociodemographic data and further control variables as well as two validated instruments, namely the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire Short Form (MPQ-SF) by Van der Zee et al. (2013) and an adapted version of Black and Stephens' (1989) questionnaire of cross-cultural spouse adjustment. The MPQ-SF was selected for measuring the independent variables in the form of the multicultural personality traits. Black and Stephens' (1989) questionnaire was used in an adapted version for measuring the dependent variable of

intercultural partner adjustment. Black and Stephens' original questionnaire, asking for general and interaction adjustment, has been enhanced by the dimension of personal adjustment operationalized by Shaffer and Harrison (2001).

The MPQ was developed by Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven in the year 2000 and comprises the five multicultural personality traits 'cultural empathy', 'open-mindedness', 'social initiative', 'emotional stability', and 'flexibility' that are of importance for the intercultural success (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2013). 'Cultural empathy' measures how well culturally diverse individuals' thoughts, feelings and behaviours are obtained and empathized with. Openness and unprejudiced attitude towards different cultural groups and their cultural norms and values are summarized by the second dimension 'open-mindedness'. Taking initiative and actively seeking and appreciating social gatherings in new and stressful situations are comprised by the trait 'social initiative'. The fourth dimension of 'emotional stability' determines the ability of an individual to stay calm and relaxed under novel and stressful conditions. Finally, 'flexibility' asks for the flexible change of strategies if needed in the new environment. The dimension comprises the attraction to new situations and the trait of regarding them as positive challenges rather than threats (Ali et al., 2003; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2013).

A range of validation investigations have already proven the traits' relevance for the intercultural success. The incremental validity of the construct in predicting international orientation was supported (cf. Leone et al., 2005; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000; Van der Zee et al., 2003). Furthermore, support was generated for the construct validity of the MPQ as well as its predictive validity for several indicators of multicultural success (cf. Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001; Van der Zee et al., 2003).

For this study, the short form of the MPQ, developed by Van der Zee et al. in 2013, was chosen since the long version had been inadequately time consuming in combination with the other parts of the survey.

The nine-item questionnaire of cross-cultural spouse adjustment by Black and Stephens (1989) was deployed in order to gauge the general and interaction adjustment. Seven items determine the general spouse adjustment and two items the interaction adjustment. For measuring personal adjustment, Shaffer and Harrisons' personal adjustment scale of 2001 was added. This element comprises three items.

All items of these two parts of the questionnaire have been 5-point Likert scaled, which required adaptation in case of Black and Stephens' (1989) questionnaire which originally consists of 7-point

Likert scales. In addition, all items have been translated into German by deploying a 3-step translation process with forward and backward translation with the collaboration of German and English native speakers.

Age, change in employment status, educational background, length of the international assignment, prior experience abroad, organizational support, and language proficiency served as control variables since these factors are reported to have an influence on intercultural adjustment (cf. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003).

The data of the present study was analysed by using the statistical software SPSS. Correlations as well as regression analyses were performed.

Results

From the 221 participants, the majority was female (97.3 %) and married (86.9 %). Age ranged from 21 to 69 with a mean of M = 44.44 (SD = 8.67; N = 219). 98.6 % hold the German citizenship and 92.3 % indicated that Germany was the country of permanent residence prior to the international assignment. The sample proves to be highly educated with slightly more than 60 % holding a university degree as highest educational qualification. In total, 48 countries of destination were represented in the study on hand.

Means, standard deviations and reliabilities for the intercultural adjustment forms and personality dimensions are depicted in table 1. With the exception of flexibility (M = 2.84; SD = .71), the sample shows mean values higher than the scale middle of 3.0 for all multicultural personality traits. The different forms of adjustment all reveal means over 3.0 (scale middle). Additionally, reliability measures were conducted for the personality traits and the different adjustment forms. The Cronbach's α values for all variables were sufficiently high (α = .80-.88; Ponterotto and Ruckdeschel, 2007).

Table 1: Means (*M*), Standard Deviations (*SD*) and Reliabilities (*Cronbach's α*)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*Cronbach's α*
Dependent Variables			
1. General Adjustment	3.85	.67	.84
2. Interaction Adjustment	3.53	1.04	.88
3. Personal Adjustment	3.94	.82	.80

Independent Variables

4. Cultural Empathy	4.20	.49	.84
5. Open-Mindedness	3.73	.54	.81
6. Social Initiative	3.79	.68	.85
7. Emotional Stability	3.15	.65	.81
8. Flexibility	2.84	.71	.87

N = 221

The Pearson product-moment correlations between the independent and dependent variables are illustrated in table 2. First, it should be pointed out that the majority of examined personality traits as well as the different facets of adjustment are interrelated. With regard to the theoretical relatedness of the dimensions, this relation seems plausible (Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003) and similar forms of interrelatedness have also been shown by the vast majority of studies that address the MPQ as well as expatriate or spouse adjustment (cf. Ali et al., 2003; Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003; Wu and Bodigerel-Koehler, 2013). With regard to the correlations of main interest, the multicultural personality traits cultural empathy (r = .21-.30, p < .01), emotional stability (r = .17-.18, p < .05) and open-mindedness (r = .24-.41, p < .01) show significant positive relationships to all three forms of adjustment. Followed by social initiative, which is significantly related to interaction (r = .28, p < .01) as well as personal adjustment (r = .21, p < .01). Finally, for the multicultural personality trait flexibility a significant positive relationship was found with personal adjustment only (r = .14, p < .05; r = .20, p < .01, respectively). Consequently, the correlation analyses revealed first statistical support for the importance of the multicultural personality traits in the field of the expatriate partner adjustment.

Table 2: Correlations between the Multicultural Personality Traits and Adjustment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. General Adjustment	1.00							
2. Interaction Adjustment	.35**	1.00						
3. Personal Adjustment	.47**	.46**	1.00					
4. Cultural Empathy	.21**	.27**	.30**	1.00				
5. Open-Mindedness	.24**	.41**	.31**	.52**	1.00			
6. Social Initiative	.07	.28**	.21**	.34**	.48**	1.00		
7. Emotional Stability	.17*	.18**	.17**	.04	.21**	.22**	1.00	
8. Flexibility	-.01	.09	.14*	-.14*	.10	.09	.30**	1.00

N = 221; *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

In accordance with Ali et al. (2003), Peltokorpi (2008), Peltokorpi and Froese (2012) as well as Van Oudenhoven et al. (2003), it was chosen to perform hierarchical linear regression analyses to control for additional factors that may influence the intercultural adjustment of the accompanying partners. The regression analyses were performed by entering the control variables in the first and the personality variables in the second step. In sum, six models were created; for each form of adjustment one linear hierarchical regression with two steps. Results are illustrated in table 3, 4 and 5.

In the first model, the control variables length of international assignment (β = .15, $p < .05$) and support in finding a job (β = -.15, $p < .05$) account for a statistically significant variance in general adjustment (R^2 = .09, $F(10,190)$ = 1.94; $p < .05$). However, adding the personality traits significantly increase the explained variance by 12 % (R^2 = .21; $F_{Change}(6,184)$ = 4.48; $p < .01$). To be more concrete, emotional stability (β = .20, $p < .01$), open-mindedness (β = .19, $p < .05$) as well as the control variable support in finding a job (β = -.16, $p < .05$) account for the significant variance in the dependent variable (R^2 = .21; $F(16,184)$ = 3.03; $p < .01$, model 2). Thereby, support for the hypotheses that open-mindedness and emotional stability are positively related to the intercultural adjustment of the expatriate partners is provided.

Table 3: Hierarchical Regression Analyses of General Adjustment

Dependent Variable			
General Adjustment			
Model 1	β	Model 2	β
Age	-.05	Age	-.10
Change in Employment Status	-.04	Change in Employment Status	-.04
Educational Background	-.07	Educational Background	-.09
Length of International Assignment	.15[*]	Length of International Assignment	.12
Prior Experience Abroad	-.07	Prior Experience Abroad	-.09
Information Material	.11	Information Material	.12
Pre-Departure Training	-.03	Pre-Departure Training	-.10
Support in Finding a Job	-.15[*]	Support in Finding a Job	-.16[*]
Financial Support	-.13	Financial Support	-.11
Language Proficiency	.08	Language Proficiency	.09
		Cultural Empathy	.13
		Open-Mindedness	.19[*]
		Social Initiative	-.07
		Emotional Stability	.20[**]
		Flexibility	-.06
R^2	.09	R^2	.21
Adjusted R^2	.05	Adjusted R^2	.14
Δ R^2	.09	Δ R^2	.12
F	1.94[*]	F	3.03[**]

N = 201; [*]*p* < .05, [**]*p* < .01

With regard to interaction adjustment, control variables by themselves do not account for a statistically significant variance (R^2 = .08, $F(10,190)$ = 1.60; p > .05, model 3). In contrast, the full model (R^2 = .25; $F_{Change}(6,184)$ = 6.92; p < .01, model 4) shows that the personality traits social initiative (β = .16, p < .05) and open-mindedness (β = .21, p < .05) as well as the control variables change in employment status (β = -.14, p < .05) and information material (β = .15, p < .05) explain a statistically significant variance of 25 % in the dependent variable (R^2 = .25; $F(16,184)$ = 3.78; p < .01). Hence,

additional support is created for hypotheses that open-mindedness and social initiative are positively related to the intercultural adjustment of the expatriate partners.

Table 4: Hierarchical Regression Analyses of Interaction Adjustment

Dependent Variable				
Interaction Adjustment				
Model 3	$β$		Model 4	$β$
Age	.16[*]		Age	.07
Change in Employment Status	-.11		Change in Employment Status	-.14[*]
Educational Background	.05		Educational Background	-.01
Length of International Assignment	.08		Length of International Assignment	.06
Prior Experience Abroad	-.04		Prior Experience Abroad	-.08
Information Material	.13		Information Material	.15[*]
Pre-Departure Training	-.10		Pre-Departure Training	-.15
Support in Finding a Job	-.00		Support in Finding a Job	.00
Financial Support	-.04		Financial Support	-.02
Language Proficiency	.06		Language Proficiency	.10
			Cultural Empathy	.13
			Open-Mindedness	.21[*]
			Social Initiative	.16[*]
			Emotional Stability	.06
			Flexibility	.06
R^2	.08		R^2	.25
Adjusted R^2	.03		Adjusted R^2	.18
Δ R^2	.08		Δ R^2	.17
F	1.60		F	3.78[**]

N = 201; [*]*p* < .05, [**]*p* < .01

Similarly, while the control variables do not account for a statistically significant variance in personal adjustment (R^2 = .06, $F(10,190)$ = 1.19; *p* > .05, model 5), adding the personality dimensions reveals a significantly explained variance of 23 % in the dependent variable (R^2 = .23; $F_{Change}(6,184)$ = 6.68; *p* <

.01, model 6). In contrast to the predominant role of personal adjustment in the correlation analyses, showing significant relationships to all independent variables, only cultural empathy (β = .26, p < .01) in combination with the control variables information material (β = .20, p < .05) and pre-departure training (β = -.17, p < .05) proved to be of statistical relevance in the sixth model (R^2 = .23; $F(16,184)$ = 3.38; p < .01). Support is generated for the hypothesis that cultural empathy is positively related to the intercultural adjustment of the expatriate partners.

Table 5: Hierarchical Regression Analyses of Personal Adjustment

Dependent Variable				
Personal Adjustment				
Model 5	β		Model 6	β
Age	.03		Age	-.05
Change in Employment Status	-.10		Change in Employment Status	-.11
Educational Background	-.01		Educational Background	-.04
Length of International Assignment	.13		Length of International Assignment	.10
Prior Experience Abroad	-.05		Prior Experience Abroad	-.09
Information Material	.16		Information Material	.20[*]
Pre-Departure Training	-.09		Pre-Departure Training	-.17[*]
Support in Finding a Job	.03		Support in Finding a Job	.04
Financial Support	-.05		Financial Support	-.02
Language Proficiency	.04		Language Proficiency	.07
			Cultural Empathy	.26[**]
			Open-Mindedness	.09
			Social Initiative	.09
			Emotional Stability	.08
			Flexibility	.12
R^2	.06		R^2	.23
Adjusted R^2	.01		Adjusted R^2	.16
ΔR^2	.06		ΔR^2	.17
F	1.19		F	3.38[**]

N = 201; [*]p < .05, [**]p < .01

Discussion

The aim of this study was the explorative investigation of the relationship between the multicultural personality traits and the adjustment process of accompanying partners of German expatriates. With regard to the dimensions 'cultural empathy', 'open-mindedness', 'social initiative', and 'emotional stability' the hypothesis that these multicultural personality traits are positively related to the intercultural adjustment of the expatriate partners could be approved. They represent significant predictors for the accompanying partners' adjustment processes.

The findings promote the understanding of the complex role accompanying partners hold in international assignments. Whereas several researchers already pointed out the importance of multicultural personality traits for the expatriates' intercultural adjustment themselves (cf. Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003), the present study provides support that these characteristics also hold a major role for the accompanying partners.

The strongest determinant of partner adjustment in the current study appeared to be the multicultural personality trait open-mindedness by being the only variable that predicts two forms of adjustment – namely the general and interaction adjustment. This finding is consistent with Ali et al.'s (2003) investigation. The authors found the trait to be the only determinant of all three examined forms of spouse adjustment. Especially the characteristics of holding an unprejudiced, open attitude towards the host country nationals and their value system (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000) clearly indicate the importance of the multicultural personality trait for both the general and interaction adjustment process.

General adjustment was also significantly predicted by the multicultural personality trait emotional stability. The finding is not surprising as the trait characterizes individuals with a calm and balanced nature even when experiencing stressful situations (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2001). With regard to the variety of transitions and turbulences that might occur in the different areas of everyday life, especially during the initial phase of the assignment, the relationship seems fairly evident. In line with this, Peltokorpi (2008) as well as Peltokorpi and Froese (2012) found that the trait also significantly predicts the general adjustment in expatriates themselves.

The dimension social initiative could also be identified as an important predictor for the interaction adjustment. This is congruent with the investigation of Wu and Bodigerel-Koehler (2013) – the authors reported among others a significant relationship of the trait with the interaction adjustment in expatriates. Especially the characteristics of actively seeking social gatherings and taking initiative (Van der Zee et al., 2013) as well as the contentual relatedness with the intercultural relevant personality dimension extraversion clearly indicated the relationship with the facet of interaction adjustment.

Finally, personal adjustment was significantly predicted by the multicultural personality trait cultural empathy. This is in line with the study of Van Oudenhoven et al. (2003) since the authors detected a significant relationship with the personal adjustment of expatriates. With regard to the characteristics of someone scoring high on cultural empathy, namely the observing and emphasizing with other individuals' thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven, 2000), the relationship with personal adjustment seems reasonable.

Flexibility was the only multicultural personality trait that could not be defined as significant predictor of partner adjustment. In line with this, the vast majority of studies in the field of expatriation research either did not reveal flexibility as significant predictor of the adjustment process or did not include the trait in further statistical analyses due to its insufficient internal reliability (Ali et al., 2003; Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012, 2014).

The study on hand is facing certain limitations. First, the data collection instrument of an online survey was chosen as best possible option in order to reach out to the international sample. However, potential downsides go along with its usage, mainly connected to the losses in objectivity of application. Besides, the data is based on self-appraisals only. Especially with regard to the field of personality assessment concerns were voiced early (cf. Barrick et al., 2001). Also in the context of measuring multicultural competencies social desirability might be present (Blair and Coyle, 2005). Hence, it may be useful to implement a social desirability scale in future investigations.

Second, certain criticism is present regarding the conceptualization of the adjustment process. Black (1988) states that the adaptation process in work role transitions should be seen as both a subjective and an objective concept. In this vein, it might be useful to implement a multisource questionnaire in order to address the felt adjustment by the accompanying partners themselves and the objective adjustment by asking the expatriates. Additionally, the three-facet conceptualization of adjustment developed by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989) has been criticized. Thomas and Lazarova (2006) stated that the scales were developed on insufficient theoretical ground. In contrast, a wide variety of scientific studies investigating the relationship between personality and expatriate adjustment implemented Black's (1988) and Black and Stephens' (1989) scale for general, interaction and work adjustment (cf. Bhatti et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2005; Huff et al., 2014; Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012; Ramalu et al., 2010). The present study made use of the slightly adapted version measuring spouse adjustment by Shaffer and Harrison (2001). The conducted confirmatory factor analysis by the authors Shaffer and Harrison (2001) as well as the sufficiently high internal consistency measures in the present study (α = .80 to .88) provide support for the instrument.

Third, the high dropout rate of nearly 40 % could lead to the assumption that the questionnaire was either too long or complicated to fill in. At this point, it should be mentioned that the vast majority of participants were excluded automatically from the further course of the questionnaire as they indicated to be self-initiated expatriates and thereby not of interest for the present study.

Fourth, the sample was heterogeneously distributed in terms of gender; only 2.7 % were male participants. However, other studies centring on the accompanying spouse adjustment face similar gender-wised sample distributions (cf. Ali et al., 2003; Black and Gregersen, 1991b; Shaffer and Harrison, 2011). Finally, it is important to once again underline that the findings of the current study concern German expatriate partners only. Therefore, they cannot be generalized and applied to different nations before conducting further studies.

Despite these potential limitations, findings of the present study allow the formulation of practical implications for internationally operating organizations. The vast majority of organizations still focus the selection procedures as well as the supporting activities within the country of destination mainly on the expatriates themselves (cf. Andreason, 2008; Enderwick and Hodgson, 1993; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Tung, 1982). The study on hand proves the relevance of multicultural personality assessment in the selection process not only for the expatriates but in the same vein for the accompanying partners. Thereby, families would receive additional information guiding their decision in whether to accept or decline the international assignment offer. Besides, companies are able to identify specific areas in which the accompanying partners might need additional support in the foreign country (Ali et al., 2003). Information material and training could be offered which are based on individual needs and take the diversity of those who are sent abroad into consideration (McEvoy and Buller, 2013; Scheible, 2017). Thereby, the adjustment process would be promoted which in turn enhances the adjustment of the expatriates themselves (cf. Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Black and Stephens, 1989; De Leon and McPartlin, 1995) and further the success of the international assignment (cf. Andreason, 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2004; Black, 1988; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Kraimer et al., 2001; Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993; Shaffer et al., 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006). Interestingly, also the expatriates' wives themselves speak in favour of addressing the accompanying partners' personalities in the selection process (Thompson, 1986). Importantly, before implementing certain procedures, legal ground has to be reviewed as Punnett (1997) earlier argued that this may be one of the main reasons for not involving the accompanying spouses in the selection process in the USA, Canada and increasingly in Western Europe as prevailing laws forbid discrimination on that basis (Davison and Punnett, 1995). Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the explained variances of all significant predictors in the current investigation are of rather small size. However, as the adjustment process

represents a complex phenomenon, it was never expected to find highly explained variances. Moreover, it has to be kept in mind that additional factors influence the adjustment process of the accompanying partners. Hence, the assessment of the multicultural personality traits is only one of several factors that should be considered in the selection process.

Future research should put special emphasis on generating more theoretical support for the three-facet adjustment scale by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989) as well as the adapted version to measure spouse adjustment developed by Shaffer and Harrison (2001). Even though, the instrument can be considered as the standard measure for the adjustment process (cf. Bhatti et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2005; Huff et al., 2014; Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012; Ramalu et al. 2010), the theoretical basis is lacking.

With respect to the rising number of female business expatriates (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012; 2016), it would be highly interesting to focus future investigation on the male accompanying partners. Additionally, in line with previous studies, which investigated the relationship between personality and expatriate or spouse adjustment, the usage of longitudinal research designs should be highly encouraged (cf. Ali et al., 2003; Peltokorpi, 2008; Ramalu et al., 2010; Swagler and Jome, 2005). Thereby, scholars might establish a more accurate picture on the predictive value of various personality traits on the complex and time-consuming process of adjustment.

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Cultural differences and employee engagement: The case of Pullman Saigon Centre

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Abstract

Managing the local work force in multinational firms is always an interesting topic in international business. Our qualitative study at a five-star hotel, branch in Vietnam of an international brand name, tries to understand how the cultural differences can affect employee engagement. Except Family Friendliness and Hotel's image which receive different answers, the remaining drivers on Support from Immediate Management, Performance, Equal Opportunities and Fair Treatment, Pay and Benefits, Health and Safety, Cooperation, Job Satisfaction are perceived positively by the interviewed French managers and Vietnamese staff who affirm these drivers help increase their engagement with the hotel. Among the biggest differences between French and Vietnamese respondents, training, development and career opportunities, communication, recognition and employee empowerment do not have the same perception for French managers and Vietnamese employees.

Keywords: Employee Engagement, Cultural differences, France, Vietnam.

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Introduction

When business activities become global and the world a huge market, flows of goods and people have to pass from one country to others. Vietnam, since applying its open economic policy in the late 1980, receives more and more foreign visitors and investors and can be classified now in the group of emerging countries. The growth rate of Vietnam still maintains its increasing trend (more than 6% in 2017 from the Vietnam Statistics Bureau (2018), after a few years of slow down due to the world economic crisis.

Following the arrival of big investors and multinational firms, subsidiaries of well-known hotels have been established in Vietnam, and among them, Pullman Saigon Centre as a branch of the French Group Accord Hotels. In order to satisfy its high class customers and also to compete with other big names in the hospitality industry, Pullman Saigon Centre has to well manage its local work force to achieve the highest performance. When the top management come from other countries, the majority of staff are local workers from different regions of Vietnam. Surely, there are cultural differences in the perception of each side about the work behavior, even when we assume there are only differences in national cultures and do not take into account the cultural differences due to regions.

In the practice, the Pullman Saigon Centre conducts every year an annual survey about the level of employee engagement, such as in other branches and subsidiaries of the Accor Group. The figures collected through this annual survey do not satisfy the top management of the Centre, so they would like to know more about the reasons of these un-satisfactory levels of employee engagement. A qualitative study was designed to explore the differences in the perception of the management and the staff about employee engagement, and these differences were analyzed under the approach of cultural differences.

We started our study by the concept of "employee engagement" from the practical approach of the management consultants (Robinson et al., 2004) and after that analyzed the same concept through Saks' model (2006). Differences in the perception on employee engagement from top management and staff can be explained by the suggestions from Nazarian and his colleagues (2017) in linking the national cultures (Hofstede et al., 2010) and the balanced organizational culture on the hotel industry performance. This theoretical framework will be followed by the description of the research methodology applied in the empirical study. The results of the findings from the qualitative study through in-depth interviews with different respondents in the case will precede the conclusion on how to apprehend and manage the cultural differences to maximize employee engagement and achieve the organizational performance.

Review

<u>Employee Engagement from the practical view (Robinson et al., 2004)</u>

Employee Engagement has been considered as one of the tool to get all staff involved in the company's activities and achieve good results for the organizational performance. Generally, employee engagement is associated with positive work behavior (Luthans, 2002). Since the beginning of the 2000 years, consulting firms have started to insist on the benefits of getting employee engaged to the company. In 2003, Robinson and her colleagues conducted a study over 10,000 employees in 14 organizations in the NHS and concluded on the factors influencing employee engagement as follows (1) training, development and career; (2) immediate management; (3) performance and appraisal; (4) communication; (5) equal opportunities and fair treatment; (6) pay and benefits; (7) health and safety; (8) cooperation; (9) family friendliness; and (10) job satisfaction.
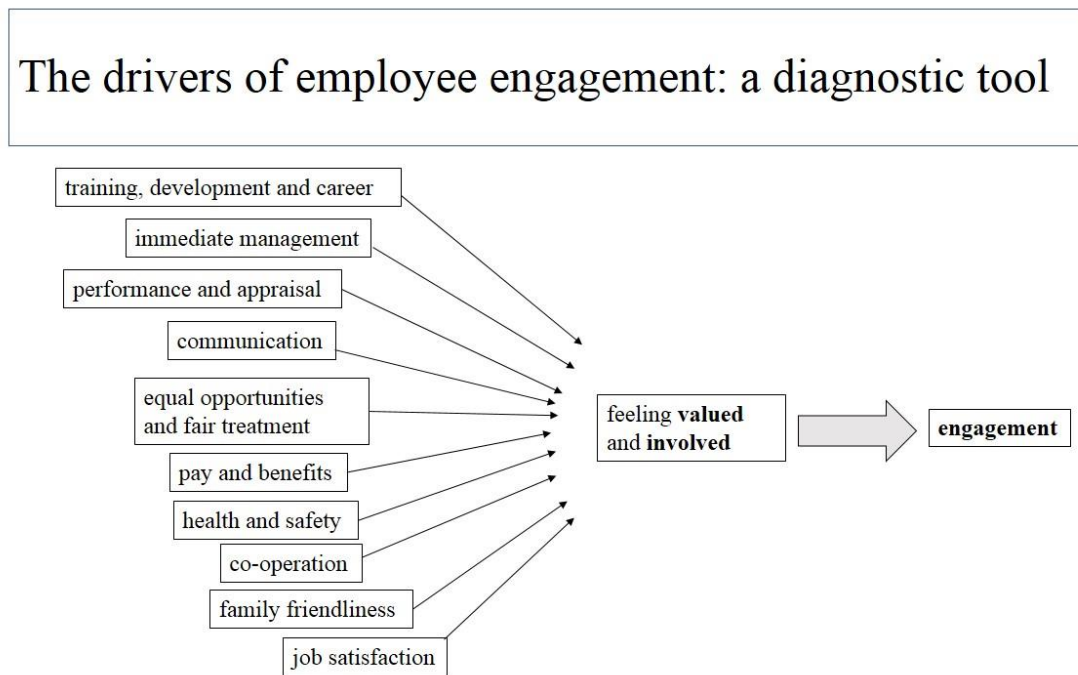
Figure 1. The Drivers of Employee Engagement (Robinson et al., 2004: 23)

However, Robinson and her colleagues insist that the importance of each drivers depends on the organization, and also on the group of employees in this organization. Besides that, engagement should be always considered in two-way between employee and the organization: open communication, effective cooperation within the organization, focusing on developing employees, etc. (Robinson et al., 2004:23-24).

Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement (Saks, 2006)

To contribute to enrich the theoretical framework about employee engagement, Saks (2006) proposes and tests a model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement (cf. Fig. 2 *infra*), which can be distinguished between job engagement and organization engagement.

Saks' study on 102 employees working in different organizations at different positions in Toronto (Canada) with the average of 12 years of working experience, confirms this model. The results show that job engagement is different from organization engagement, and they can have different antecedents and individual consequences. Among the antecedents, only perceived organizational support can predict both job and organization engagement, while job characteristics influence job engagement, and procedural justice, organization engagement. However, to enhance employee engagement, organizations should focus on employee's perception about the support they receive from their organization, if this support answer to the employees' expectations. The final purpose of employee engagement is to get job satisfaction, organizational commitment and good organizational citizenship behavior and to reduce the intention to quit (Saks, 2006).

Figure 2. A model of antecedents and consequences of employee engagement (Saks, 2006: 604)
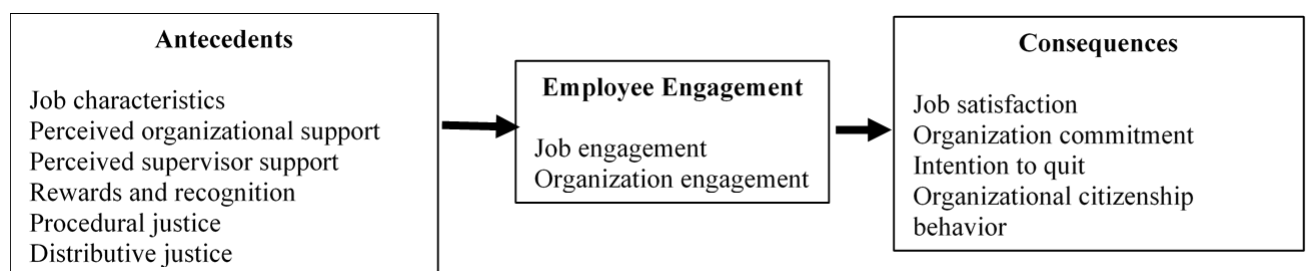
Cultural differences and Work Behavior (Hofstede, 1983)

When people coming from different countries work together, there are always differences in the work and organizational behaviors. Therefore, the perception about employee engagement from the management (mainly foreigners) can differ from the local staff's one within multinational subsidiaries, considered under the approach of cultural differences. Based on the results of his study inside of a big multinational covering 50 countries, Hofstede (1983) proposes four dimensions describing the national culture including Individualism versus Collectivism; Large or Small Power Distance; Strong or Weak Uncertainty Avoidance; and Masculinity versus Femininity. In 2010, in a revised version of a research conducted with his colleagues, Hofstede added two more dimensions: Long Term versus Short Term; and Indulgence versus Restraint (Hofstede et al, 2010). These dimensions contribute to

explain the cultural differences between people, when we consider their motivation, organizational behavior, leadership and leadership acceptance. Figure 3 (*infra*) presents the comparison between the scores obtained by French and Vietnamese respondents on the six cultural dimensions mentioned above.

Figure 3. Comparison between France and Vietnam based on cultural dimensions (Hofstede et al., 2010)
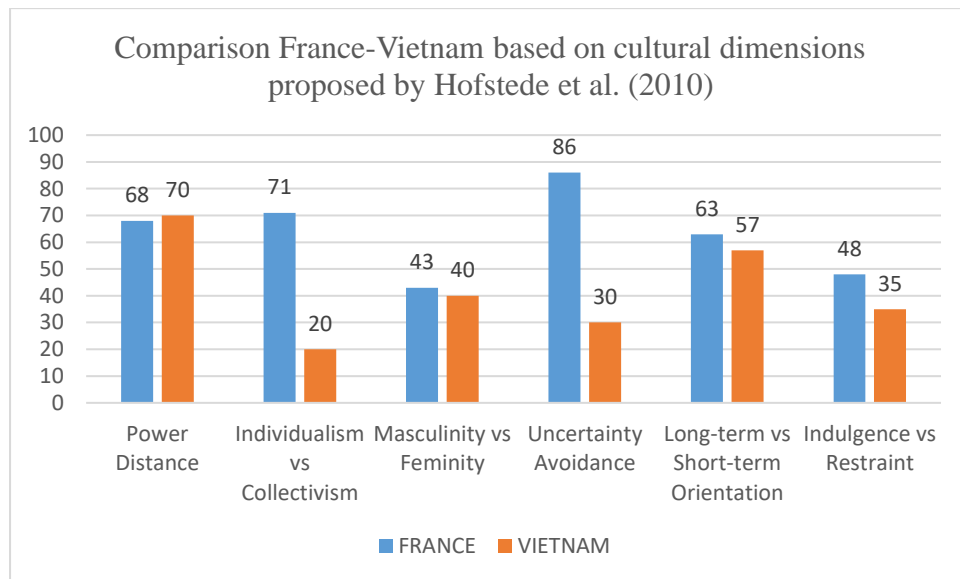
National Cultures and the Organizational Culture linked to the hotel industry performance (Nazarian et al., 2017)

Following the trend of national culture and using Hofstede's (1983) four initial dimensions such as Power Distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculinity versus Femininity, Nazarian and his colleagues conduct a research within the hotel industry in London. 236 respondents from 96 hotels in London answered to the survey questionnaire and the structural model presented in Figure 4 (*infra)* is validated. In spite of limitations about the convenience sample, low effect masculinity and power distance on balanced organizational culture, there is a relationship between balanced organizational culture and performance. The authors argue that, in the hotel industry which is very competitive, hotel managers need to consider employee's work behavior, values and beliefs for better performance (Nazarian et al., 2017)

Figure 4. The relationship between the national culture, organizational culture and organizational performance (Nazarian et al., 2017: 25).
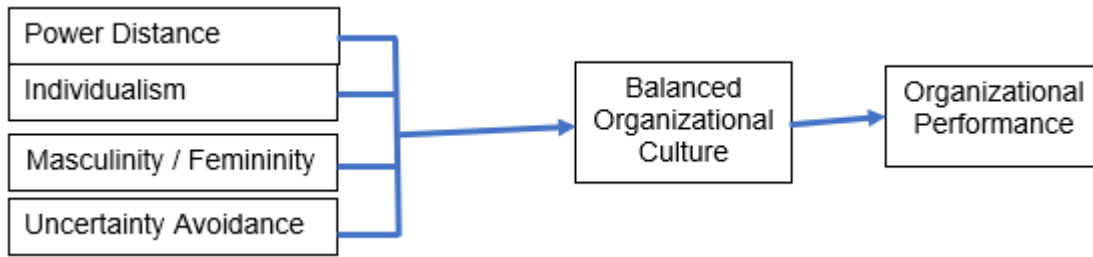
Method

As presented in the Introduction, our field study takes place at the Pullman Saigon Centre, managed by Accor Hotels in Vietnam. Located in Ho Chi Minh City in the South of Vietnam, local staff at Pullman Saigon Centre are only Vietnamese, and the top management is composed mainly from French people. This is the reason why studying cultural differences in this Centre, we will compare mainly French and Vietnamese cultures, although the General Manager is Australian, but having a long working experience in the French Group Accor Hotels.

Our research is focusing on the qualitative method, with the purpose to understand and explain the differences in the perception about employee engagement from top management's point of view and the one of local staff. These differences are revealed in the Employee Engagement Survey conducted annually in the hotel, which shows that employee engagement is under 70% in 2016, below the target objective and the average of Accor Hotels' employee engagement. In the field study, eleven interviews were conducted with eleven respondents of Pullman Saigon Centre, two of them are French, and nine are Vietnamese. The interviewees work in different departments of the hotel, at different positions and level of responsibility (Table 1 *infra*). The content of the interviews is based on the Guide for Interviews with the Pullman Saigon Centre interviewees in the Appendix 1.

Table 1. Interviewees by nationality, department and position

Nationality	French	Vietnamese
Number of interviewees	2	9
Food & Beverage	1	4
Front Office	1	5
Management position	2	2

Source: Authors' survey

The Part 1 of the Interview is about the interviewee's experience in the hotel industry and within Accord Hotels, the nationality of interviewee and his manager's. The Part 2 of the interview covers all the drivers of employee engagement proposed by Robinson et al. (2004) with questions relating to training and career opportunities; immediate management; performance; communication; equal opportunities and fair treatment; pay and benefits; health and safety; cooperation; family friendliness; job satisfaction; empowerment; and hotel's image. The two last topics "empowerment" an "hotel's image" are derived from Macey and Schneider (2008), who state that challenging situations can increase employees' engagement because they trust their efforts will be rewarded, and people can be identified with the organization they attach to and behave accordingly to its long-term interests.

During the interviews, the interviewer uses open questions to let the interviewee freely develops his/her answers on the themes. The interviewer takes notes and makes the transcripts soon after the meeting to facilitate the content analysis. When all interviews have been realized, the data collected are analyzed by themes following the structure of drivers proposed by Robinson et al. (2004) and Macey and Schneider (2008). At the same time, when comparing the content from French and Vietnamese interviewees on the same topic, we use also the six cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede et al. (2010) namely Power Distance; Individualism versus Collectivism; Masculinity versus Femininity; Uncertainty Avoidance; Long-term versus Short-term Orientation; and Indulgence versus Restraint, to explain the differences or similarities between the perceptions from the two sides. The final purpose of the analysis is to reach the concept of employee engagement defined by Saks (2006), and more precisely the organization engagement, with the managers and staff at Saigon Pullman Centre.

Results

The Pullman Saigon Centre is one of the 24 five-star hotels in Ho Chi Minh City in the South of Vietnam. Opened in 2014, the hotel employs now 350 staff and is managed by the French brand Accor Hotels, one of the leaders in the hospitality industry. In line with their organizational culture, Accor Hotels employs mostly French managers on key position at Pullman Saigon Centre, when the majority of staff are Vietnamese. Therefore, our study will consider mainly the differences between French and Vietnamese national cultures.

As mentioned in the Introduction, an annual survey on employee engagement is conducted every year in each Accor Hotels establishment. In 2016, the engagement score of the Pullman Saigon Centre employees was only 59%, quite low compared to the average of 70% of others. Among the most

preoccupied aspects are individual and team recognition (53%), quality of life at work (63%), transparency of the communication (62%), and support shown to employees (62%). Those issues will be analyzed carefully through our in-depth interviews with the Pullman Saigon Centre respondents.

<u>Training, development and career opportunities</u>

Both French and Vietnamese interviewees consider training as important or very important for the employee to perform the task well. However, Vietnamese staff emphasize more about the training as "*complete, detailed and frequent*" for preparing and executing the task, when French managers think that training is necessary but do not expect it to be complete. At this point, Vietnamese staff need to be coached more closely until they perform well, when the French managers expect their staff to complete the training by themselves on the job. In the same spirit, local staff and managers studied by Situmorang and Japutra (2019) in Indonesian Hotels wish to learn more competencies, to equip with more specific skills of the industry so that they can perform well in order to compete with expatriate managers.

In Pullman Saigon Centre, training activities are organized by the Human Resources Department, based on the content delivered by the trainers coming from the Accor Hotel Group. Some departments such as Food & Beverage or Front Office take more time on guiding the new employees on procedures for example about guest complaint, food specifics, hospitality, etc. but not enough for all employees.

To prepare for career opportunities and development, employees need to discuss their wishes with their direct supervisor, and to be allowed to participate in cross-training sessions. However, the Vietnamese interviewees recognize that: "*It is difficult to be accepted in cross-training*", when for some of them "*language proficiency is a key element that makes me afraid to talk about my career with my manager*", and even for those who master English well "*the risk of misunderstanding is too high*". From the French side, the managers declare having no difficulty to discuss with their Vietnamese staff, however, they do not think cross-training is helpful because the lack of workforce does not facilitate the movement and transfer of employees.

About training and career opportunities, cultural differences may be found the most clearly in the discussion about career opportunities for staff, except at the yearly performance appraisal. High power distance (Hofstede et al., 2010) and language differences (Trompenaars, 1994) do not facilitate the communication between managers and staff on this aspect, and can reduce the employee engagement with the hotel. The difficulty for implementing cross-training to develop career opportunities can also minimize the employee engagement, because Vietnamese staff do not see their future attached to the hotel even when they have the same degree of long or short-term orientation

with the French people (see Figure 3 *infra*). Soares and Mosquera (2019) recommend that, in order to increase employee engagement, managers have to implement activities promoting long-term orientation, loyalty and commitment from their staff. Tuan (2018) also insisted on the managers' role when they participate in the training as trainers and change agents to train their staff how to serve hotel's guests and visitors, then increase engagement from their employees.

Immediate Management

When asking the Vietnamese respondents about the relationship with their French managers, the answer is "*even if the communication is not perfect, we always manage to understand each other. My manager always makes sure that I have understood everything and I can ask her questions if anything is unclear*". These statements can rise a little confusion on the degree of understanding between the employee and her manager, when the problem of foreign language is not totally solved. We continue to go more deeply into the issue and take note about the reasons as "*we must follow what our manager says*", or "*the manager knows better what is best for everyone, we must follow his decision*". In this case, the respect for the hierarchy due to the high power distance from both two national cultures (Hofstede et al., 2010) does not affect employee engagement.

On the other hand, perceiving the support from Immediate Management can also influence positively employee engagement, for both French and Vietnamese, such as argued by Saks (2006). In our case, once again, management's support helps increase both job and organization engagement. In their synthesis about the drivers of employee engagement, Bedarkar and Pandita (2014) cited Papalexandris and Galanki (2009) as having identified the positive relationship between management and supervisor's behavior on employee engagement, which finally conducts to employee performance by achieving organizational goals.

Another explanation of this situation is based on the high degree of Collectivism of the Vietnamese, when they prefer to let their supervisor, who represents the team, to take the responsibility of the decision. It is not the case of the French managers, who want to express clearly their own thinking, showing then their preference for Individualism. In spite of the big gap in the degree of Individualism between French and Vietnamese (Hofstede et al,. 2010), this cultural difference does not affect the engagement from the employees with the hotel, because the Vietnamese are employees, and French only managers. Luu and his colleagues (2019) in their study on work engagement from employees in different industries in Ho Chi Minh City also confirmed that the support received from the organization

will strengthen the relationship between the employees and their company, based on the social exchange theory (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

Performance and Recognition

Performance and Recognition are the most preoccupying issue at Pullman Saigon Centre because receiving the lowest score in the annual employee engagement survey (53%). One of the Vietnamese interviewee says that "*It is very important for me to hear when I do a good job or when I work hard because it keeps me motivated to do it again*" while the French declares "*It is very important because it gives me confidence to evolve and grow in the hotel*". The main difference in the two statements focus on the fact that French people think about their future, when Vietnamese prefer to talk on the present time and do not pay attention on the benefits in the future. We can find out the reason in the big gap about Uncertainty Avoidance between French and Vietnamese (Hofstede et al., 2010), when French people prepare their future in the current work, and Vietnamese do not.

Another aspect on this issue relies on the recognition of the contribution by the team to the final performance. Vietnamese interviewees will appreciate more the remunerations received if there is a part calculated based on team's efforts, this rule has not been applied yet until now. This situation can be explained by the difference between French and Vietnamese in term of Individualism (Hofstede et al., 2010), where French people prefer individualizing the remunerations, while Vietnamese tend to respect the Collectivism when work in team.

Communication

Communication plays an important role in creating and maintaining employee engagement, the internal communication particularly (Mani, 2011; Kumar & Renugadevi, 2013; Taghipour & Dezfuli, 2013; Badarka & Pandita, 2014). The communication between French and Vietnamese at the Pullman Saigon Centre is considered as good and can facilitate the exchange of ideas and implementation of business activities. However, when asking about the feelings and emotions at work, the Vietnamese answer is: "*It is not acceptable to express publicly my feelings and emotions*", quite different from the French's one "*I often express my emotions at work because it adds something to my message. For example, if I am angry, my employees know it and will act more carefully".* This difference can be explained by the cultural dimension on Indulgence versus Restraint (Hofstede et al., 2010). There is a small gap between the scores of French and Vietnamese (48 and 35), that means French are more open to express their feelings and thinking than Vietnamese. However, the same attitude coming from a foreigner, from the French manager in this case, is not a problem for Vietnamese staff and does not affect their engagement with the hotel.

Equality and Fairness

All Vietnamese and French interviewees answer that Accor Hotels policies are good in Equality and Fairness when applied at the Pullman Saigon Centre. However, for Vietnamese staff working with Vietnamese managers, the equality is not always balanced among the team members. But the majority of respondents declare that high level of Equality and Fairness encourages them to maintain their engagement with the hotel. We can note in this case one of the consequences in Saks' model about employee engagement, where procedural justice influences organization engagement (2006).

One of the reason of this convergence in both French and Vietnamese attitudes can be found in the same level of Masculinity versus Femininity of the two cultures (see Figure 3), where Femininity is more favorable to equity among the team members and help for the weakest member in the group (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Pay and Benefits

Pay and Benefits represent an important element to compensate the employees' contribution to the final results of the hotel. Both French and Vietnamese do agree on the importance of this driver on employee engagement and consider Pay and Benefits as a mean to recognize not only the contribution, but also the competencies of the concerned staff. So, there is no cultural difference between the two cultures on this topic.

Health and Safety

Continuing on the topic of Health and Safety, the common answer from both French and Vietnamese interviewees is "*I do not want to work in a place with low safety standards, feeling safe at work is very important for me*". All of them appreciate the Health and Safety policies at Pullman Saigon Centre, which respect totally all norms and regulations in the sector. This point is very crucial for the hotel, which has to deal with and satisfy not only the customers, but also the employees who provide the services to the customers in the hospitality industry. This driver can help firstly to attract people to come to work, and after that, keep them engaged with the hotel. One more time, no cultural difference is found between French and Vietnamese people about this driver.

Cooperation

With a five-star hotel like the Pullman Saigon Centre, there are many people and departments inside the hotel and they have to cooperate to achieve good results "*cooperation is important because it adds value to our work. In a 5-star hotel, we have to be professional and therefore get along with each other. I think that here everyone understands that and that it makes cooperation very easy.*" Although

there are cultural differences between French and Vietnamese, all interviewees agree on the cooperation among different departments of the hotel, and also between staff in the same unit. This situation surely reinforces their engagement to the hotel. On the other hand, Jung and Yoon (2018) in their study in the hospitality industry in South Korea confirmed also the positive effect of employee engagement by influencing conflict management climate and facilitating innovative behavior of frontline hotel employees.

Family Friendliness

Family friendliness is related to the consideration of the hotel about staff family and the balance between work life and private life of employees. Both French and Vietnamese interviewees declare satisfied on this topic, which can improve their engagement to the hotel. However, some of the respondents regret that they cannot take all of their paid leaves because there is so much work to do and no one to replace them when they are on leave. Coming back to the cultural dimensions of Hosftede and his colleagues (2010), Masculinity versus Femininity can be used to explain this driver. The scores of French and Vietnamese are nearly the same (43 and 40), that means both of them appreciate to have work life balanced with the time for the family.

Job Satisfaction

The interviewees' answers to the question about job satisfaction are quite diversified, even in the same national culture. However, all respondents do agree that job satisfaction influence strongly their engagement with the hotel, such as in previous researches (Taghipour & Dezfuli, 2013). We do not think there is cultural differences on this driver for employee engagement. However, this point confirms once again that one of the most important consequences of employee engagement proposed by Saks (2006) is job satisfaction. In the Vietnamese hospitality industry, there is a fierce competition among different players in the luxury segment, so if the employee is not satisfied with the hotel, he or she can leave and apply for job at the others. This is also announced in the study conducted by Nazarian and his colleagues (2017), where the hotel's managers need to consider their employees' expectations, behavior to keep them satisfied and continue to work with the hotel.

Employee Empowerment

Concerning Employee Empowerment, there is a big difference between French and Vietnamese. One of French managers says "*empowerment is important because it allows you to show your ability to move forward. By taking more responsibilities, you show to the management that you are motivated and able to handle more, hence giving you an opportunity to be promoted*". French managers believe in employee empowerment and then in employee engagement by this driver. However, Vietnamese

staff do not have the same ideas, when one of them says "*When I face an unexpected situation, I report it immediately to my manager*". Or another adds "*I would not want to deal with that on my own because if I don't know how to do it I will fail. It is better that way".* Here we come back to the cultural differences between French and Vietnamese regarding the individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede et al., 2010), when French prefer to take responsibility individually, and Vietnamese consider the situation as a member of a team. From the Vietnamese point of view, we cannot say that this driver of Employee Empowerment helps increase employee engagement. Beside the differences between the two cultures French and Vietnamese, the findings from a meta-analytic test of Crawford and his colleagues (2010) also state that challenging job demands are associated with strains and do not increase consequently employee engagement.

Hotel's Image

At Pullman Saigon Centre, both French and Vietnamese understand that the hotel's image is very important. "*The image of the hotel is the reflection of the quality of our work. It includes the quality of service, the attitude of the hotel to its guests and the vision of the Pullman that they have.*", one of the respondents says. This good image of the hotel will improve the level of employee engagement. However, some Vietnamese employees do not like the current image of the Pullman Saigon Centre, because they do not like the concept of B-leisure, young and connected hotel. This can affect somehow the engagement of these employees to the hotel, which is shown through the low score of employee engagement in the last annual survey.

Our study on employee engagement based on the drivers proposed by Robinson et al. (2004) and Macey and Schneider (2008) has found that almost all of the drivers including training and career opportunities, performance and recognition, support from immediate management, communication, equal opportunities and fair treatment, pay and benefits, health and safety, cooperation, family friendliness, job satisfaction and hotel's image influence clearly the level of employee engagement at Saigon Pullman Centre. Only one driver – employee empowerment – does not show its importance in creating and maintaining employee engagement. The reason can be found in the Vietnamese national culture, which does not encourage subordinates to take initiative and discuss freely with their management. The Vietnamese culture has also some differences with the French one, which confirm the cultural scores found by Hofstede and his colleagues (2010) and influence differently the level of employee engagement at the Pullman Saigon Center.

Discussion

Starting from a relative low score of employee engagement at Pullman Saigon Centre compared to other units of Accor Hotels, our qualitative study has found out that cultural differences between the French managers and Vietnamese staff may influence the level of employees' engagement to the hotel. Ten drivers proposed by Robinson and her colleagues (2004) plus two from Macey and Schneider (2008) are asked to our eleven interviewees at Saigon Pullman Centre to collect their thinking about employee engagement (see Appendix), and then six cultural dimensions of Hofstede and his colleagues (2010) help us in explaining the differences in the perception and level of organization engagement (defined by Saks, 2006) between French managers and Vietnamese staff in the hotel.

Among the biggest differences between French and Vietnamese respondents, training, development and career opportunities, communication, recognition and employee empowerment do not have the same perception for French managers and Vietnamese employees. Coming back to the cultural dimensions of Hofstede and his colleagues (2010), the low score in Individualism of Vietnamese people explains the fact that Vietnamese employees prefer to have collective recognition and decision, team-based appraisal. The relative average score in Masculinity also elucidates the Vietnamese preference for flexibility in communication and career opportunities. The high score in Power Distance and low score in Individualism conduct to the low employee empowerment from Vietnamese staff, who think that their manager must be the best decision maker.

Apart from the two drivers on Family Friendliness and Hotel's image where all respondents do not have the same answers on the current situation at the Saigon Pullman Centre (too much work for having paid leave, the hotel's image does not fit for the expectations), the remaining drivers on Support from Immediate Management, Performance, Equal Opportunities and Fair Treatment, Pay and Benefits, Health and Safety, Cooperation, Job Satisfaction are perceived positively by all of the interviewees who affirm they help increase their engagement with the hotel.

For managerial implications, some practical activities can be implemented to increase employee engagement at Pullman Saigon Centre such as (1) Team-based performance rewards insisting on collective contribution of staff; (2) Internal Training and Cross Training about the Pullman brand name of Accor Hotels to improve the hotel's image among Vietnamese employees; (3) More selection criteria on candidates' perception about Pullman brand name when recruiting new staff and (4) General Manager (or other top managers) Eating and Cooking with staff to improve the communication between the employees and the top managers (currently, the hotel organizes the

General Manager's Table but this activity is not evaluated as efficient because the employees do not speak freely and share their opinions).

Finally, as our study uses only qualitative in-depth interviews, the results cannot be generalized to other cases. Besides, the number of French respondents is smaller than Vietnamese ones, and French are all managers, their perception about the culture and working behavior of their Vietnamese staff may have limitations which can be analyzed more deeply in another study with a larger sample.

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APPENDIX

Guidelines for interviews with Pullman Saigon Centre respondents

Part 1: Assessing the cultural identity of the interviewee

Question 1: Which department do you work for? What is your position in this department?

Question 2: How long have you been working in the hotel industry?

Question 3: What is your nationality? What is your manager's nationality?

Part 2: The perception and expectation around employee's engagement drivers of the employee

Training and career opportunities

Question 4: What do you think about the training in the hotel? Why is training important or not for you? Do you like how the training is conducted? Why?

Question 5: What do you think about the career opportunities in the hotel? Are they adequate to you? Why is it important (or not) for you to have opportunities for career development in the hotel?

Immediate Management

Question 6: What do you think about the communication with your immediate manager? Is it open? What do you think is easy and what do you think is difficult when communicating with him? Why is it important (or not) to communicate with your manager for you?

Question 7: What do you feel about conflicting situations with your manager? Can you express your opinion easily with him? (in private/public) Why?

Question 8: What do you think about the trust with your manager? Can you trust him/her? How important is it for you? Why? Do you feel respected? (Why?)

Performance

Question 9: What do you think about the regulation and procedures for your position? Is it too much – not enough? Do you need more freedom to do your job? Why is it important (or not) for you to have such procedures?

Question 10: What do you think about your performance appraisal? About the recognition of your performances (your value within the hotel)? Do you feel encouraged to perform well? Why is it important for you to be recognized for your work?

Communication

Question 11: What do you think about the communication with the executives? What are the positive/ negative aspects that make you more engaged with the hotel? Why is it important (or not) for you to communicate with top-executives?

Question 12: What do you think about communication with your colleagues? What are the positive/ negative aspects that make you more engaged with the hotel? Why is it important (or not) to communicate with your colleagues?

Equal Opportunities and fair treatment

Question 13: What do you think about the equality of opportunities and treatment in the hotel? Why is it important (or not) for you to have a respect of fairness and equality where you work?

Pay and Benefits

Question 14: What do you think about the payroll and the benefits from your position? Why is it important (or not) for you to have good compensations for your work?

Health and safety

Question 15: How do you feel about the health and safety measures in the hotel? Why is it important (or not) for you to have such measures organized by the hotel?

Cooperation

Question 16: Do you work with other departments? How do you feel about the cooperation between the different departments? Is it easy/ difficult to coordinate work between departments? Why is it important (or not) for you?

Family friendliness

Question 17: How do you feel about the personal/ professional life balance? Why is it important (or not) for you to have a good balance and the integration of your family life with the hotel?

Job satisfaction

Question 18: How do you feel with your current job? What are the positive and negative aspects of the job? Why is it important (or not) for you to be satisfied with your current job?

Empowerment

Question 19: Do you feel you that you are encouraged to take initiative and responsibilities in your mission? Why is it important (or not) for you to be empowered?

Image

Question 20: How do you feel about working for the Pullman brand? For Accor hotel? What are the positive and negative aspects that make you more attracted (involved) with the hotel? Why is it important (or not) for you to work in a hotel with a good image?

Students' cultural intelligence:
From a critical literature review to a case study

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Abstract

The four-dimensional construct of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) represents a paradigm that well summarizes the ability of an individual to understand and interact across cultures but, although there is a vast literature on this subject, there are few studies that have specifically analyzed the effects of the methods, represented both by traditional and experiential courses and by personal experiences of life abroad, by which students' cultural intelligence can be developed. Moreover, they are mostly concentrated in the USA. The aim of this work is twofold: a) to provide a comprehensive review of the existing students' CQ literature and secondly to understand if there is a relationship between the attendance of cross cultural management courses and/or international experience and the enhancement of student's CQ; b) to investigate if the will to live and study abroad could be a predictor of a high level of CQ.

Keywords: Cross Cultural Training; Cross Cultural Management Education; Cultural Intelligence; Students; University; International Experience; Motivation; Italy.

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Introduction

In the last decades the development of internationalization and commercial exchange policies between companies has stimulated a growing interest in the diversity of managerial practices between different cultures and different countries (Werner, 2002; Tsui et al. 2007). Several practitioners and academics agree that cross-cultural competences and skills represent "a valuable, rare, and inimitable resource that can offer firms a competitive advantage" (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Barney, 1992) and this led, both for universities and companies, to a growing interest in the study of methods to develop Cultural Intelligence (CQ) of students and workers. The ultimate goal is then to create managers of the future that have the necessary knowledge to be effective in different cultural contexts. (MacNab, 2012). As a consequence, in the academic field there has been a proliferation of courses dedicated to the development of CQ and, while some of these are mainly focused on the transfer of theoretical knowledge, others have also adopted experiential-teaching methods that allow students to gain the practical experience on the subject.

Despite this increase in the number and variety of such courses, their effectiveness, with particular regard to students, has been, however, the object of study only of a limited number of researches (Eisenberg, 2013) which, among other things, are more concentrated in the USA with a majority of American students. This phenomenon, also confirmed by our literature review, highlights two aspects: on one hand, the need to bridge this geographical-cognitive gap through a specific study carried out in other countries like Italy, and, on the other, to verify whether the theorized models and the conclusions reached regarding the effectiveness of these courses can also be confirmed in our specific context. Based on the work of Eisenberg et al. (2013), who has verified the effects on CQ both of CCT course and a period of life abroad, we've decided to investigate the same phenomenon in relation to the Italian context. After having illustrated the current state-of-the-art regarding the literature on the development of the student's CQ, we will present a case study on 145 Italian students. Lastly, we wanted to investigate if the motivation and the propensity to know and integrate in different cultural contexts are predictors of higher levels of CQ. In particular, among the analyzed students, those who

took an interview to participate in the Erasmus + project have been considered and the respective CQ levels were analyzed.

Literature Review

Students' Cultural intelligence Development

To verify the state-of-the-art of the literature about the methods to develop the students' CQ, we've carried out an analysis starting from one of the main articles that laid the foundations for the construct of CQ: Ang S., Van Dyne L., Koh C., Ng K.Y., Templer K.J., Tay C., & Chandrasekar N. A. (2007) "*Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance*".

Cited by a total of 1456 articles, books, book chapters and other materials (Google Scholar), the articles published in scientific journals are used to carried out our literature review. Sorted them in descending order based on the number of citations obtained, a database was created with the first thousand articles with at least one citation. After the exclusion of articles written in a language other than English and Italian, the final sample was composed of 893 articles. From this sample the articles of interest were identified through two phases. In the first one, we proceeded through researching the following keywords in their titles: *Cultural Intelligence, CQ, Experiential, Course, Experience, International Experience, Training, Abroad, Education, Student, Classroom, Learning*. In the second phase, the contents were examined through the relative abstracts.

Although the sample presented a considerable number of works, it was noted that, while some have dealt only marginally with the topic of CQ, many others, who have instead dealt with it, have focused more on aspects far from our specific research purpose - the development of student CQ. After the substantive reduction phase, the sample size was composed by 35 articles. They dealt with the effects of teaching-traditional, didactic-experiential methods, as well as international personal experiences on students' CQ. Five of them dealt with the effects of intellectual-oriented courses, fourteen on experiential courses, nine on the impact of experiences abroad, seven on the joint action of courses and international experiences. Among them, ten are of a general and conceptual nature while twenty five have empirically tested their hypotheses by conducting specific investigations in the field. In many cases, they used the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) to evaluate the impact on individual dimensions. Considering the geographical context of the research, almost half of these studies (n. 12) come from the USA and the research mostly involves American and Asian students; although most of them are on a multicultural basis, they involve a significantly low number of people from different cultures in

the area. Australia is the second country with the greatest number of empirical studies but, also in this case, they have dealt mainly with local and Asian students (Chinese in particular). The remaining articles, coming from different countries such as Indonesia, China and Ireland, France and Holland, Austria, Germany, Slovenia, Colombia and Romania, follow this trend and deepen the topic in relation mainly to students of their own nationality.

For the Italian context it was found that the topic in question is strongly underestimated in the literature, considering that only one study (Ghislieri et al., 2018), conducted by researchers from the University of Turin, dealt with Italian students but in the University context. Given this result, further research was conducted outside the sample mentioned by Google Scholar and only one other research was found in the Italian context on the specific subject (Zanazzi, 2014). This author investigated the positive relationship between programs of internship of the American university consortium IES Rome and the CQ of the students; unfortunately, all the students are from the USA.

In light of this gap in literature, it seems that the topic of the students' CQ development, neglected in the Italian context, lives an overexposure in the US context and then it needs a further in-depth analysis to ascertain if the theorized models and the conclusions reached in these international studies can also be applied in other contexts.

Cultural Intelligence Conceptualization

The construct of CQ was first proposed by Earley in 2002 and has been deepened in Early and Ang's book "*Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions Across Cultures*" (2003) and is defined as the "*individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings*". The CQ is based on the study by Robert Sternberg (1985) on human intelligence in which it was proposed a tripartition to conceptualize and assess intelligence: creative, analytical, and practical intelligence. Unlike the human one, CQ is however a form of specific intelligence, since it is oriented to specific abilities used to understand, process information and act effectively in not familiar culturally contexts (Ang et al., 2007). Although related, it differs from the general *mental ability* (Spearman, 1904) since it includes not only cognitive skills but also affective skills, those related to emotions. It is also different, but related, with reference to the Emotional Intelligence since the latter focuses on the ability to deal with personal emotions but without consideration of cultural context (Ang et al., 2007). Among the Five Dimensions of the personality (the *Big Five*) postulated by Costa and McRae (1992), the dimension of the *Mental Opening* exerts a positive influence on all the dimensions of the CQ being open to new experiences represents the main characteristic that defines the capacity and the will to

entertain interactions in different cultural contexts (Ang et al., 2006). Other factors are considered "precursors" of CQ such as age, country of origin, personality, sex, personal experience of living abroad etc. since they influence the levels of CQ (Van Dyne et al., 2008).

The model proposed by Earley and Ang (2003) describes the CQ as a four-dimensional construct that describe the modality of expression of CQ into four different dimensions, independent one from each other, but related about the higher construct they express and to the modes through which they can be developed. The authors also specify that these dimensions do not refer to generic capabilities but to capabilities that are specifically applied in multicultural contexts.

Metacognitive CQ "reflects mental processes that individuals use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge, including knowledge of and control over individual thought processes relating to culture" (Flavell, 1979). This dimension focuses on higher-order cognitive processes and promotes critical thinking regarding the interactions between different cultures through processes of reworking and reviewing one's own behaviors and knowledge. Metacognitive CQ is strongly associated with positive outcomes regarding intercultural relationships like creative collaboration and affective closeness (Chua et al., 2012).

Cognitive CQ reflects knowledge of norms, practices, values, and conventions in different cultures acquired from education and personal experiences. Individuals with high Cognitive CQ therefore possess a wide range of knowledge about the economic, legal, social, traditional aspects of a society. Unlike the metacognitive one, the cognitive dimension is culture-specific since it is closely related to one or more specific cultures.

Motivational CQ "reflects the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterized by cultural differences" (Ang et al., 2007). This construct reveals two different aspects: the intrinsic motivation of an individual to know and relate with different cultures and the degree of self confidence in dealing with people coming from different cultures. In relation to the latter, as proved by Salmon et al. (2013) with regard to the negotiations, greater self-confidence "is a significant factor in predicting the effectiveness of manipulative mediation styles in intercultural disputes".

Lastly the *Behavioral CQ* reflects the capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and non-verbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures. This dimension refers to the entire communication set represented by verbal, paraverbal and non-verbal communication as well as the ability to adapt one's behavior in this sense in relation to the cultural context. "Since cultures differ in their norms for appropriate behaviors (Hall, 1959; Triandis, 1994), the ability to display flexible

ranges of behavior is critical to creating positive impressions and developing intercultural relationships" (Gudykunst et al., 1988).

Hypothesis Development

The effects of specific university training courses on CQ have been the object of study only by a limited number of papers and, among these, the majority is focused on the USA context. Given this excessive specificity, it seems that there is a need to verify if the conclusions reached in the previous studies can be applied also in the other contexts. Our aim is to understand how the CQ development could be contextualized in the Italian context. There are conflicting opinions in literature about the development of CQ. The debate has been focused specifically on a dual macro-typology of the courses: intellectual-centered and experiential-centered courses. The former consists mainly of frontal lectures and presentations while the latter mostly use role-plays and immersions in simulated multicultural decision-making contexts that require the active participation of learners.

According to some scholars the "intellectual courses" exert a positive influence especially with the "mental dimensions", Cognitive CQ and Metacognitive CQ, as confirmed by Earley & Peterson (2004). Van Dyne et al. (2008), instead, have verified that after participating in experiential role-playing, the students have reported through the CQS survey, higher levels of the Cognitive dimension but also of the Behavioral one. As explained by the authors, the increase in the level of the Cognitive dimension is a direct consequence of the knowledge that has been transferred to the students while the higher level of Behavioral CQ is related to the participation of students in role-playing exercises. The study carried out by MacNab (2012) dealt with the impact of management education on CQ by using an 8 weeks long educational process. The author showed that the use of experiential learning methods has produced an increase in the levels of Metacognitive, Behavioral, and Motivational dimensions. Finally, a recent study conducted by Eisenberg et al. (2013), which has studied both the impact of CC courses and the one resulting from international experiences, tries to clarify the argument. As for the courses, Eisenberg and colleagues noted that the intellectual oriented courses exert a significant increase in particular with reference to the levels of Cognitive and Metacognitive CQ but a weak effect on the Motivational CQ and no effect on the Behavioral dimension. The experiential courses instead exert greater influence on the Motivational and Behavioral dimensions.

Despite the specific effects of these two types, it is clear that the courses still have a positive influence on the general level of CQ. These arguments leads us to formulate our first hypothesis:

H1: There is a positive association between having attended a CC Course and higher levels of CQ.

About the effects of the international experiences there are some divergent ideas both in relation to the extent of the effects and to the methods to measure this variable. Both Earley & Peterson (2004) and Shannon & Begley (2008) have confirmed that international experiences exert a positive influence on the CQ construct and, in particular, a work from Sizoo et al. (2007) has shown that several years of life abroad are predictors of greater intercultural sensitivity. However, regarding the effects on the specific dimensions, four studies of Ang et al. (2007) reveal that there are different results. In two studies conducted among undergraduates students, they found that experiences abroad were correlated with an increase in Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Motivational dimensions. The other two reported either an increase in all dimensions (the same result was achieved by Einseberg et al., 2013) or no effect on any of them. The reason for these inconsistencies should be sought, as evidenced also by Eisenberg et al. (2013), in the inadequate metrics for assessing international experience. They are related specifically to the duration of this experience and its nature. In fact, it's not easy to assess the parameters that make it possible to identify a proper concept of "experience abroad" and, at the same time, to identify what is the right duration of these experiences that can be considered as "proper" to verify the impact on CQ. Certainly a prolonged period of life abroad (e.g. 6 months) is certainly more incisive than a single month and, for the nature of the experience itself, a period of study abroad could be more important for the CQ development instead of a simple vacation.

In our study, given the particular socio-cultural composition of the students, we have not considered the difference about the nature of the abroad experience and we've chosen a period of staying abroad equal or greater than one month since requesting a longer period of stay (for example three months) would have drastically reduced the sample size. Given these arguments, we formulate the second hypothesis:

H2: There is a positive association between having an international experience abroad and higher levels of CQ.

Following the abovementioned work of Eisenberg et al. (2013) regarding both the attendance of the course and the abroad experience, we formulate the third hypothesis:

H3: There is a positive association between the joint action of the course and international experiences and higher levels of CQ.

As mentioned earlier, in our study we also wanted to verify if an individual's motivation has an effect on the CQ and influences not only the level of the Motivational CQ but also of all the other dimensions. Motivation is defined by Bedeian (1993) as the "will to achieve" and it represents a fundamental

element for the Motivational CQ since it lays the foundations for that desire to adopt effective behaviors in non-familiar cultural contexts (Van Dyne et al., 2012). While motivation is the process that gives behavior purpose and direction (Kreitner, 1995), Motivational CQ predicts behavior and influences how individuals approach and handle situations in a cross-cultural environment (Earley and Peterson 2004).

For this reason, we believe that the motivation to participate in an international experience, in our case represented by those who freely choose to participate in the Erasmus interviews, can predict higher levels not only of Motivational CQ but of the whole construct. This leads to us to formulate the forth hypothesis:

H4: Interest in living abroad is a predictor of higher CQ levels.

Method

The study was conducted from 08/27/2018 to 03/04/2019 through a questionnaire to two different groups of students at the University of Salerno:

1) Students attending the courses of Cross-Cultural Management, Cross-Cultural Competence, and Economics and Business Management (including those incoming in the University of Salerno for the Erasmus+ Mobility Project);

2) Students who have taken the interview, on 13/02/2019, for the participation in the Erasmus project for the academic year 2019/2020.

The questionnaire was composed of 31 Items. Eleven items were used in order to gather background data about the participants regarding: the socio-demographic status (four items), the past and present study experiences (four items), the general abroad experience (two items), future plans regarding job or study activities (one item). The remaining 20 items were used in order to measure the CQ of the students via the self-report scale by Ang et al. (2007). To produce the total scores for both the single dimensions of the CQ construct and the overall CQ, the scores of each question were summed for every single subscale and for the entire questionnaire. Since the number of items for the various dimensions is not homogenous the percentages of each dimension, in relation to the maximum score and to the number of students in the groups, were also calculated. The maximum scores are as follows: 812 for Metacognitive CQ, 1218 for Cognitive CQ, 1015 for Motivational CQ, 1015 for Behavioral CQ, 4060 for overall CQ.

The data were then gathered for a total of 219 students, Fifty-five percent (n=121) of the participants were female and the distribution of age, measured in three classes, was as follows: Sixty-for percent

(n=140) between 18 and 22 years old, Twenty-six percent (n=58) between 23 and 26 years old, Ten percent (n=21) between 27 and 30 years old. The reported countries of origin were: Italy for the 62% of the students (n=135), other European countries for the 21% (n=47), countries outside Europe for the 17% (n=37). The Departments reported were as follows: 65% (n=143) DISA-MIS (Department of Business Studies – Management and Innovation Systems), 11% (n=24) DISUFF (Department of Human, Philosophical, and Education Sciences), 3% (n=6) DIPSUM (Humanities Department), 21% (n=46) from other different departments.

Groups Formation

The 219 compiled questionnaires were divided in four groups:

1) Students *who have attended* a university course related to CQ and *lived* at least one month in a country different from the country of origin (Course&Abroad, **CA**)

2) Students *who have attended* a university course related to CQ and *who have not lived* at least a month in a country different from the country of origin (Only Course, **OC**)

3) Students *who have not attended* a university course related to CQ and *lived* at least a month in a country different from the country of origin (Only Abroad, **OA**)

4) Students *who have not attended* a university course related to CQ and *who have not lived* at least a month in a country different from the country of origin (No Course – No Abroad, **NN**)

From the last group we have extracted only the students who have taken the Erasmus interview in order to form a fifth group for the study of the motivational component:

5) Students *who have not attended* a university course related to CQ, *not lived* at least a month different from the country of origin, *interested* to gain experience abroad (Erasmus Interview, **EI**)

Study Sample Composition

Since the number of students in each group was not the same, we have drawn an equal number to have groups of equal size. The smallest one consisted of 29 participants so, via a random number generator, the same number of students was extracted from each group. The study sample consisted then of 145 students divided in five groups.

Of these 145 students, fifty-six percent (n=82) of the students were female, and the distribution of age, measured in three classes was as follows: Sixty-six percent (n=95) between 18 and 22 years old, Twenty-five percent (n=36) between 23 and 26 years old, Nine percent (n=14) between 27 and 30 years old. The reported countries of origin were: Italy for the 61% of the students (n=89), other countries of the former EU (European Union) for the 24% (n=35), countries outside the EU for the 15% (n=21). The reported departments of study were as follows: 61% (n=89) DISA-MIS (Department of Business Studies – Management and Innovation Systems), 12% (n=17) DISUFF (Department of Human, Philosophical, and Education Sciences), 2% (n=3) DIPSUM (Humanities Department), 25% (n=36) from other different departments. All the percentages of the study sample were very similar to the ones of the population.

Measures

Cultural Intelligence. To measure the student CQ level we used the self-evaluation test, developed by Ang et al. (2007), called Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS). For the development of the contents of each dimension, the authors referred to different fields of study such as educational and cognitive psychology (O'Neil and Abedi, 1996), cultural domains (Triandis, 1994), human relations (Murdock, 1987), intrinsic satisfaction (Deci and Ryan, 1985), self-efficacy in intercultural contexts (Bandura, 2002) and intercultural communication for verbal and non-verbal flexibility (Gudykunst et al., 1988; Hall, 1959). This test consists of 20 statements for which respondents must express their agreement / disagreement through a 7 point Likert scale (strongly agree/strongly disagree). These statements are divided into four parts, each representing the individual dimensions of the CQ: Metacognitive (four items), Cognitive (six items), Motivational (five items), and Behavioral (five items). Although each dimension can still be independent from each other, the joint action of these four dimensions, the overall CQ, represents the general capacity of an individual "*to function and manage effectively in cultural diverse settings*" (Earley and Ang, 2003). In this study the Cultural Intelligence was measured only one time for each student. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of each CQ dimension for all the groups ranged between 0.74 and 0.93 with only two exceptions where the values were 0.66 and 0.68.

International Experience. As suggested also by Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005), international experiences have an influence on the capacity to function effectively in multicultural contexts and then on the level of CQ. In this study, in order to study the extent of the effect of this experience on cultural intelligence, it was considered whether the participants had lived at least one month abroad.

Cross Cultural Courses Attendance. With regard to the Cross-Cultural Courses we wanted to investigate which dimensions of CQ are more influenced by this experience. For the purposes of the study we have considered all the students, both Italian and foreign, who have already attended a CCT course. No difference was made regarding the type of course (if it was more intellectual or experiential oriented) given that the sample also includes foreign students who have attended the aforementioned courses in their own universities.

Results

The scores for each dimension are reported in Table 1, the Cronbach' Alpha scores are shown in Table 2.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there is a positive association between having attended a CC Course and higher levels of CQ. Compared to those without Cross-Cultural Education at all (**NN** Group), the scores of students with only a cross-cultural education are higher for every dimension. In particular, the course seems to have the stronger impact on the Motivational CQ (Δ% +5.51) followed by Cognitive CQ (Δ% +3.86), Metacognitive CQ (Δ% +3.2%), and Behavioral CQ (Δ% +3.15).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there is a positive association between having lived abroad for at least a month and higher levels of CQ. Compared to those without any experience at all (**NN** Group), the scores of student who have only the abroad experience are higher firstly for the Motivational CQ (Δ% +8.87), then Metacognitive CQ (Δ% +5.92) and Cognitive CQ (Δ% +4.27), instead, for the Behavioral CQ the correlations are not confirmed (Δ% -1.72).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the combined action of the course and of the international experience increases CQ levels more than the individual experiences. The scores for the students that have had both experiences are higher, for all the dimensions, compared to the students that don't have neither the cross-cultural education nor the experience abroad: Metacognitive CQ (Δ% +9.24), Cognitive CQ (Δ% +6.24), and Motivational CQ (Δ% +12.02), Behavioral CQ (Δ% +10.64). The scores are higher also in relation with those with only one of the two experiences.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the interest in having an experience abroad is a predictor of higher levels of CQ. Since these students don't have any of the two criteria used before, they will be compared to the ones that don't have neither the experience of life abroad nor of the course and who didn't participate for the Erasmus interview. All the four dimensions of the first aforementioned group have higher score if compared to the latter: Metacognitive CQ (Δ% +3.08), Cognitive CQ (Δ% +1.23), and Motivational CQ (Δ% +6.11), Behavioral CQ (Δ% +0.49). In particular, the score for the Motivational

CQ is very similar to the score of those who experienced only the Cross-Cultural Course. As predicted, the delta percentage of the Motivational CQ score is way higher if compared with the others delta.

Table 1: CQ Scores

	Metacognitive	Cognitive	Motivational	Behavioral	Overall CQ
No Abroad, No Course	588 (72.41%)	738 (60.59%)	766 (75.47%)	675 (66.50%)	2767 (68.15%)
No Abroad, Course	614 (75,61%)	785 (64,45%)	822 (80,98%)	707 (69,65%)	2928 (72.11%)
Abroad, No Course	636 (78.33%)	790 (64.86%)	856 (84.34%)	660 (65.03%)	2942 (72.46%)
Abroad, Course	663 (81.65%)	814 (66.83%)	888 (87.49%)	783 (77.14%)	3148 (77.53%)
(Erasmus) No Abroad, No Course	613 (75.49%)	753 (61.82%)	828 (81.58%)	680 (66.99%)	2874 (70.78%)
Maximum Score	**812**	**1218**	**1015**	**1015**	**4060**

Table 2: Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	Metacognitive	Cognitive	Motivational	Behavioral	Overall CQ
No Abroad, No Course	0.7764	0.6683	0.7526	0.8705	0.8705
No Abroad, Course	0.808	0.8502	0.8992	0.8858	0.9361
Abroad, No Course	0.8574	0.8648	0.8148	0.8088	0.9036
Abroad, Course	0.8199	0.8433	0.876	0.7663	0.8901
(Erasmus) No Abroad, No Course	0.8401	0.6823	0.8757	0.7419	0.8768

Discussion

Our first aim was to verify if there is a positive association between having attended a CC Course and higher levels of CQ. Compared to those that did not have a CC education (and no experience at all), all the single dimensions and the Overall CQ of the students who have solely attended the course have higher scores, so the hypothesis is confirmed. In particular, in accordance with MacNab (2012), the course seems to have a particular influence on the Motivational dimensions. This can be explained since the students, after the course, are eager to test themselves in a practical context and they have also more confidence in their ability to do it successfully.

The second hypothesis, about the effects of the sole abroad experience, is partially supported since all the dimensions from the **OA** group, compared to those that don't have no experience at all, have a higher score except for the Behavioural one. Furthermore, the score of this dimension is the lowest of all the sample. While all the other dimensions support the conclusion that living abroad, even for a month, is associated with higher levels of CQ, the low score in the Behavioural CQ can be explained considering two different reasons. On one hand the time spent abroad may have not been enough to understand how to adapt their own behavior to the different environment, on the other, it may be

that, without the CC Course formation, the students did not have the knowledge and the mental scheme useful to assimilate the way to behave effectively in such a context. In both cases, following one or the other reason, the high score for the Motivational CQ should be interpreted not in terms of a high level of self-confidence to be able to adapt effectively in intercultural contexts but as the strong motivation, resulting from a positive experience, to repeat an abroad experience.

For the third hypothesis the analysis of the results confirms that those who have attended the course and lived abroad (EC) have the highest CQ levels of the entire sample. Following the model of the experiential learning by Kolb (1984), the students of this group have activated the experiential learning cycle first through the "collection of data" from the external environment and then processed them in a critical manner with the concepts acquired from the CC course. After that, using the same concepts, they have conceptualized these elaborations in proper mental schemes suitable for the cultural context and, lastly, they have tested on the field what they've learned to verify their reliability. To support this, it was noted that the marked difference in the levels of the Metacognitive and Behavioral CQ, compared to the other groups, shows precisely that these individuals have developed the ability to acquire cultural knowledge and to elaborate it in appropriate mental schemes, even in their behavioral declination.

About the role of Motivation, as a predictor of higher levels of CQ, the scores of the **EI** group confirm that the Motivation plays an important role not only as a basis on which it's easier to build a cross-cultural competence but also with reference to higher levels of CQ. Even if the students of this group have the same (non) experience of the **NN** group they have higher levels of CQ for every dimension. In particular, the biggest differences lie in the Motivational and Metacognitive scores. While for the first one we expected, by definition, a high value, the difference in the Metacognitive CQ can be explained considering that, although students lack an in-depth knowledge of cultural differences, they possess that basic information level that allows them to understand "how much" cultural knowledge they put into their intercultural interactions.

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Digital consumer behavior in tourism: A cross-national analysis in Asian countries

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Abstract

The development of information and communication technologies has transformed communications and consumer activity on the Internet. This article discusses the degree of Internet penetration in Asian countries, as well as the similarities and differences in the behavior of Internet consumers in tourism in these countries, and whether country's cultural resources influence online travel sales.

Our results point to different behaviors and trends in online travel across Asia. Although, we quantitatively show the weak correlation between the spread of the Internet and the use of ICT in tourism, but nevertheless, online travel-related purchases vary depending on the economic development, cultural resources of the country and the tendency of residents to travel.

Keywords: Internet, ICT, e-tourism, consumer behavior, digital tourism.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Asian countries are becoming increasingly attractive to tourists who are drawn by their cultural and natural features. The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index in 2017 compared to 2015 showed the highest growth (+ 2.5%) in the countries of the Asia-Pacific region, compared to the rest of the world (Crotti and Misrahi, 2017a). Among them such countries as Japan (4th place), Korea (19th place), India (40th place), Vietnam (67th place) are noted.

The active use of SM and the exchange of views, experience and knowledge on these platforms are growing worldwide. According to Criteo (2016), orders for mobile travel services as a share of the total number of online orders worldwide increased by 230% in 2015-2016.

According to Bremner and Nelson (2013a), the Asian Cruise Association has identified 80 more cities as potential Asian cruise stops, including destinations in China, Malaysia, South Korea, and Vietnam.

1.1 Digital Tourism Development in Central Asia

Statistics on online travel sales to residents for Central Asian countries is not available, therefore, we did not consider these countries for analysis, but only provided a general description.

According to the Travel and Tourism Sector Competitiveness Index for 2017 (the Index is calculated every two years), out of 136 countries of the world, Kazakhstan takes the 81st place, Tajikistan the 107th place, and the Kyrgyz Republic the 115th place. According to the country's readiness for Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Kazakhstan takes the 52nd place, the Kyrgyz Republic the 103rd place, Tajikistan the 129th place (World Economic Forum-WEF, 2017). It can be noted that Kazakhstan is a leading country in Central Asia in terms of Internet penetration and the use of ICT in tourism.

In terms of Internet penetration, Kazakhstan ranks first in this region, 70% of the population are connected to the Internet (Euromonotor Intarnational, 2018). The online travel market in Kazakhstan is no more than 8-10% of total sales. (*How is online tourism developing in Kazakhstan?* 2018). This is the highest rate among the rest of the Central Asian countries. There are already a lot of services for booking travel in the Kazakhstani market: Tickets.kz, Chocotravel.com, Aviata.kz, Aviabilet.kz, Bestar.kz.
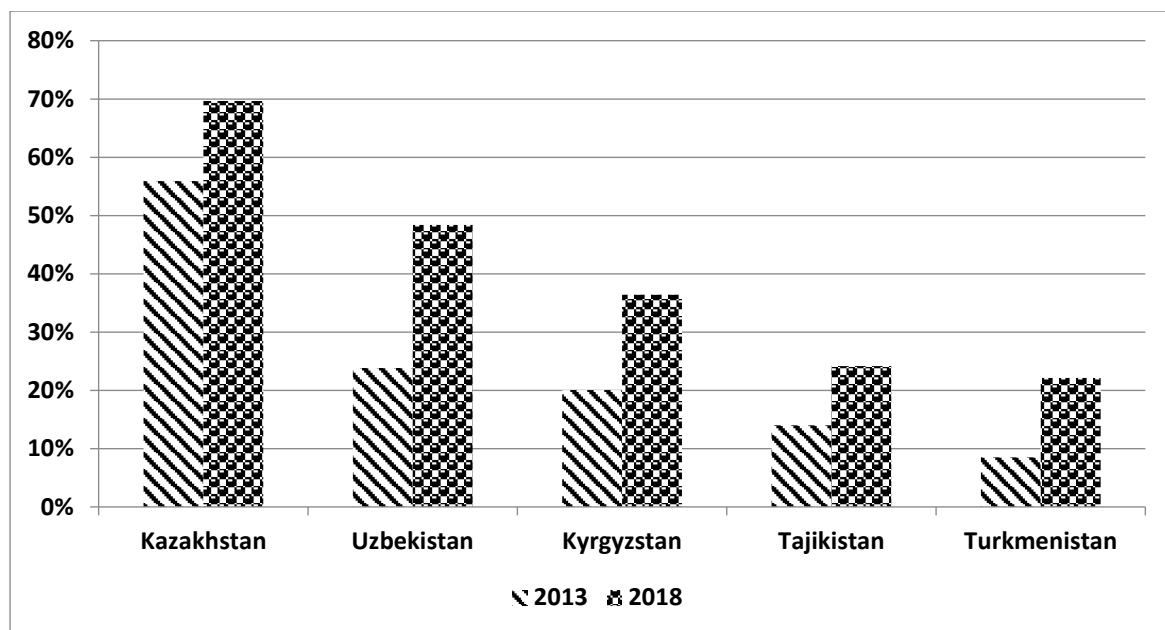
Figure 1: Percentage of individuals using the internet 2013, 2018

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor (2013, 2018)

In Turkmenistan, low rates in the field of online travel can be explained by the very low level (24%) of the Internet penetration in the country. Turkmenistan is an autonomous and secretive country. A visa for Turkmenistan is one of the most expensive in the world, and the local government strictly restricts movement within the country, which is the reason for the underdevelopment of tourism in this country (Euromonitor International, 2015c).

In 2018, Uzbekistan practically did not develop in the field of online travel sales. The country is still adapting to the idea that the Internet can be a source of purchases of goods and services, and not just a source of information (Euromonitor International, 2018f).

According to Travel.ru, in 2014 Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan) was among the top 10 most popular cities in the CIS (Countries of Independent States, post-soviet countries) for summer travel (Euromonitor International, 2015a). But in terms of the Internet usage, it lags behind Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, where it amounted to about 48%.

In Tajikistan, online sales are only observed in airlines and hotels. However, their respective shares in total online sales amounted to 1% in 2014 (Euromonitor International, 2015b).

1.2 Digital tourism in the Asia-Pacific region countries

This study analyzes statistics for the following countries in the Asia-Pacific region: Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, China, South Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand, India, Vietnam, Indonesia, and the Philippines. In these countries, online travel is showing significant growth. Booking accommodation, air and train tickets through online channels are becoming increasingly popular, and booking via mobile phone is currently a common option. It can be expected that in the coming years this trend will be further strengthened due to an increase in OTA (online travel agencies) sales and direct online sales from the supplier (Tatsunori, 2018).
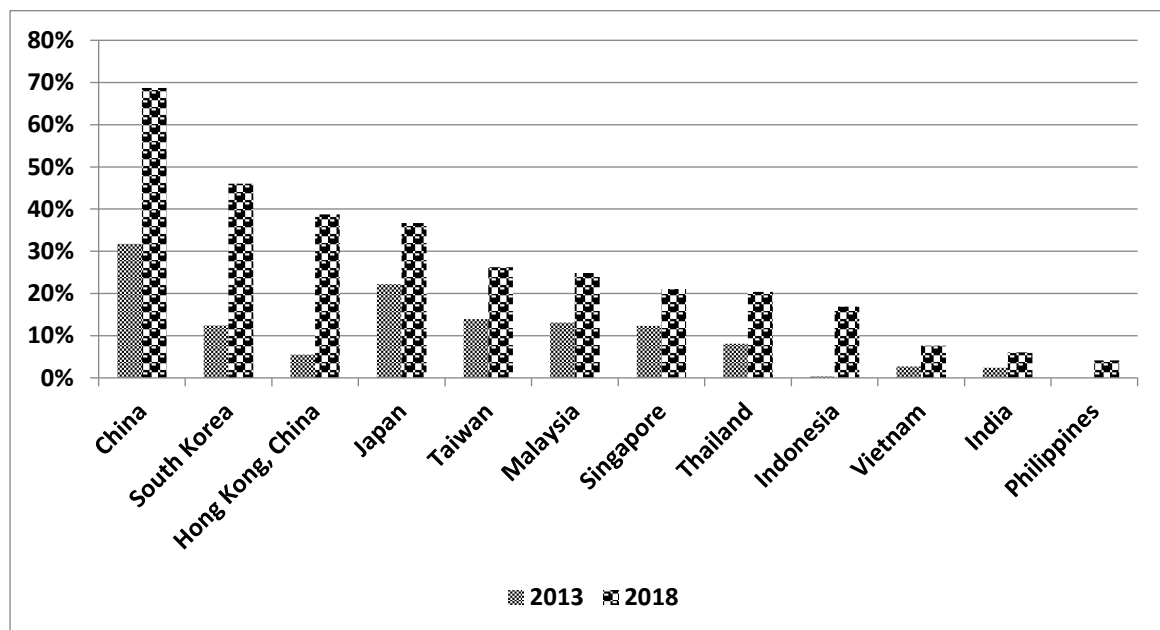
Figure 2: Percentage of Mobile Travel Sales to Residents 2013, 2018

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor (2013, 2018)

India. The advent of low-cost air carriers has also contributed to an increase in the number of tourists. Proximity and lower prices help young Indian users choose destinations in Southeast Asia such as Thailand, Vietnam, Cambodia and Bhutan. Expedia India is actively promoting online travel companies through social networks. MakeMyTrip has over 1 million downloads of its mobile travel app. 70% of all 4- and 5-star hotels in first-tier cities in India have established their presence on social networks (Bremner and Nelson, 2013).

Online travel sales to residents skyrocketed in retail terms at current prices in 2017. Growth in 2017 was driven by the urban population. These consumers view travel as a lifestyle choice, and not just as an annual family holiday. Railway orders via PayTM have become common in the country, as even consumers in second and third tier cities have begun switching to the online channel (Euromonitor International, 2017d).

Japan. For Japan, a significant increase in inbound tourism was one of the key growth factors in the tourism industry; most tourists come from countries in the Asia-Pacific region. Outbound tourism in Japan is stagnating. According to a Travelport survey, only 29.4% of Japanese people surveyed said they were planning a trip abroad in the next couple of months, unlike domestic travel, where this figure was 73%. The survey results showed that one of the main reasons for this was the high price – 68% of respondents (Tatsunori, 2018). Low birth rates and aging society have a negative impact on the tourism industry. Online sales growth is slowing. This will be held back by the aging population as older consumers are still reluctant to buy travels online (Euromonitor International, 2017f).

China. The growth of disposable income, the improvement of transport infrastructure and the spread of the Internet technologies led to the rapid development of the tourism industry in China in 2018. Despite a steady increase in inbound and outbound tourism, domestic tourism also showed a significant improvement in sales, reflecting an increased desire to travel among Chinese residents. Online travel sales to residents recorded a steady growth in their current value by 19% in 2017, mainly due to transportation costs and housing. With the growing number of elderly people in China, the demand for cruise travel and medical tourism is developing (Euromonitor International, 2017b).

Hong Kong, China. Online sales to residents recorded a current value increase by 22% in 2017. Traditionally, Hong Kong was an offline market, relying on long-established travel agencies selling organized trips and vacation packages offline. The proliferation of online travel agencies has changed this situation because they offer more flexible and independent vacation packages that suit any budget. Hong Kong consumers usually start a Google search. They would like to see what is being offered before making the transition to a particular website. (Euromonitor International, 2017c).

Taiwan has changed its brand strategy for overseas markets. Currently, the country is eagerly promoting new types of destinations and experiences, such as rural landscapes. "Tourism 2020 – Taiwanese Sustainable Tourism Development Program" is promoting smart tourism, with numerous digital and mobile initiatives (Euromonitor International, 2017a). It is expected that online travel sales to residents will continue to grow at a steady pace, but slower than in the early years of the survey (Euromonitor International, 2017).

Vietnam. Inbound tourism flows to Vietnam continued to grow at double-digit growth rates in 2018. Online sales of all tourism products continued to mount up strongly in 2018, including air travel, hotels and resellers. Vietnam's average disposable income also continued to increase. At the same time, the number of rich people also rocketed dramatically (Euromonitor International, 2018g). Sales of online tours to residents in 2017 increased significantly due to the growth of Internet penetration and a deeper understanding of the possibilities of online payments. In addition, players also focused on building better websites to attract more customers on the Internet. During the forecast period, online sales of tourism services are expected to grow more slowly compared to the review period as the market is slowly reaching maturity (Euromonitor International, 2017m).

Philippines. As one of the fastest growing countries in Asia, the Philippines' economy showed strong and stable growth in 2017. The travel and tourism industry accounted for 21% of GDP. Among hotels, the average price segment is seen as a key factor. Among airlines, AirAsia and Cebu Air are still the first choice among budget travelers. The number of eco-tourists, both inbound and outbound, is expected to increase as travelers have become more informed about tourism and its impact on the environment and society (Euromonitor International, 2018e). Although the issue of trust in online transactions has existed for a long time, it is expected to disappear, which will lead to the resumption of online transactions (Euromonitor International, 2017).

Thailand. Thailand has great potential in the tourism industry due to its abundance of natural resources, unique culture and hospitality, but it is still lagging behind the other markets when it comes to travel technologies such as electronic payments and other relevant mobile applications (Euromonitor International, 2018d). Online travel sales to residents recorded a double-digit rise in their value in 2017 due to tourism growth, which led to an increase in demand for direct airline ticket sales and online sales of travel agencies to residents (Euromonitor International, 2017k).

South Korea. A significant increase in trips abroad and within the country led to considerable positive results on travelling to South Korea in 2018, as leisure trips remained an important trend and consumers sought to spend time with family and friends. In addition, number of arrivals has slowly recovered after a sharp decline in the number of Chinese travelers in 2017, as political tension between neighboring China and North Korea has eased (Euromonitor International, 2018c). Direct online sales by airlines to residents were the winners in terms of growth in actual cost. While direct online sales of other modes of transport to residents showed the lowest growth rates in this category. As other transport, housing and car rental operators are small or family-owned companies, they do not have sufficient resources to adapt online platforms as fast as the large companies do (Euromonitor International, 2017i).

Indonesia. While Indonesia's economy was gradually gaining momentum in 2018, successive terrorist attacks in the first half of 2018 had a negative impact on the country's tourism industry. Chinese tourists make up the fastest growing group of arrivals. In 2017, online travel sales services to residents increased by 10%. This was mainly due to the ongoing consumer shift towards the purchase of tourism products over the Internet and the rapid development of e-commerce platforms in Indonesia, supported by domestic demographic data. First, there is a surge in middle-income population growth. Secondly, it is believed that the Millennials generation makes a more significant contribution to the travel and tourism industry (Euromonitor International, 2017e).

Malaysia. In 2018, Malaysia expanded its marketing activities in such markets as India, Europe and China, with the aim of increasing the number of visitors. As the country is focused on the Visit Malaysia 2020 initiative, within its framework it seeks to attract more than 36 million tourists by developing medical tourism and eco-tourism. Malaysia's tourism industry has been strongly influenced by digitalization (Euromonitor International, 2018a). Online travel sales to residents grew at the same pace in 2017-2016, which further increased offline sales. As the already high mobile phone penetration rate in Malaysia continued to grow, this further encouraged residents to explore online booking options for their trips. (Euromonitor International, 2017g).

Singapore. Singaporean travelers are increasingly exploring and booking, moreover, mobile booking is a key growth factor (Euromonitor International, 2018b). Online travel sales to residents continued to show significant growth, furthermore sales rose by 6%. More and more Singaporeans are choosing to plan their trips, from sourcing to booking, online and autonomously. According to a study by the KAYAK meta-search site, the number of Singaporeans accessing online travel agents (OTA), social networks, and travel inspiration blogs has more than doubled compared to just 10 years ago. The share of Singaporeans booking online tickets has also increased significantly up to 89%; whereas 10 years earlier it was only 36% (Euromonitor International, 2017h).
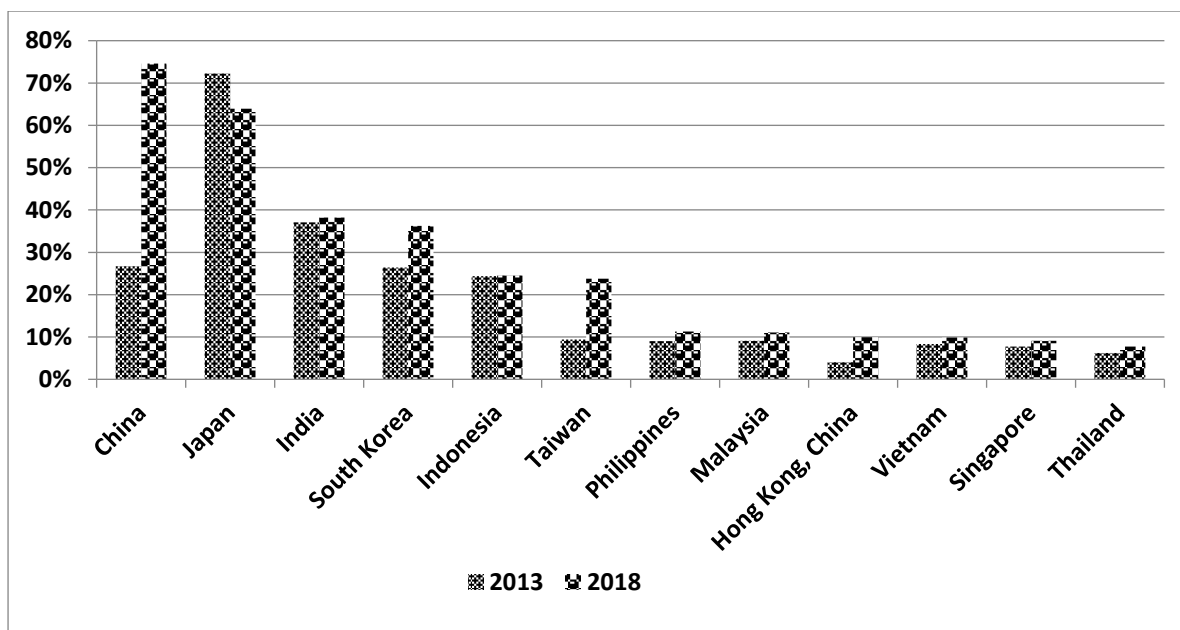
Figure 3: Percentage of individuals using the internet for travel and accommodation services in 2013, 2018

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor (2013, 2018)
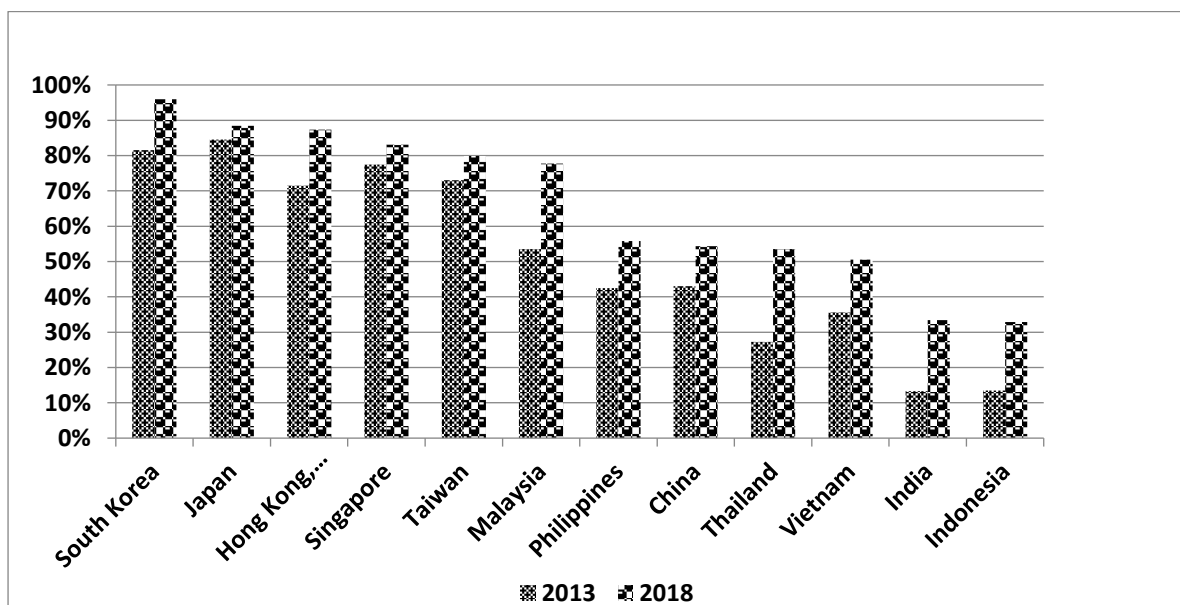
Figure 4: Percentage of individuals using the internet in 2013, 2018

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor (2013, 2018)
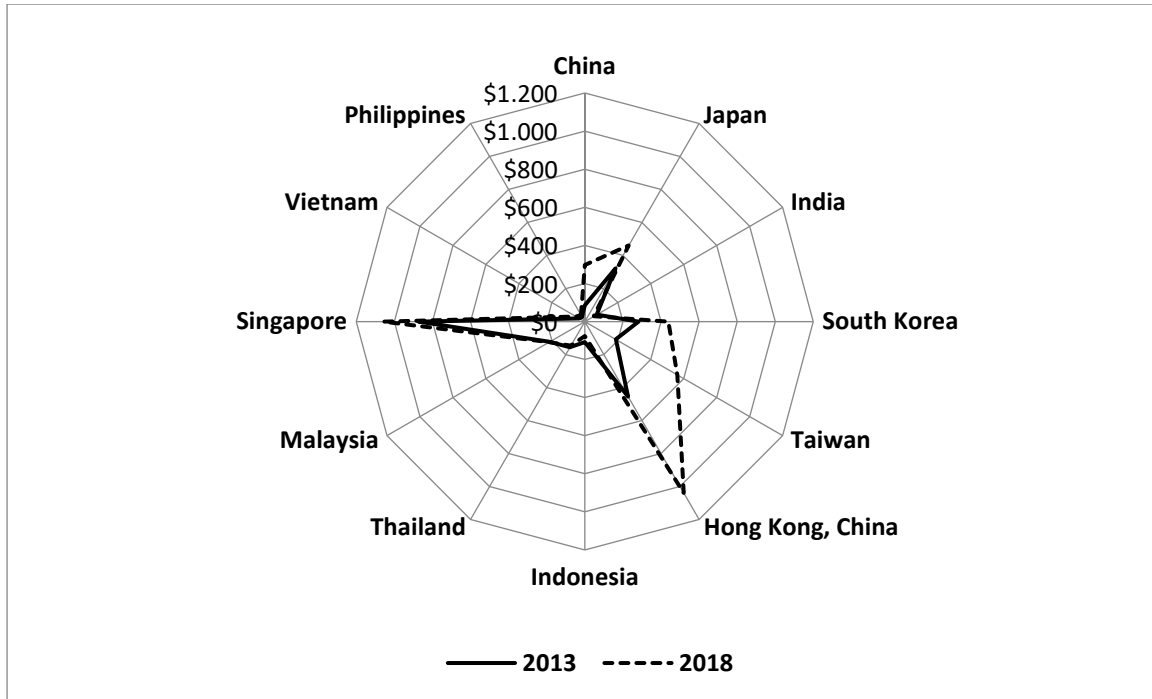
Figure 5: Online Travel Sales to Residents per capita (USD) 2013, 2018

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor (2013, 2018)

The population of Singapore (5 638 676) and Hong Kong (7 451 000) are the smallest in comparison with other countries analyzed (World Bank, 2018). But in these countries, the indicator of online costs per person is the highest compared to other countries analyzed, 1,057 and 1,039 US dollars respectively. Hong Kong is one of the ten countries in the world whose population likes to travel a lot inside the country. On average, one person travels 4 times a year (Sheth, 2019). Due to the small size of Singapore and the limited number of domestic attractions, many Singaporeans have a strong penchant for traveling abroad. This is one of the expenses that Singaporeans spend the most on (Euromonitor International, 2018b). The lowest online sales per person in the Philippines, Vietnam, India, and Indonesia are less than $ 100. Only in India there is a decrease of this indicator by 17 US dollars compared with 2013. In these countries, respectively, the rate of Internet use is lower than in other countries analyzed.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. Digital tourism

The future of e-tourism will focus on consumer-oriented technologies in order to serve new sophisticated and experienced consumers (Buhalis and O'connor, 2005). Benckendorff et al. (2014) suggest that the use of IT in tourism is due to the intangible nature of its products, as well as the informational nature of the industry. The Internet is one of the most influential technologies that have revolutionized operational and strategic practice in travel and tourism (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Xiang et al. 2015). Digital technology has a significant impact on the tourism industry (Benckendorff et al., 2014; Law et al., 2014). Web sites, social media (SM), and smartphones have had a major impact (Leung et al., 2013; Sigala et al., 2012). One of the factors that influence the decision to buy online is how the purchase process, payment mode, order, delivery, service, and consumer relationships are regulated (Kardes et al., 2011). Internet consumers who use web sites to collect information and purchases can be divided into five categories of online users, which differ in their behavior and methods of using web pages: direct searches for information, indirect searches for information, buyers, casual shoppers and leisure seekers (Chaffey, 2010, p. 492-493; Laudon and Traver, 2009).

2.2. Relationship of cultural aspects with the development of tourism.

Tourism culture is best seen as a link between the cultural attractions of the host country and the cultural needs of the guest. The host's culture is indigenous to the area: its specific arts and crafts, traditional roles, festivals and ways of doing things (Tsartas, 1992; Simpson, 1993; Tapper, 2001; Smith, 2009). In the case of small islands, they are often unusually rich and distinctive cultures due to their relative isolation (Royle, 2003, 2008; Berry, 2009). It is known that small islands are far from homogeneous, and even the closest neighbors often have completely different economic, social, cultural and natural landscapes (Milne, 1992). Local facilities, infrastructure, natural and cultural landscapes, and even a sense of local identity develop along with tourism (Cooper, 1995; Hampton and Christensesn, 2007; Canavan, 2013).

Hypothesis 1. We assume that the level of Internet penetration in countries does not correlate with the level of ICT use in the tourism sector.

Hypothesis 2. We assume that the level of ICT use in the tourism sector can be closely linked with the country's cultural resources.

3. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

The research methodology has been slightly adapted from a previous study (Navio-Marco et al., 2017). The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between the two indicators:

 1) Internet penetration rate and online shopping of travel services.

 2) the country's cultural resources and online shopping of travel services.

 The availability of data allowed us to conduct analysis in twelve countries of the Asia-Pacific region (Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, China, South Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, Thailand, India, Vietnam, Indonesia, and the Philippines).

Data were obtained from International Euromonitor Passport, a database of 781 cities and 210 countries. International Euromonitor Passport works closely with organizations such as the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), World Travel Market (WTM) and World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC). Data on the populations of Asian countries are taken from a World Bank source.

For illustration, we showed in Figures 4 and 5 the percentage of Internet users for personal purposes and the share of online travel sales to residents in the total Outbound Expenditure and Inbound Receipts in each analyzed country during the study period.

The basis of the calculation method is the concept of the revealed comparative advantage (RCA), proposed by Balassa (1965; 1977). RCA indicates whether a country is specialized in relation to a product exported to the rest of the world. Various authors have used this index in tourism studies, in particular (Wattanakuljarus and Coxhead, 2008; Algieri, Aquino and Succurro, 2016; Navio-Marco et al., 2017). The Data inaccessibility did not allow us to use the traditional IITur index for the studied countries. Therefore, we compiled a modified tourism index to analyze specialization in e-commerce in tourism. Comparing the obtained indicators, we can see a weak correlation between the two MIITur and IITic indices. Conversely, there is a strong correlation between the MIITur and SICr indices (Subindex: Cultural resources and business travel). Cultural resources and business travel are an integral part (sub-index) of the Travel and Tourism Sector Competitiveness Index.

The first MIITur indicator: Modified Index of Internet Tourism, we received from the Online Travel Sales to Residents of each country (Retail Value RSP, million US dollars) in relation to the total Outbound Expenditure and Inbound Receipts in tourism, in million US dollars. It is calculated by the following formula:

MIITur $=(X_{tc} / X_{tAc})/(X_{cc} / X_{cAc})$

X_{tc} – Online Travel Sales to Residents of each country (Retail Value RSP), million USD (Euromonitor Data).

X_{tAc} – Online Travel Sales to Residents in twelve Asian countries (Retail Value RSP), million USD (Euromonitor Data).

X_{cc} – total Outbound Expenditure and Inbound Receipts in tourism to each country, million USD (Euromonitor Data).

X_{cAc} – total Outbound Expenditure and Inbound Receipts in tourism in twelve Asian countries, million USD (Euromonitor Data).

The second indicator IITic: Index of internet usage integration in the twelve Asian countries, is obtained by analyzing the use of the Internet in each country, compared to the use of the Internet in the remaining twelve countries of Asia.

IITic $=(X_{ip} / X_{iAc})(X_{pp} / X_{pAc})$

X_{ip}: Internet users of each country (Euromonitor Data).

X_{iAc}: Internet users of twelve Asian countries (Euromonitor Data).

X_{pp}: population of each country in the corresponding year (World Bank-Population).

X_{pAc}: population of twelve Asian countries in the corresponding year (World Bank-Population).

4. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Testing Hypotheses 1.

Countries (12 Asian countries studied) with higher MIITur and IITic indices are classified as countries with a higher specialization in online tourism and Internet penetration. A value below the average will indicate a degree of specialization lower than the average of twelve Asian countries. The values obtained using the proposed indices for 2013 and 2018 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: MIITur and IITic (2013-2018)

MIITur			IITic		
Countries	2013	2018	Countries	2013	2018
China	1.18667	1.75844	China	1.360802	1.158219
Japan	3.205286	1.507847	Japan	2.675785	1.882948
India	1.645168	0.901771	India	0.420154	0.710974
South Korea	1.171406	0.855418	South Korea	2.580454	2.043431
Hong Kong, China	0.178417	0.234259	Hong Kong, China	2.262835	1.860114
Indonesia	1.079894	0.577781	Indonesia	0.427459	0.70058
Thailand	0.27486	0.183001	Thailand	0.862478	1.140751
Malaysia	0.403437	0.26075	Malaysia	1.692914	1.656252
Taiwan	0.418025	0.561439	Taiwan	2.309669	1.701392
Singapore	0.341592	0.214737	Singapore	2.452291	1.770073
Vietnam	0.36997	0.232893	Vietnam	1.125827	1.076158
Philippines	0.400687	0.266536	Philippines	1.342929	1.187744

Source: Our research using Euromonitor

In 2013, the MIITur index in China, Japan, India, South Korea, and Indonesia was higher than the average for the study region. This means that in these countries, online travel sales to residents are

higher than in other countries in the region. In 2018, only in Indonesia there was a decrease in this index, perhaps this was due to political events, namely terrorist acts.

The penetration of the Internet in the countries of this region is reflected in the IITic index. As can be seen from Table 1, the index value for Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Taiwan and Singapore decreased from 2013 to 2018, but the IITic value remained above the average for the group of countries studied, i.e., relatively high Internet penetration.

To study the relationship between the MIITur and IITic indices in 2013-2018, the corresponding correlation coefficients were calculated. As can be seen from Table 2, the values of the correlation coefficients between the indices show a weak and decreasing dependence: r_{2013}= 0,138604604   and r_{2018}= 0,005864866.

Table 2: Correlation between MIITur and IITic

	IITic 2013	MIITur 2013			IITic 2018	MIITur 2018
IITic 2013	1			IITic 2018	1	
MIITur 2013	0,1386046	1		MIITur 2018	0,0058649	1

Testing Hypothesis 2. Since there is no strong correlation between Internet penetration and the use of ICT in tourism, the relationship between MIITur and SICr (Subindex Cultural resources) in the study region was further investigated.

SICr includes an assessment of 5 indicators: 1. Number of cultural heritage objects, 2. Oral and intangible cultural heritage, 3. Huge sports stadiums, 4. Number of meetings of International Associations (average for 3 years), 5. Digital demand for cultural recreational tourism (estimated 0-100 points).

This index is calculated once every two years. Given that the index has not been calculated yet for 2018, so further comparative analysis is carried out for 2013 and 2017.

Table 3: Comparison for indicators MIITur and SICr

#	Countries	MIITur 2013	SIcr 2013	MIITur 2017	SIcr 2017
1	Japan	3.205285723	5.9	1.601783651	6.5
2	Hong Kong, China	0.178416716	3.3	0.214914867	3
3	Singapore	0.341592348	3.6	0.221442671	3.1
4	China	1.186669898	5.5	1.74338976	6.9
5	South Korea	1.171405633	6	0.848968489	4.9
6	Malaysia	0.403436699	3.9	0.265657866	2.9
7	Taiwan	0.418024954	3.6	0.515942177	3.2
8	Thailand	0.274859746	3.6	0.188394275	2.8
9	India	1.645168125	4.7	0.929656416	5.3
10	Vietnam	0.369970456	4.1	0.244241434	3
11	Indonesia	1.079893528	3.5	0.614806973	3.3
12	Philippines	0.400686796	2.1	0.244308554	1.9

Source: Our research using Euromonitor, The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2017

The analytical dependence between the MIITur and SICr indices in 2013 and 2018 is shown in Figures 6 and 7.

As can be seen from the figures, there is a strong dependence between the studied indices. Moreover, in 2013, the correlation coefficient was 0.711933141, and in 2017 it increased to 0.963125508.
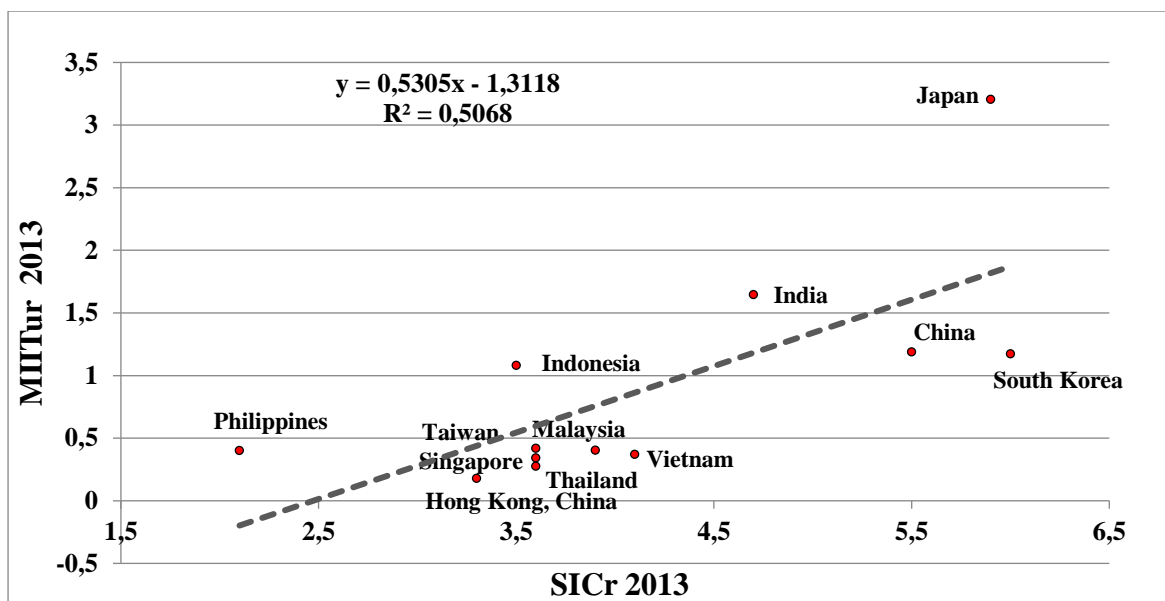
Figure 6: Comparison for indicators MIITur and SICr 2013

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor and Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index (2013)
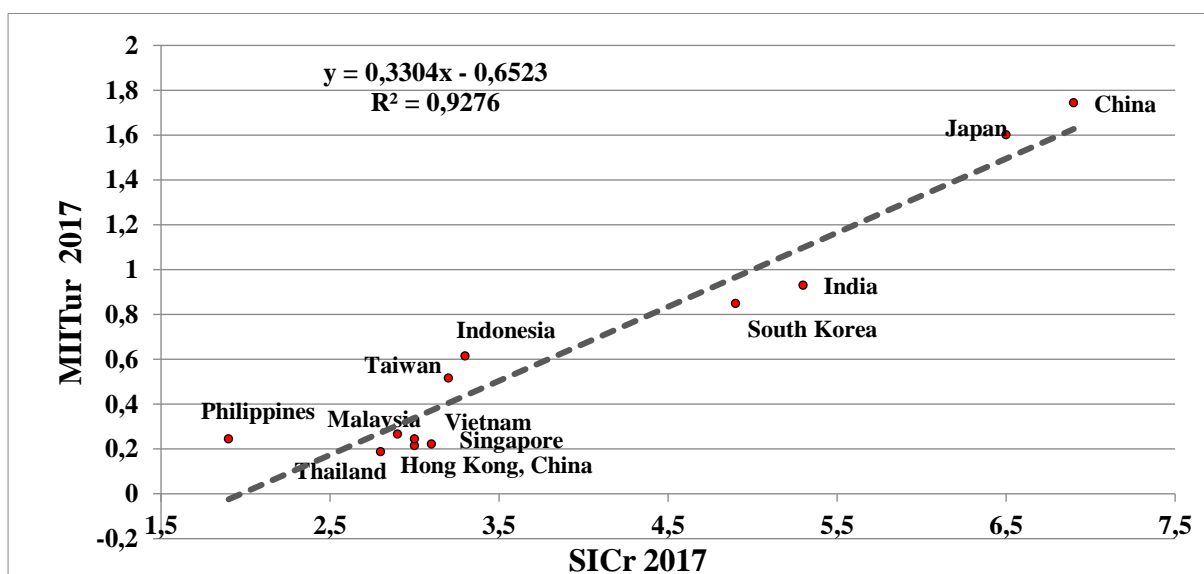
Figure 7: Comparison for indicators MIITur and SICr 2017

Source: Own processing based on data of Euromonitor and Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index (2017)

Table 4: Correlation between MIITur and SICr

	MIITur 2013	SICr 2013			MIITur 2017	SICr 2017
MIITur 2013	1			MIITur 2017	1	
SICr 2013	0,711933141	1		SICr 2017	0,963125508	1

Table 5: Regression Line Results for 2013 and 2017 years

2013	2017
y = 0.5305x - 1.3118 R^2 = 0.5068	y = 0.3304x - 0.6523 R^2 = 0.9276
r=0.711933	*r=0.963126*

Table 6: Variance and Standard Deviation Results for 2013 and 2017

MIITur	**2013**	**2017**
Variance	0,753540774	0,299915842
Standard Deviation	0,868067264	0,547645726
SICr	**2013**	**2017**
Variance	1,357272727	2,549090909
Standard Deviation	1,165020484	1,596587269

Thus, the regression lines of 2013 and 2017 were constructed connecting the MIITur and SICr indices. As can be seen from Table 5, the value of R^2 increases from 0.5068 in 2013 to 0.9276 in 2017. The high value of R^2 in 2017 confirms that the coefficient linking the indices indicates that a change in the SICr index has a strong effect on the MIITur index.

The results obtained for the variance and standard deviation in the indices were as follows: we see that both variance and standard deviation decreased in 2013 compared to 2017, which allows

us to say that countries behaved more uniformly. In our case, the variance and standard deviation of the SICr subindex have increased.

The answer to the question of why SICr is increasing in Japan, China and India, and decreasing in other countries, may be interesting for further research.
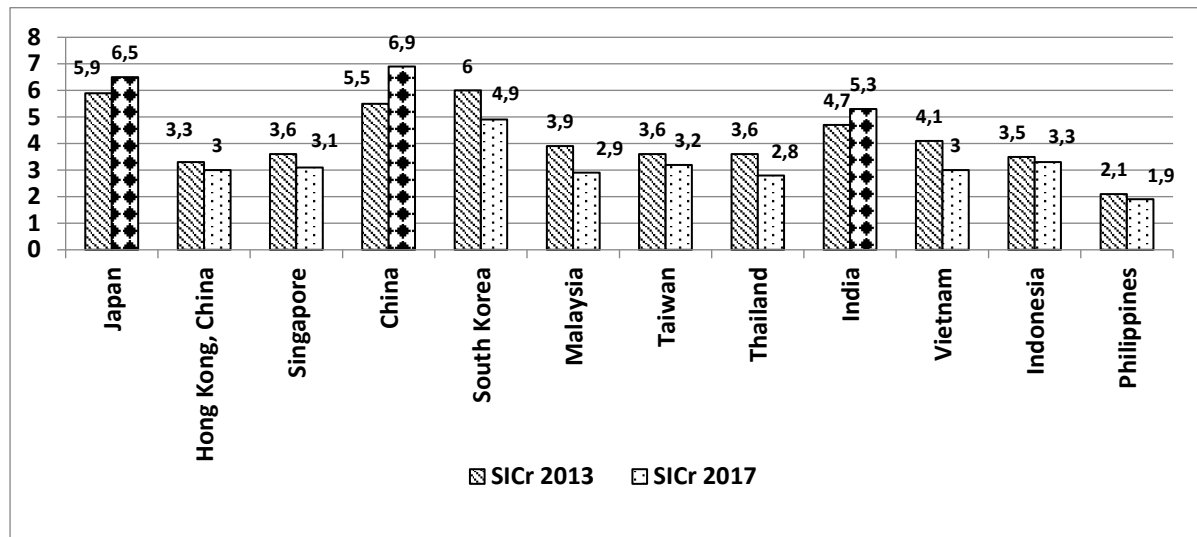
Figure 8: Comparison Index SICr in 2013, 2017

Source: Own processing based on data Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (2013, 2017)

5. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

By analyzing the online behavior of Asian citizens in the tourism sector and its trends in recent years, we find a clear increase in ICT competencies, which led to the convergence of Asian countries during the 5-year study period (2013-2018). However, this positive trend does not apply to tourism ICT habits. Geographic differences in the use of ICTs decreased, but not in terms of travel and accommodation, where the spread between countries was large, despite the fact that a lot of time passed. Although these results allow us to answer our research questions, we cannot argue that the penetration of the Internet helps the end consumer to purchase travel products on the Internet.

Given the weak correlation between the two MIITur and IITic indices, it became necessary to compare the performance of Asian countries regarding the relationship of their cultural heritage with the use of ICT in tourism. The correlation turned out to be strong, and when we compared 2013 to 2017, in 2013 the correlation was lower than in 2017. We assume that this is due to the improvement and multiplication of the country's cultural heritage over time, which influenced the greater attraction of tourists, including online shopping. This study has limitations, especially because it is due to the use

of aggregated data, which complicates a more detailed analysis of our results. In any case, the real observations described here give us new data on the reality of Asian tourism in the digital age.

In any case, this article contributes to the academic literature on this subject. However, the spread of ICT and the development of cultural resources in tourism can create favorable social and economic conditions for both developed and developing countries.

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Status and prestige in culturally diverse teams

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Abstract

Cultural diversity plays an important role in teams of internationally working organizations. The effectiveness of teams is directly linked to information processing and decision making and thus to the distribution of roles and the diversity of team members.

Based on three focus group discussions, group processes in culturally mixed teams are examined in order to evaluate the effects of status and prestige in this context. With the help of Pierre Bourdieu's social theory, processes of appreciation and devaluation via symbolic capital of team members will be explained and conclusions drawn for diversity management approaches in culturally mixed teams.

Keywords: Multiculturally teams, Prestige, Status, Attribution, Diversity, Habitus, Symbolic Capital

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Introduction

The aim of this paper is to examine in which way culture is related to status and prestige and furthermore have a look at the impact of such perceptions on teamwork. The analysis is based on the results of focus group discussions with master students of the Vienna University of Economics and Business Administration who have spent a semester abroad. Group dynamic processes based on status and prestige ascriptions to individual team members will be examined. The following questions will be investigated:

- Which national cultures display a higher status/prestige and what are the underlying criteria for such perceptions?
- How does this affect cooperation?

Review: Status and prestige in teams

Status and prestige determine social interaction in organizational settings and play an important role in teamwork. Group dynamic processes, especially role dynamics and diversity effects can be described using these concepts. Team members from dominant and powerful groups determine norms and communication flows, control systems and often suppress team members from marginalized groups. Dominant in this context means the exercise of influence and the possibility of controlling social operations (Hays-Thomas, 2017). This has both positive and negative effects on team performance and effectiveness.

Status and prestige are concepts based on different definitions, explanations and contexts of justification, present in different scientific disciplines and used to explain social stratification and social inequality in the social sciences.

Prestige is a traditional term that is often used in social research, both in French and in late Latin (praestigium). It refers to people and groups in connection with positions, but also to symbols, objects, organizations in the sense of social and individual recognition. The evaluation is based on social criteria that reflect historical, cultural and economic values of recognition. This also includes own evaluations, which objectively classify positions and/or symbols (e.g. awards and prizes) with the corresponding

resources (Kluth, 1957; Giesen et at., 1987), as well as subjective evaluations, which form the basis for social stratification.

Status, also coming from the Latin, describes the position, the standing, the condition, but also the state of being. Concepts of freedom and/or social participation fall into status concepts. Status reflects the appreciation of other members of society and determines, as well as prestige, the social hierarchy and points out social inequalities. Already Linton (1936) distinguishes between acquired and attributed status. Performance and behavior are juxtaposed with symbols and titles; assumptions, prejudices and stereotypes determine social status. Linton continues to differentiate according to status consistency, i.e. the fit, for example, between qualification, knowledge, title and income as well as status consistency in the sense of the contradiction between different (subjective) evaluation characteristics. Prestige is thus directly linked to status. Both concepts are united by a social understanding of what is recognized as merit in the sense of talents, achievements, abilities, resources. At the same time, stereotypes and prejudices are reproduced. These are dynamic concepts that contain different criteria of classification and are based on a "doing perspective". The process of social construction of a reality that is time- and context-dependent determines the interaction with others (Hays-Thomas, 2017).

Status and prestige influence careers, occupations, incomes and use criteria of social origin, such as schooling and resources, as well as other demographic characteristics related to age, gender, ethnicity, including skin color, religion, political and/or geographical origin or other group affiliations, such as appearance (obesity). There is a consensus within team research that the demographic characteristics of team members are always associated with status attributions (van Dijk et al., 2013) and associated stereotyping (van Dijk et al., 2017), which indirectly affect the information and decision-making perspectives in teams (Hermann and Buch, 2018). Social categorization on the basis of these characteristics follow visible and invisible characteristics, via self-categorization and social differentiation within and between groups.

This also addresses the diversity criteria used for this study. *Geographical conditions and ethnicity* determine the cultural identity characteristics of people who are difficult to influence and at the same time form the basis of attributions by others. Schemata of perception, thought and action can be found both in the cultural self-perception and in the perception of others with regard to the resources over which individuals determine and which (can) become significant in a certain context (McIntosh 1988; 1998). *Demographic characteristics* as part of individual identity and group identity refer to habitual imprints in culturally shaped structures. Individuals and groups act within these structures

and enable statements about power structures in general, but also about Ingroup-Outgroup-effects in the sense of inclusion and exclusion.

Pierre Bourdieu's social theory, which is based on the primacy of the relations between the possibilities in the body of the actors and the structure of the situation, is chosen as the theoretical framework according to the conceptual localizations (Bourdieu, 1997; 1998). In Bourdieu's work, action is defined by the concept of habitus according to his acquired dispositions, whereby feelings, categorization, and classification are also explained as the basis of the concepts of status and prestige (Hermann, 2004). Through habitus it becomes possible to describe invisible barriers and obstacles, especially in relation to prestige, where privileges of privileged persons are not recognized and there is a lack of understanding that privileges are responsible for how others are perceived.

Bourdieu uses the term capital, which exists in an objectified and incorporated form, to explain privileges and status. For him, the essential types of capital are economic, social and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1983). Economic capital underlies the other types of capital and can be explained by property rights and/or immediately available financial resources. Cultural capital differs according to incorporated, such as education, and institutionalized cultural capital, reflected in educational degrees and titles. Social capital encompasses the quantity and quality of social relationships. The structure of the distribution of capital depends on the immanent structure of the respective society and corresponds to social constraints. These different types of capital explain classifications within social space, social fields and actors. Class affiliation and evaluation depend on the volume and composition of capital and are reflected in a symbolic evaluation. Symbolic capital as the result of symbolic evaluation is composed of perception categories of social esteem (Bourdieu, 1998). The recognition and legitimacy of symbolic capital are reflected in social values and norms and their recognition by the actors. It is characterized by inertia based on the production and reproduction of the construction of difference. When cultural differences are considered, several criteria come into play, including their different forms of interaction. Difference reinforcements are made through attributions based on language, performance understanding and gender. Within diversity research, intersectional approaches address this problem of overlap, reinforcement and symbolic representation (Winker and Degele, 2010; Hermann and Buch, 2018).

In teamwork, these mechanisms can be explained through conflicts and role assignments. Characteristics ascribed to individuals on the basis of their demographic group affiliation and definitions of what is typical, normal and desirable can be found, among other things, in ethnocentric behavior. Based on the theory of attribution, people are assigned to culturally influenced personality

traits and behaviors (Bennett, 1986; Hermann and Buch, 2018). Particularly marginalized groups are attributed successes and failures in team cooperation and justified by causal conclusions according to assumptions of rationality. This serves above all to protect one's own self-esteem (Hays-Thomas, 2017).

Method

For data collection, focus group discussions have been held in May 2019 with participants of a German-language master's program at an Austrian university →he perspective of German-speaking young adults (between 21 and 29 years) who are now attending a Master's program after a Bachelor's degree and work-life experience has been evaluated. All participants have grown up in the German or Austrian culture, have spent a semester abroad and reflect on their experiences abroad in multicultural teams. The host countries included (in alphabetical order) Australia, China, India, Norway, Russia, Sweden, South Korea, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK) and United States of America (USA).

Data is generated through the interactions of the group members. The topic is determined by the research interest of the scientists who initiate the discussions between the participants. In focus groups, specific experiences and knowledge should be communicated as authentically as possible and discussions should be stimulated. The advantage over interviews lies in the reduction of the risk of distortions due to response behavior in the sense of social desirability. There is an assumption that psychological barriers are overcome through joint conversation and that collective attitudes, values and opinions are thus discussed (Kampf, 2019; Lamnek, 2005; Loos and Schäffer, 2001; Mayring, 2002).

The composition of the groups should be as homogeneous as possible, with people who have comparable backgrounds and experiences (Mayring, 2002). The participants showed similarities in age, educational background, cultural background and length of their stay abroad. The survey was explorative in nature. By deliberately keeping questions open, the participants were able to set their own priorities in order to tell about their experiences in working together in multicultural teams in culturally diverse contexts. Similar cultural groups (Hofstede at al., 2010) were taken into account in the composition of the group. A focus group consisted of participants who had gained their experience abroad in Norway and Sweden, a second group of students who had spent time abroad in Russia, South Korea, India and China and a third focus group who worked in the USA, Australia and the UK. For the transcriptions, the content was important for the evaluation, so that the statements were

largely adapted to standard High German (Höld, 2009). For relevant findings, the qualitative content analysis according to Mayring (2010) was used.

Results

The following phenomena help to answer the questions posed in the beginning. Three phenomena that deal with ethnic belonging are selected: Depersonalization, generalizations, influence of context. The link to status and prestige will be established and explained afterwards.

- <u>Depersonalization:</u>

Throughout the analysis it was striking that the participants did not label/call their team members by their proper names, but attributed them to their cultural background.

Example 1: Categorization

"Norway, Germany, China, - so India, China, Malaysia, Australia not, Germany, Norway [...] Whether now Philippines, Indonesia and then Malaysia, China, Japan, so I do not know now optically all differences. Yes, they were in my team." (TN Australia)

Example 2: Language

"[...] Asian roots, probably Canadian, who spoke such a bad English and so fast that you didn't understand what she said. She also once expressed criticism and there it was more like that, all looked at each other - what does she say now? - and I always found it a bit embarrassing. So that was a reaction now. [...] Such a feeling of agitation, malaise, shame perhaps." (TN USA)

Example 3: Work and Performance

"With the Indian it was like this…he actually managed everything shortly before deadlines always - he always arrived shortly before a deadline with the task which he should have finished for some time already ... And that was two or three times and at some point I could not bear it any more and I said "you can't be serious, you want to fuck with me here, you're late, you're not coming at all, whatever. [...] Well, the barrel was really full I have to say." (TN USA)

- <u>Generalization: attribution of assumed knowledge about the respective culture (subgroup formation)</u>

Reasons for the behavior of the group members were given on the basis of cultural attributions, general statements were made about cultural stereotypes in order to explain certain actions within the team.

Example 1: Categorization

"With the Americans I would rather say 'on my own', so they like to talk and there have partly been simple questions or not too complex answers. [...] also sometimes such a quick saying called in [...] The ("Asians" - note. by the author) were rather reserved, did not want to talk or not necessarily to discuss." (TN USA)

Example 2: Language

"The ("Chinese" - note by the author) generally have little or no involvement in the cooperation and speak very quietly. For me this it difficult, then you can't understand some of them acoustically, and you'd like to know what they have to say about the topic. [...] that is because qualitative discussion of content is rather not part of their proper culture." (TN UK)

Example 3: Work and Performance

"The Russians themselves have often taken the floor, and in some situations a certain urge for recognition was visible. [...] Yes, I think - as far as I'm concerned, it felt as if they were trying to make up for their inactivity they're doing something like that. So, talk a lot, but then do little. [...] Well, they really don't do anything. [...] I noticed that especially with men." (TN Russia)

Example 4: Gender Relations

"Women have practically no chance of education in India." (TN India)

- Influence of context: Strengthening cultural attributions

The context is crucial for the development of teamwork. The effectiveness of multicultural teams depends very much on the diverse mindset of the organization and the anchoring in the respective structures (Hermann and Erten 2018). The mindset of how to work and perform in the team reveals group-dynamic processes. The organizational environment also has an effect on teamwork.

Example 1: Work and performance: free riders in the team

"Well, it was very autocratic with us [...] was really bad. Because actually there was a bit of resentment towards the Chinese colleagues. [...] Obviously the team composition was organized in a way that each Chinese group had to work with one European collegue. That was already very obvious. And in general the tasks were very - how should one say - very formal. So you always had such a group diary that you had to fill in and hand in every week. In the end I did three group work, two of them completely by myself. [...]You feel bad. [...] and they know it too. But the whole

educational system in England is based on the fact that people buy themselves for more or less expensive money the right to participate and yes, there is a bit of hatred and displeasure." (TN UK)

Example 2: Work and performance: Self-promoters in a team

"And the [Indians, note.] just know they go out of college and have top jobs. [...] and they just wanted to present themselves and get ahead." (TN India)

Example 3: Work and Performance: Value System and Behavior

"There, collectivism is always preached in the university or at school and this leads to [...] extreme conformity. This means that hypotheses or statements [...] are rarely challenged. That is, one is always anxious to have a great harmony [...] and for me as a European, where critical thinking is encouraged [...] it was a bit vulnerable that no one was ever interested in a lively discussion. [...] and that there is homogeneity there. [...] I then often tried to challenge generalist statements once again [...] I actually always felt quite comfortable with it, because I think that our value system and freedom somehow unfolded a bit more than the Chinese." (TN China)

Example 4: Chaos and lack of organization: Stress Factors

"Yes, I mean there are almost 30 million people living in Shanghai. Chaos is programmed and I think it's a common thread running through the whole city. The city tries to organize extremely much, to take away the people's thinking a bit. However, there is, because maybe people have never learned it and China has a subway for a few years or this infrastructure and many people have not grown up with this new prosperity. There are mostly many - how can you say - offshoots and they don't stick to this norm and yes it's just not nice because, that's not as advanced as in South Korea. This means that China still has an extremely great need for optimization when it comes to following standards that the state has created. And this chaos was also involved in the university, so sometimes events were very badly organized, they were almost not made public. This means that a certain stress factor was also produced, because the university was very poor in communicating, which also affected the exchange students. I think it's going to be a long process – there is still a long way to go until the organization in China is similar to the one in the German-speaking area." (TN China)

Example 5: Chaos and lack of organization: Responsibility

"Yes, in India, all clichés about chaos are true, it was chaos everywhere. Even though it was bureaucratic - I don't know how much more bureaucracy India still could bear, but there was still chaos there. If you asked for something and the office is responsible for it, they just don't know. So chaos everywhere." (TN India)

In connection with status and prestige, certain cultural areas (countries) are upgraded, but also devaluated. Statements about this mostly are made in connection with symbolic evaluations. If such criteria that influence symbolic capital are highly valued in one's own culture, find themselves in the guest culture and in team cooperation, then corresponding characteristics and behaviors are also attributed to the different team members. Capital accumulation occurs.

<u>Upgrading - status in the team</u>

Example 1: Helpfulness and openness (social capital)

"Because the Americans are actually a little bit opposite to our behavior, so they are always very open and very helpful." (TN Australia)

Example 2: Elite, reliability (cultural and economic capital)

"Well, I was in Norway without any expectations about groups. But they were already - I had the feeling – they are pulling together more than is often the case in our culture. That means we had to do relatively much [...], it was actually immediately organized when we met. It was never a problem that someone came too late, everyone was there, everyone was prepared. But now I don't know if it's up to Norwegians, or if it's because it was a university for which Norwegians at least pay quite a lot of money and which has a pretty good reputation in Norway and which therefore I say are a bit more focused on it. [...] it's already noticed that the non-Norwegians, the Norwegians, were the ones who let it slide a bit." (TN Norway)

Example 3: Productive Dealing with Critique (Cultural Capital)

"Sweden, also very often – they revealed their opinions, even if it was contradictory [...]. So a completely different discussion culture and also that you just discuss more [...] and you really had to prepare yourself in order to be able to participate [...] in order to discuss the topic, so to speak we sat at home and then we only discussed there and - so for me it was already new that I play such an active role, but I actually liked it a lot.". "So I had the feeling that I was more active than here in the lecture - clearly. Simply because you said much more, it didn't matter that there was

something wrong. Nobody really cared about it." I always perceived that as harmonious [...] it was more like working together than really criticizing. So because most of it was already under a lot of time pressure and then you just have to see that you can finish it. Otherwise I had the feeling that most people were very similar. Where to be fair, I've worked with Norwegians, with people from Austria and Eastern Europe, Romania, and it turned out that they tick relatively similar." (TN Sweden)

<u>Downgrading - status in the team</u>

Example 1: Division of labor and language (cultural capital)

"That is, I am often prefering of being assigned, of being well mixed and of getting together with other people. But then I also understand when you have people in it - and that was often my impression with many Asians - who stay out because they don't speak the language so well. Where you have to distribute all the work among fewer people, that's no fun either." (TN USA)

Example 2: Waste (economic and social capital)

"Waste is a big issue in China. What was particularly striking, that it was a communist-socialist country. However, status symbols in the form of beautiful cars, watches, and perhaps designer textiles play a crucial role in society, and I found that to be somehow an indicator of real waste." "I've always asked the question of efficiency and why and for what one has to spend hundreds or thousands of euros in a club or on textiles, while the majority of Chinese don't have this privilege. I would have simply felt uncomfortable personally." (TN China)

Example 3: Structural devaluation (cultural and symbolic capital)

"Everyone in the group has to include an Asian, because otherwise it won't work for them anyway" or - so it was already very openly discriminating. But he [professor - note. author] was very open about his position, and then nobody really said anything about it." (TN Australia)
"Asian bashing, I'll call it." (TN UK)

Depersonalization, generalization and contextual reinforcement have a direct impact on the status of team members. Different types of capital can initiate different processes. It becomes clear in the evaluation of cultural capital. Status and prestige thus have a direct effect on team cooperation.

Example 1: Negative effects on the team: subgroup formation

"That was my first impression now - somehow so badly integrated, they couldn't speak English so well now. So you still heard the accent extremely and I think they always spent their time with their Chinese friends - I found that a bit frightening. So a pity, because you would like to talk to them." (TN USA)

"But in Asian cultures, I would say that it occurs frequently, [AGREEMENT of the other focus group participants], even in courses, when the proportion of Asians is very high and there are certain divisions in the group." (TN Australia)

Example 2: Positive effects on the team: atmosphere

"[...] who were from the United States. Because that's just somehow a much closer relationship and much more participative and somehow a more pleasant atmosphere." (TN South Korea)

Example 3: Positive effects on the team: communication

"[...] who themselves studied and taught in the USA have spoken much better English. That means it was much more fluent and the communication was much more fluent." (TN South Korea)

Example 4: Negative effects on the team: communication

"I tried it at first, but then - so one of them could hardly speak English, never spoke. Always just wrote about WeChat in Chinese and then I had to translate so I could understand. And then there was another mediator who got involved and then my anger hit him." (TN UK)

Ultimately, teamwork works on the individual level and triggers reflection processes, especially when teamwork works well.

Example 1: Gender Relations

"So for me the biggest influence was the equal treatment of man and woman, which shaped me and impressed me. And this too - I call it the calmness of the Swedes." "Because the men work part-time more often or both work part-time and raise the children and stuff like that. [...] so maybe it's connected with their culture, too, of course, but I think it's a lot of politics that's driving that up there. Because I think in order to go part-time and still have enough

money you need someone to pay for it. So I think they reinvest a lot. But I definitely find it very interesting. What I noticed at the university was that 50 percent of the professors were female and 50 percent male." Let's put it this way. I would say that they are simply further ahead with gender equality". (TN Sweden)

Example 2: Performance orientation

"I thought they were a little more willing to work than it is here, I'll say. So I always [...] noticed when they said you had to do this and the paper and the presentation and everyone else wrote it down and started the next day. So it was different. [...] So with me people were already more focused on performance. [...] So what I noticed was that there weren't those freeriders." (TN Norway)

Example 3: Request

"For me it was like this, interactions that were demanded [...].shaped me a little bit or made me really get involved." (TN Sweden)

But also the protection of one's own self-esteem came up during the discussions. Above all, pity as a form of ethnocentric behavior and was repeatedly expressed (Bennett, 1986).

Example 1: "Indians

"Well, I showed compassion."

"So the feeling was compassion." (TN Russia: Dealing with "the Indians" in Russia, devaluation by system)

Example 2: "Korean"

"The Koreans were completely silent [...] that they did not speak English so well" [...] Sorry" (TN Korea)

Example 3: "Chinese"

"Asians are just more introverted. [...] Acceptance of course, so if ... the culture is in the country, then you adapt to it. But the less you were able to repeatedly say in the evaluation and feedback talks that you would have liked more interactions. [...] Whether they do that remains doubtful, [...] I think such a change is extremely difficult and I at least doubt that something will change." (TN China)

Discussion

In team collaboration it becomes clear that in multicultural teams attributions and categorizations of cultural stereotypes as culturally shared understandings of assumed typical traits in conjunction with specific value judgements arise as both descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes. These represent everyday orientations and are highly resistant to change. Borders are drawn via ethnic, national and geographical affiliations. The starting point is always self-perception within a certain cultural area. The recognition of cultural differences is the basis for the assessment of other team members and is reflected in patterns of perception, thought and action. It becomes clear that the more similar a culture is, the more positive status and prestigeous ascriptions take place. The larger the differences are, the lower the status of the team member according to assessments.

The aim of this paper was to examine in which way culture is related to status and prestige and furthermore have a look at the impact of such perceptions on working together in teams. Two relevant questions were asked in the beginning:

- Which national cultures display a higher status/prestige and what are the underlying criteria for such perceptions?
- How does this affect cooperation?

The status and prestige characteristics identified in team cooperation were *willingness to perform, commitment to work, language, reliability, criticism and discussion skills, but also organisation, helpfulness and reliability as well as gender relations.* The focus group participants set their own standards for these criteria. An upgrading of the status came into effect when these criteria particularly corresponded to the own value standards, as it was the case in the Nordic countries. But also individual criteria such as command of language or openness and reliability were judged as positive symbolic capital - Nordic countries, USA. Devaluation took place when one's own expectations of the above criteria were not fulfilled. This affected both the context - UK, Australia, Russia, India, China - and the respective team members - "Chinese, Koreans, Russians, Indians". Ethnocentric behavior was also demonstrated by an individual's psychological bias towards foreign groups, for example in the positioning of compassion, which is a possible strategy for maintaining habitual security (Bourdieu, 1998).

To sum up, the following process is evident in the collaboration in multicultural teams:

Stage 1: Asymmetric relationships in the team structure

It turns out that ethnicity and geographical allocation are clear categories of inequality that determine the orientation scheme, classification and basic differentiation principles in teams. The assignment of the actors to subgroups means an abolition of individuality. Cultural attributions are related to team cooperation on the basis of the respective current situation in the work context. This construction of inequality, in the sense of a doing perspective, serves as a principle of social practice, the production of habitual security. Processes of drawing differences are dynamic and strongly dependent on the context.

Stage 2: Unequal perception of symbolic capital

Symbolic capital is decisive for the team structure and in particular for the distribution of roles. Symbolic capital is, among other things, accumulated through cultural attributions of language, performance and work attitude (cultural capital),. Freedom and self-determination, as socially highly valued attributes among the focus group participants. Positive symbolic capital is shown by the agreement and "admiration" for the status characteristics of the other team members (willingness to perform, language skills, gender relation). Negative symbolic capital arises through status devaluation when there are contradictions to one's own cultural imprint (lack of language skills, lack of performance and work input as expression of cultural capital, waste in the sense of the use of economic capital and thus loss of trust as lacking social capital). Symbolic capital determines the respective individual status and prestige in the team and contributes to an asymmetrical distribution of negotiation resources. Characteristic for this is also "cultural blindness".

Stage 3: Compulsory Consistency and Reproduction of Social Structures

The stability of the dispositions of the habitus is achieved by the passive and active co-determination of the difference setting. This can be seen in patterns of perception and thought as well as in patterns of action. Bourdieu (1998).

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Defining 'creative' in the creative industry

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Abstract

Creative industry, which was originally called cultural industry, is becoming a hot topic in the entrepreneurship and business research in the international scope. This industry is suffering mostly from a lack of consensus in definition of what 'creative' means in the creative industry universally; and a lack of empirical studies about various aspects of creative industry. Thus, there is still misunderstanding about the concept of creative industry, and this study aims at flourishing the definition of 'creative' across cultures to provide a better-established concept. In order to reach these aims, this qualitative study will be performed in two main phases: firstly, an analysis of the existing literature to understand the concept examined; further, with some interviews to practitioners of the creative sector. As a consequence, we will try to provide some insights into the concept and to the literature.

Keywords: cultural/creative industry; cross-cultural studies; definition;

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Introduction

Creative industry, due to the increased consumption of culture and to the growing interest of government policies, is becoming a hot topic in the entrepreneurship and business research in the international scope. According to the existing literature, major contributions to this topic focus attention on the macro-level, while practitioners call for a deeper understanding at the micro-level (Camelo-Ordaz, Fernández-Alles, & Ruiz-Navarro, 2012). Indeed, this industry is suffering mostly from: a) a lack of consensus in definition of what 'creative' means in the creative industry universally; and b) a lack of empirical studies about various aspects of creative industry (Chaston & Sadler-Smith, 2012; Kong, 2014). Culturalization of the market or, the other way round, marketization of the culture as the main functions of the creative industry bring more complexity to our understanding of what creative essentially means (Camelo-Ordaz, Fernández-Alles, & Ruiz-Navarro, 2012). Thus, there is still misunderstanding about the concept of creative industry, and this study aims at flourishing the definition of 'creative' across cultures (in the international scope) to provide a better-established concept. As a consequence, this paper will provide the literature with the responses to the following questions of where we are and where we should go in future studies related to the creative industry. In other words, this paper aims at defining what a creative industry is and what we should exclude from this broad category, scrutinizing the relevant literature of creative industries. Then, once we have clarified the concept, we will investigate the role of cultural values and, eventually, their impact on creative industries. In line with these assumptions, we formulate the following research questions:

RQ1: How we should define creative industries?

RQ2: Do cultural values impact on creative firms? If yes, how?

In order to achieve these goals, this qualitative studies will be performed in two phases: firstly, a literature review on the topic and further, through some interviews with practitioners of the creative industry, we will test the possible influence of cultural values.

This is a working in progress paper, so we are not able to provide all the final results yet, but our expectation is to attain a comprehensive investigation of the theme not only on the basis of vague and multiple definitions contained in papers and documents but also at the level of the company so as to be able to deepen the perceptions and implications of "creativity" in entrepreneurship.

The remainder of this study proceeds as follows: in the next section, we discuss the literature review and the methodology applied for the research; then, we show and examine the results acquired until now, based on the available data. In conclusion, we will have the discussion paragraph, including the limitations of the study.

Review

Creative industries were originally named "culture industry", as we know from the Frankfurt School of Critical Theory, based on the Marxist ideology and the critical social theory. According to Adorno and Horkheimer, the concept of culture industry has some peculiar traits: in their essay, they claim that culture produces standardized and uniform commodities created for an uncritical public. Their negative conception of culture is associated with its economic purpose: these artificial products, including film, music and magazines, have the sole objective to gain money (Adorno & Horkheimer, 1944).

The discourse around culture industries, due to the specific historical and political context (Garnham, 2005), slowly shifted to the "creative industries": this change is not only a mere matter of label, but it deals with both theoretical and policy stakes (Garnham, 2005; Pratt, 2005). A crucial moment occurred in 1997, when the UK government replaced the previous notion of culture industry with the term "creative industry", a political construct (Pratt, 2005) coined when the newly elected British Labour government of Tony Blair established a Creative Industries Task Force (CITF) located within the new Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS). This displacing's action is due to the fact that the new administration wanted to take distances from the previous administration's work (Pratt, 2005). The creative industry's definition is quite recent: it arises in the 1990s mostly as a policy issue, since creativity is widely considered as a driver of economic change and growth. (Garnham, 2005; Flew & Cunningham, 2010) Indeed, in 1998, 1.4 million of people were employed in this sector in the UK. Thereafter, the original definition of the DCMS has not changed a lot, even if it has been criticized for being too narrow or too arbitrary (Potts, Cunningham, Hartley, & Ormerod, 2008). Nowadays, moreover, this classification seems to be anachronistic because it is even harder to define the type of industrial activity based on the materials' inputs and outputs. (Potts, Cunningham, Hartley, & Ormerod, 2008). Once this terminology has spread, there have been problems related to its definition (Pratt, 2005; Potts, Cunningham, Hartley, & Ormerod, 2008) due to the lack of consensus among academic and policymakers concerning which subsector should be integrated into the creative industries. This issue stems from the disagreement of what is creative in various international contexts. The right question to ask is what culture is: while experts agree about the inclusion of fine art, classical music and film, they doubt about tourism, computer games or sport. It is clear until now that there is no universal definition and that this concept is really context-dependent: "the answer must be locally, culturally and politically defined" (Pratt, 2005, p. 7). Therefore, it would be more appropriate to have different policy across countries, since the concept of what is creative may differ among nations. (Pratt, 2005).

As Garnham points out, the creative industries discourse "assumes that we already know, and thus can take for granted, what the creative industries are, why they are important and thus merit supporting policy initiatives" (Garnham, 2005, p. 16) but this question is still controversial. Looking at the existing literature, we have four main variants of the creative industries debate. In the United States scenario, culture and arts are divided from entertainment and copyrights industries; in the European model, the term "cultural industries" is generally preferred to that of creative industries. Within the Asian approach, there is a strong emphasis on national culture while in developing countries, the cultural heritage maintenance, the poverty alleviation and the provision of basic infrastructures slowed the development of creative industries (Flew & Cunningham, 2010). Particularly, in agreement with the Department of Culture, Media and Sport, the creative industries classification include several subsectors such as music, arts and crafts, film, television, electronic publishing and software (Kong, 2014): nevertheless, it has been disputed for the exclusion of heritage, entertainment and tourism. Additionally, even if we are relatively conscious of the economic benefits of creative industries, since there are not a coherent definition and classification and because of the disagreement over the appropriate subsectors to include, it is challenging to gather data on the job creation and the performance of creative industries' (Kong, 2014).

Further, another critical issue in this debate relies on the nexus between culture and economic benefits: the mass distribution and the commodification of culture could easily entail a significant loss of originality of artistic products. This particular attention to the financial traits of the creative industries is quite worrying. It can easily be found in the definition of the DCMS, according to which creative industries are "those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have the potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property" (Department of Culture, Media and Sport, 1998). A possible solution proposed by Kong could be a return on the concept of "cultural industries", purified from the monetary and economic perspective. On the other side, Potts et al. suggest to consider creative industries as "the set of economic activities that involve the creation and maintenance of social networks and the generation of value through production and consumption of network-valorized choices in these networks" (Potts, Cunningham, Hartley , & Ormerod, 2008, p. 10). Although there is still a focus on the economic aspects, it is for the first time theorized a creative industry's definition built on a new market-based definition. In other words, creative industries are "better defined as a class of markets [..] characterized in both supply and demand as (complex) social networks" (Potts, Cunningham, Hartley, & Ormerod, 2008, p. 18)

Method

In order to investigate the possible role of cultural values and their impact on the concept of creative industries, we elaborated some interviews with practitioners of the creative industries. This research is a working progress paper, so until now, we have not collected all the data that we need. The interviewed sample includes four creative industries from the Campania Region in the South of Italy. Following, there are the anonymous interviews.

Firm a

The entrepreneur highlighted a strong family character of the company, which, despite being very structured in the processes, has shown a high degree of flexibility, a fundamental resource for dealing with periods of economic crisis. The cultural values of the context strongly influence the corporate culture. The structure of the company reflects the characteristics of the Italian family culture, although the company manages to combine tradition and innovation thanks to its strong orientation towards creativity. Creativity is undoubtedly the key to the competitiveness of the company that is satisfied with the position achieved, although it continues to look ahead to opportunities for expansion both in the domestic market and on the foreign market. The interviewee defines his firm as cultural enterprise, for its deep roots in the context of origin of which it expresses the culture, and because of the type of positioning that requires a strong protection of identity.

Firm b

The entrepreneur defines herself as a creative entrepreneur and strongly oriented towards Innovation; she develops the ideas of the new lines of jewellery and objects that are then designed by professionals and created in laboratories that have been working in partnership with her for over twenty years. Sharing is a fundamental value in the company; the creative process is developed through the comparison with employees, to whom the new idea is presented and who contribute with their ideas and insights to the realization of the final product. The creative process originates within the company, not looking only at competitors' strategy, but rather at the market, the trend of economic and political phenomena, to be ready for any changes in the market. The collections are the result of an in-depth research process that always tries to combine classicism, understood as the historic-cultural origins of the territory, and modernity in shapes, materials and colours.

The entrepreneur defines her creative enterprise as a cultural enterprise. Culture, also understood as classical education, is at the base of the collections and the values of the culture of Campania such as

a strong orientation towards relationships, the propensity to generate new ideas, the propensity to hospitality, dynamism and strong flexibility.

Firm c

The entrepreneur calls herself a creative leader: she makes the decisions, but the company is seen as a "circle" or an "elastic" because she considers the employees not as posts on different levels, but as extensions.   It is a company with a strong innovative character as the entrepreneur decides not to set up ad hoc shops, but create windows (one of which is now very important in the Amalfi Coast) in order to make its product unique and can always change place. For her, windows are something different that allows the brand to "travel the world" making the product not so recognizable because "it is in a certain place", but because its design and its colours are key features. Another innovation concerns the turnover of the products and therefore every 3-4 months proposes new products because "in fashion there is no more seasonality". For her, luxury is not a super expensive product, but a particular product. As far as the context is concerned, in her opinion, the territory is significant: it is the inspiration for her models. Many of her creations are "unique" and refer to the traditional elements that characterize the Campania Region and in particular, Naples. The product must give many sensations that must touch almost all the senses, so the entrepreneur emphasizes the extreme care for the choice of materials.

Despite her "overseas" ideas and international approach, she is still tied to the territory as she is inspired by it in the creation of her products. According to her, Italy - especially the Campania Region - being rich in works of art, encourages creativity which she defines as something innate in the Neapolitan people.

Firm d

The company is quite traditional and does not differ much from other companies operating in the same sector. It is innovative only for a part of the production that is the sewing of some fabrics that - if made individually - are sewn by hand. It gives an added value that makes the product in these cases unique compared to others. This company is a traditional family firm operating in the Southern part of Italy, with a low propensity to risk: the capital is made available by the entrepreneur, and it has not benefited from loans or other financial instruments. The company is not proactive but chooses to rely instead on data as secure as possible to change its production quantity according to customer requirements. The entrepreneur is not oriented towards internationalization, but only towards cooperation with neighbouring regions. This modus operando is typical of many small businesses in

Campania, which consider expansion to markets other than domestic only as a last step after having reached a good position at regional and then national level. Further, the company is affected by culture at the time of the decision of the sale price. Knowing the typical attitude of some companies operating in the same environment, the entrepreneur chooses to define the highest price in such a way that it can then make it more flexible at the time of bargaining.

Results

The indeterminacy of the topic that we propose is the starting point of our analysis, which aims at giving more clarity and concreteness to the meaning of 'creative' in the creative industry. The case study analyzed allow us to investigate in-depth our research questions, particularly the second one about the potential role of culture in the creative industries. The results obtained from these interviews provide us with some interesting insights about the role of culture in the creative industries but also relating to how practitioners of creative industries perceive the term "creative". Looking at the entrepreneur's interview of firm B, indeed, she states that her creative enterprise is a cultural firm: she uses and perceives both the term cultural and creative as synonymous, with no peculiar differences among them. This interchangeability seems to be totally in contrast with what was previously emphasized to be valid for researchers and policymakers. Moreover, it would completely eliminate all the discourse around the turn from culture industry to creative industry. As a matter of fact, however, the entrepreneur of firm b uses the term culture to refer to cultural values such as orientation towards relationships, the propensity to generate new ideas, the propensity to hospitality, dynamism and strong flexibility. All of them are considered as fundamental elements for her creations. Likewise, she defines herself as a creative entrepreneur for two reasons: on one side related to the product and on the other because of the creative process developed through the collaboration with the employees and the market analysis. In line with firm b, the entrepreneur of firm a refers to his organization as a culture enterprise since cultural values strongly affect the corporate culture: deep roots in the context which impact on the firm's structure, reflecting the typical traits of the Italian family culture. Here, the orientation toward creativity, as a balanced mix of tradition and Innovation, is meant to be a key resource of competitiveness. Traditions and folklore are essential also for the "creative leader" of firm c, from which she takes inspiration for her products: again, the concept of creative and culture are strictly tied and there seem to be no different perception among managers. In agreement with the statements of firm c, the entrepreneur of firm d considers his organization as a traditional family firm operating in the Southern part of Italy, with a low propensity to risk. Hither, the company is affected by culture in the daily management and the decision of sale price.

Discussion

This research aims at a deeper understanding of "creative industry", analyzing on one side the existing literature and on the other the practitioners' perception through some interviews. Since it is a working in progress paper, we do not have gathered all the data yet to implement the analysis, but we have only a few that let us do some final considerations. Looking at the literature, even if for decades policymakers and researchers have tried to clarify the concept of "creative industry" and the turn from "culture" to "creative", there is still no consensus about which category should be included or not. What is quite clear is that either the culture or the creative enterprise have great economic returns. As underlined by several authors, it is not only a concern of label, instead of a policy stake that should be adequately supported given that it is a driver of the national economic growth. Regarding the interviews collected in the creative sector of Campania Region, in the South of Italy, it has been clearly highlighted how the national culture influence the organizational structure, business management, decision-making process and in some cases traditions and folklore impact on the creative process and product. Moreover, even if these practitioners belong to the creative sector, they have no clear idea about the differences of "culture firm" and "creative firm", using in the interviews both the terms similarly.

Since it is a qualitative analysis, it is not based on many observations. In our opinion, an exploratory analysis in this sense is better suited to be developed through qualitative methodologies so as not to lose important information that can clarify a relatively young topic. At the same time, another limitation is the lack of documents related to the "cultural and creative industry" that can add new information to our analysis. In this sense, future research will certainly benefit from the latter and from this paper in order to implement the research.

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Beyond Categorization? – A review of identity research in intercultural management and expatriation studies

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Abstract:

This article is to address how alternative scientific paradigms can contribute to a richer understanding of the notion of identity in the field of intercultural management and expatriation studies. More specifically the author addresses the question of how alternative paradigms allow to account for increasingly complex and volatile individual identity narratives in situations of professional mobility such as expatriation. With a growing intensity and reach of workers' international mobility, boundaries such as home and host countries get blurred. And in times where international talent is scarce, employers will need to deepen their knowledge on how individuals and potential employees make meaning of their mobility, beyond the organisational setting, how they narrate themselves whilst pursuing international professional pathways.

Keywords: adjustment, constructionist, emic, global mobility, identity

Biographical notes:

Kerstin is a PhD candidate at Copenhagen Business School and part of the EU funded Horizon2020 project "Global Mobility of Employees". Her research interests comprise global mobility, identity strategies, interactions in highly diverse teams and networks, as well as multilateral relations in Europe. She has published academic articles in peer-reviewed journals and book chapters in the fields of intercultural management, social-psychology and diplomacy. She works and writes in French, German and English. For nearly 15 years Kerstin has worked as a management consultant for private and public sector organizations in Europe and the USA. Kerstin holds a Master in Intercultural Management from Paris Dauphine University in France, a Master of Arts in International Business from Rennes Business School in France.

"Identity is not a distinct trait, or even a collection of traits possessed by an individual.

It is the self as reflexively understood by the person."

(Giddens 1991: 53)

INTRODUCTION and CONTEXT

Traditionally, cross-cultural research on adjustment in international or multicultural settings has mainly addressed questions of causal relationships of bridging cultural distance between so-called 'home country' and 'host country' cultures on the one side, and expatriation success and performance on the other. This perspective is motivated through an instrumental, organizational, employers' perspective, which aims at measuring states of identification in situations of mobility. It answers question such as: Why do some expatriates underperform during their mission abroad? What hinders spouses of identifying with their role as expatriate spouse in a foreign country? Why do some leave the organization upon their return (repatriation) to the point of departure? The first part of the review shows that individual identity in expatriation studies is frequently comprehended from a psychological perspective, which understands the individual as a rather stable entity with specific identity traits. From this perspective it is assumed that expatriates merely identify with their 'home country culture', or potentially with the home and host country cultures. However, contextual factors or other categories of identification are rarely accounted for.

The author reviews recent alternative perspectives on individual and collective identities of internationally mobile professionals, which leverage constructivist and social interactionist approaches in the fields of intercultural management and critical management studies. As some of the empirical research studies illustrate, national identity tends to change or even lose its meanings for individuals, who construct and continuously transform their sense of identity, according to situations, places and personal interests. The perspectives summarised in section two have further in common, that they combine socio-anthropological methods of inquiry with an interpretive, emic approach of data analysis. This means that they aim to grasp the social actors' experiences and sense making processes. These studies answer questions such: How do individual identity narratives integrate new professional challenges such as international migration and professional mobility? What is the individual's role and the degree of agency that an individual, i.e. a social actor, possesses with regards to creating and transforming personal identity? How do social interactions and changes in context and relationships affect feelings of belonging and identity construction?

Scholars in the field of organisation and management studies such as Weick (2001) or Briscoe and Hall (2006) stated already some time ago that not only national borders, but also organisational boundaries have become "more permeable, more fluid, more dynamic, and less distinct" (Weick, 2001: 207). Sociologists like Urry and colleagues (Sheller & Urry, 2006; Urry 2007) consider that growing mobilities and changing mobility patterns have a significant impact on social relations, as well as on the way researchers address empirical studies. They support the demand for a 'mobilities turn' in social sciences, which explores epistemological changes in order to account for these transformations. Intensifying international labour mobility as well as increasingly complex and volatile global networks and relations do not only have implications for institutional cultures and identities (Pratt, Schultz, Ashforth, & Ravasi 2016), but they likewise affect individual identity narratives. In today's context of globalisation and increasing migrations, individual's identity complexity increases, and feelings of belonging are becoming less exclusive, multi-scalar and diffuse (Blunt & Dowling, 2006).

Within this context, structuralist conceptualisations of individual identities have been questioned, especially when it comes to the empirical investigation of individual identity over time (Woodward, 1997; Brubaker and Cooper 2000; Anthias, 2002, 2018; Ghorashi, 2004). Brubaker and Cooper (2000) state that "social sciences and humanities have surrendered to the word 'identity'". They underline the ambiguity and multidimensionality of the term. Likewise, Anthias (2002) argues that "identity has a tendency to function as a disabling concept that limits the focus and moves the analyst away from context, meaning and praxis." (2002: 493). Nonetheless, she encourages the use of the concept of 'belonging', rather than identity, as it appears to be more appropriate for empirical studies. She pleads to use the notion of narratives of location and positionality as analytical device. As a result of their research Anthias (2002) and Ghorashi (2004) affirm that belonging can be trans-locational and that a person can identify with multiple national, cultural or ethnic identities at the same time, as already supported by Woodward (1997).

This perspective is shared by complexity theorists, for whom the ubiquity of information, cross-border relationships and global networks accelerate the dissemination of cultures and values and nurture feelings of multiple belongings beyond nation states or local bonds (Axelrod and Cohen, 2000; Morin, 2008; Byrne and Callaghan, 2013). Moreover, multiple identifications and belonging are recognized in contemporary discussions in the stream of human resource development (Ibarra and Obodaru, 2016; Black, Warhurst and Corlett, 2018) and in diversity and migration studies (Yuval-Davis, 2011). Furthermore, inter-relational and social network aspects of organizational structures seem to be most relevant to questions of organizational culture as well as to developmental aspects of individual identity and sense-making processes in global work settings. According to Chanlat (1990) "representations of the individual have evolved from an individual squeezed by the collective towards

an individual participating in the construction and the deconstruction of his own reality, being at the same time a subject in action and actor of his own historicity."

It is worth noting that intercultural management scholars have defended for a long time the need for a more pluralistic and organic conception of culture both, in organizations and on a micro-sociological level (Dupuis, 1990; Chanlat 1990; Gertsen & Soederberg, 1995; Davel, Dupuis Chanlat, 2008; Gertsen, Soederberg and Zoelner, 2012; Chanlat and Pierre, 2018). Already more than two decades ago Gertsen and Soederberg emphasized that "the idea of one coherent and uniform culture within the boundaries of the nation seems by now inadequate." They state that "instead we must perceive cultures as dynamic, marked by continual changes and contradictions. And consequently, we must be aware that people have a plurality of different perceptions and strategies within the framework of the nation" (1995: 7).

In the following sections this paper attempts to review research from different paradigmatic positions on the effect of international mobility on individual identities and identity narratives. Whilst the first section illustrates the state of the art of the positivist paradigm in expatriate adjustment literature, the second section of this paper explores constructivist, interpretive perspectives. In the discussion part the author brings in further paradigmatic stances, in order to encourage future problematizations of contemporary identity conceptualisations in the context of global mobility research.

1. Structuralist conceptualisation of identity in expatriation literature

Psychologically grounded positions in expatriate adjustment research focus on the individual and they understand the individual as an entity, whose behaviours and attitudes are affected by psychological states, which are rather isolated from the context and from social interactions. From a psychological perspective a person's self-concept embraces intra-personal aspects of the self, including values and beliefs, preferences and habits, traits and aptitudes, that makes the individual feel distinct from others (Erikson, 1968; Marcia 1991; Schwartz et al. 2010). Expatriate adjustment research leverages acculturation theory (Berry 1997) and theories on psychological stress and individual coping (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). The most accepted models focus on psychological adjustment, which is understood as the degree of psychological comfort, well-being and satisfaction, the ability to manage anxiety and ensure social functioning in unknown socio-cultural environments (Berry et al. 1992; Black, Mendenhall, Oddou, 1991; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward et al. 2001).

Within this positivist paradigm cultural adjustment is measurable through established and validated scales and it is understood as a function of cultural distance and psychological coping strategies. Adjustment is frequently modelled by opposing the host country's national culture to the individuals' values, i.e. it is assumed that the individual is determined by its home countries' culture. The declared 'ideal states' are integration, adaptation, or acceptance of difference (Berry, 1990; Bennet, 1993) and they are modelled as a linear ideal-type process. Scholars recognize that the ideal type process of adjustment is not universally valid. However, little is known on how differences in organizational context, social interactions or social roles affect the process and individual perceptions. One can further observe that the use of notions such as 'marginalization' (Berry, 1997), 'acculturation stress' or 'identity threat' (Breakwell, 1986) have fostered a rather negative connotation of intercultural experiences and its implications for identities in the context of global mobility.

Expatriate adjustment models in the International Human Resources literature are built around the cultural adjustment of expatriates to 'host country cultures' or 'host country nationals'. Thus, conceptualization of cultural identities is frequently based on the imaginative construct of national culture (Benet-Martinez et al. 2006; Berry, 2009; Lee, 2010), with little attention to belongingness to professional cultures, identifications with various forms of subcultures or even cultures of ephemeral or virtual social groups and communities that individuals might identify with. Exceptions are, for example, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) or Morris, Liu and Chiu (2015). A central underlying assumption in the expatriate adjustment literature seems to be that national cultural origin is equivalent to individual identity. Not only studies on cultural adjustment, but also research which explores questions of identity and belonging of internationally mobile individuals more broadly, use the terms 'home and host country culture' as equivalent to 'cultural identity', without further explaining or grounding conceptual suitability.

Lee (2010), for example, when studying intercultural effectiveness of individuals at the work place speaks of dual cultural identity, which according to his definition "distinguishes identity with one's culture of origin (home-identity) and identity with the host culture (host-identity)" (2010: 57). He aligns the assumptions and research design of the mentioned study, amongst others, with earlier work from Phinney and colleagues (Phinney, Jacoby and Silva, 2007), who likewise refer to home-identity and host-identity as levers for individuals' security, wellbeing and cultural adjustment. In line with Berry (1990; 2009), Benet-Martinez et al. (2005) and others, Lee (2010) admits a certain degree of integrative, cognitive complexity that goes along with what is designated as dual cultural identity. Nonetheless, he merely distinguishes four possible configurations of dual cultural identities, distinguishing "high/high, high/low, low/low; low/high" degrees of identification with the home and the host culture. This relative simplification of reality allows to identify broader patterns across groups

of individuals in various organizational settings. However, small sample sizes, random sampling, hazardous survey participation and self-reported declarations are seen as major challenges with regards to the reliability of empirical studies on identity, as Lee (2010) points out.

In another, less culturalist turn, some human resource management scholars underline the positive impact of expatriation on the individual's capacity to develop distinct coping strategies and to foster psychological resilience (Selmer, 2001; Stahl and Caligiuri 2005) during expatriation. Coping strategies put forward psychologically founded problem- and emotion-based strategies, which are more or less accessible to individuals, depending on available personal resources and environmental constraints. Stahl and Caligiuri (2005) have further opened the discussion on individual variations in coping strategies, emphasizing in line with Feldman and Thomson (1993) that "expatriates are able to draw from a potentially large repertoire of coping strategies to regulate stressful emotions, bring situational problems under their control, and be proactive agents of change" (2005: 604). They analysed the moderating effects of contextual factors such as hierarchical level in the organization, time on the assignment, and cultural distance have on expatriate adjustment and on the intention to stay. Brisco and colleagues are other scholars (Briscoe et al. 2018) who explore the positive implications of expatriation on identity. Through an emic perspective they investigate on subjective perceptions of career success and career identity of global careerists, referring to Ibarra (2003) and Pratt (2012) in the context of identity learning.

Beyond the culturalist, psychological perspective some scholars in the field of expatriation studies explored the effect of situational factors and multiple stakeholders' influences on, therewith accounting for intersubjective processes. Takeuchi (2010) defends for example the importance of mapping and analysing interdependencies between the expatriate and primary stakeholders, which he groups into 'family domain', 'host country national domain' and 'parent company domain', describing them as "those who can affect expatriates or are affected by them". To the three interfaces between the expatriate and the stakeholder groups, he applies a person-situation interactionist perspective. Liu and Shaffer (2005) did likewise include sociological considerations, in addition to the psychological perspective. They analyse the effect of social capital such as networks, opportunities (access to information and resources), motivation (trust and norm of reciprocity) and abilities (intercultural competencies and reliable task performance), stating a weak impact on adjustment, but a significant impact on expatriate performance. Only few scholars distinguish different life spheres beyond the world of work, more or less difficult to adjust to. Navas et al. (2005) distinguish between the macro sphere (governmental, political, economic environment), the sphere of daily interactions (work, social relations, family relations) and 'the prevailing world view at the host location', as stated by Hippler, Haslberger and Brewster (2017: 88). Black and colleagues distinguish between adjustment

to work, adjustment to interactions with host nationals and to the general environment (Black et al. 1991).

Despite the multitude of empirical studies, the large variety of psychologically based research approaches and conceptualisations, Hippler, Haslberger and Brewster (2017) conclude in a recent review that the "rather extensive expatriate adjustment literature is riddled with inconsistencies and contradictory findings", due to simplistic models, "failing to take into account the complexity of the topic" (2017: 98). Furthermore, it can be stated that studies that address national cultural identity are frequently transforming the abstract concept of identity into an operationalised, objectivised analytical category, by attaching attributes to the term 'identity', which position it as a static and rigid concept. Some scholars state for example that identity can 'get lost' in situations of international mobility (McNulty and Moeller, 2017; McNulty 2012; Shaffer and Harrison, 2001), 'sacrificed' and 'relinquished' (Salomaa, 2018) or 'threatened' (Petriglieri, 2011; Collins and Bertone, 2017). Others put forward the 'portable' quality of identity (Bryson and Hoge 2005; McNulty, 2012; Petriglieri, Petriglieri and Denfeld Wood, 2018). Such structuralist characterisations of identity may, involuntarily contribute to a broader societal and political discourse, which positions identity as a static entity, which leaves little agency to individual actors.

2. Constructivist, interpretivist and emic approaches towards identity

Scholars in the field of migration and critical management studies challenge the assumption that national cultures are the merely and central dimension constituting individual identities in situations of international mobility (Mutabazi and Pierre, 2008; Primecz, Romani and Sackmann, 2009; Dervin, 2012). As the following section demonstrates, some researchers in the field of intercultural management put forward the importance of accounting for insider perspectives and experiences by conducting interpretive, emic empirical research. They point out the capacity of individuals and multicultural groups to construct not only a multiplicity of meanings according to social interactions and context, but they further emphasize that the individual has agency over identity constructions. Identity is understood as continuously evolving and more or less salient to the individual, according to situations and personal interests, as well as power constellations.

In general, intercultural management scholars emphasize the need to account for interpersonal relationships, supporting an interactionist, rather than comparatist, cross-cultural approach when it comes to understanding intercultural processes (Barmeyer, 2000; 2018; Irrmann, 2008; Chevrier, 2012; Pierre, 2014). Barmeyer (2000), in reference to Kumar (1995), states that intercultural

management research, as opposed to culture comparatist or cross-cultural research, accounts for inter-action and inter-communication between individuals and amongst groups. He emphasizes the importance of going beyond a structuralist perspective by including process views. When studying multicultural teams, Pierre (2014) clarifies that the management objective in such teams shall be to evolve from co-existence to cooperation and mutual recognition, i.e. from multicultural to intercultural teams. He defines interculturality as an enhancement of human existence, enabled through the encounter of the other, as something that cannot be expressed through mathematical equations. The underlying assumption supported by these researchers is therefore the possibility of constructing not only more prolific modes of collaboration across cultures, but to encourage mutual enrichment and learning. The objective is to evolve from an antagonistic perception of national cultures towards the construction of a group culture. Thus, with regards to individual identities, Pierre (2014: 235) raises the question if and how it becomes possible for an individual to construct one's individual identity in other ways than through the opposition of national cultural differences. Dahan-Seltzer and Pierre (2010) suggest in line with Friedberg (1993) that behaviour and conduct at work are linked back to two main dimensions: to the individuals' past experiences and the resulting personal narrative which influences attitudes, preferences and behaviour in certain situations; furthermore individual conduct is closely linked to actual constraints and opportunities in the present, i.e. the specific situation of interaction and power constellation in which the person is involved in at a certain moment in time.

Mahadevan (2011) likewise supports a processual, anthropological conceptualisation of culture in reference to Geertz (1973) and Ricoeur (1992), when defining collective identities as "an open process of sense-making in interaction with changing boundaries" and when affirming that "the making of the collective 'We' always takes place in interaction with the making of a group of the 'Other'" (2011: 89). She suggests that organizations and collective identities are made up of more than national identities, including professional identities, ethnic identities, site identities etc., as supported by anthropological theory. Based on a case study of the collaboration between a German high-tech company and an Indian offshoring organization, she notices that these identity sets are made salient by individuals and groups according to specific situations and power distributions and individual interests. Whereas Mahadevan (2011) focuses on multiple layers and expressions of collective identities, Pierre (2003) studies simultaneously the organizational and the micro-sociological level in multinational corporations. Both authors explore the strategic function of identities according to specific situations. When analysing socialisation processes of international managers, Pierre (2003) goes beyond a culturalist conception of adjustment, which opposes home and host national culture identities. He accounts for a multi-dimensional conception of identity, by taking into account the

interconnectedness of private and professional relationships, community membership and networks of international managers, as well as their power advantages. Based on qualitative, interpretive inquiry he explores individual resources and five sets of identity strategies, in line with Camilieri's (1992) theory of identity strategies. Mahadevan (2011), as well as Pierre (2003) and colleagues (Mutabazi and Pierre, 2008; Cloet and Pierre, 2018), are some of few scholars in the field of expatriate identity research who account for organizational power relations between headquarters and subsidiaries, for example, when referring to inpatriates' identity strategies at the headquarters.

Moreover, it is important to note that interpretivist, emic approaches are emerging in the field of International Human Resource Management, despite the dominance of the structuralist approaches illustrated in the previous section. As Kohonen (2008) states, "in the field of expatriate management, the question of identity has seldom been directly addressed or raised as a fundamental subject for inquiry." The interpretive IHRM studies investigate links between identity narratives and international and global career attitudes (Näsholm, 2012; Kohonen, 2008; Scurry, Rodriguez and Bailouni 2013). Kohonen's research (2004, 2008) on subjective expatriate experiences is part of the exceptions. When observing identity balancing, shifts and non-shifts amongst Finnish repatriated managers, she refers to the malleability of the self, regarding cultural and professional identities, by reflexively analysing individual narratives. Näsholm (2011) focusses on international itinerants and global careerists of Swedish origin, i.e. individuals who moved several times internationally for the purpose of their work. He concludes on interdependencies between the length of assignments, organizational identification and host culture identifications. Scurry and colleagues (Scurry et al., 2013) point out the highly complex and volatile nature of identity narratives of self-initiated expatriates from various national origins in Qatar. They highlight the link between narratives on professional identities and the specific local context and regulatory constraints. Even if all three studies explore individual life narratives through open interviews, they leverage etic categorisations such as expatriate, international itinerant and self-initiated expatriate when constituting and describing their research sample. All three are further focused on international employees in management positions. This may indicate the functionalist or potentially elitist orientation of this type of studies, which aim to explore 'barriers' and 'levers' for career success from a traditional careers' perspective, as opposed to the declared goal to 'understand' in an interpretivist, constructionist sense. It may be of interest to point out that Kohonen's (2008) and Näsholm's (2001) studies selected a sample that is homogeneous from an etic perspective, by focussing on individuals from one national background (Finish and Swedish) and their etic career label (repatriate and international itinerant). However, both do not seem to pay attention to the various contexts of expatriation. Scurry and colleagues (2013), to the contrary, underline the

importance of taking into account geo-spatial and institutional conditions, rather than national cultural backgrounds of interviewees.

Muhr and Lemmergard (2011) likewise question if culture is always present and influential when it comes to individual sense-making and self-(re)definition in multicultural settings and situations of international mobility. In their research study on hypermobile, international workers in the consulting profession they state, in reference to Augé's (1995) concept of 'non-lieux', that "consultants working across cultures actually feel a great sense of belonging at 'non-places' and in solitude" (2011: 24)". The authors put forward the potential meaning of culturally generic spaces for individual identities, in the individual's search for 'neutrality'. From a traditional cross-cultural perspective, the vanishing significance of national cultures may appear surprising. This "out of the box" finding, beyond cultural categorisations, however, is the result of an interpretive, emic research approach. Indeed, Muhr and Lemmergard (2011) emphasize the importance of taking into account actors' subjective experiences in context in cross-cultural work, in order to achieve a deeper understanding of sense-making on a mircro-level. Along the same lines Chevrier (2012) underlines the importance of hermeneutics, i.e. the need to understand the actors' perspective, in a Weberian sense ('verstehen'). She suggests that an interpretive research approach does not only allow for a deeper understanding of intercultural team dynamics, but that it further enables the researcher to grasp the meaning from an insider's perspective, through and emic research approach (cf. Jackson and Mio, 2012), by going at the same time back and forth between various possibilities of interpretation and conceptual frameworks.

DISCUSSION: Beyond categorization towards a 'horizontal sense of being'?

Recently Risberg and Pilhofer (2018) discussed the risks of fixed categorizations in diversity and difference research. When referring, amongst others, to Prasad (2012) they state: "simply by using fixed categories, scholars risk reifying and perhaps unintentionally legitimating public assumptions about pre-defined categories, especially binary categories." (2018:138). This statement can likewise apply to the utilisation of social identity categories, such as nationality. As stipulated by Geertz (1973), labels and designations are "interpretations to which persons of a particular denomination subject their experience, because that is what they profess to be descriptions of." (1973: 15). – The question arises how intercultural and expatriation research can prevent to involuntarily foster pre-defined categories and binary thinking with regards to certain identity categories? The promotion of emic research approaches may be a potential contribution to this question.

As stated, constructivist approaches identify interests and sense-making as endogenous to agent-structure interactions. Meaning emerges through interaction between individuals and systems, experience and behaviour patterns (Watzlawick, 1977). They are conceived as constituted by multi-dimensional interactions between actors, with "significant others" and social structures, such as organisations. Consequently, personal interests of power and objective career success are not necessarily variables that drive agents' behaviour directly. Etic, organizationally coined definitions of career success and professional identity may therefore be hindering when exploring motivations, identifications and belongings of the globally mobile professional.

Increasing mobilities change the perception of reality and mobile individuals develop "a horizontal sense of being on the move" (Urry, 2007: 8). Physical mobility and international moves contribute to the alteration of contextual factors in organisations and society and influence individual realities, self-images and perceptions of otherness (Rosa 2012; Augé 2008). Sociologists emphasize that the emergence of neo-nomadic (Maffesoli, 2016; d'Andrea, 2006; Shin, 2014) and mobile lifestyles requires a paradigmatic turn in social sciences, accounting for increasing complexities in organisational, relational and individual identification (Urry and Elliott, 2010). Moreover, an individual might refer to collective social identities, such as nationality, ethnicity, age or gender at times, however, complex and dynamic social interactions contribute, for example, to the dissemination, hybridization or confluence of cultural traits (Cuche, 1996; Axelrod 1997; Wikan, 2002; Dagnino, 2015). Giddens (1991) points out that modern globalization is accompanied by "reflexive constructions of the self".

In addition, scholars who defend a post-modern and hyper-modern turn in social sciences, remind us to consider that identity and belonging are continuously changing and highly fragmented in late modern societies, where ambiguities and large individual choices dominate over economic rationalities (Baudrillard, 1987; Clegg, 1990; Willmot 1992; Aubert, 2004; Lipovetsky, 2004; Maffesoli, 2016). Scholars like Bauman (1998; 2000) or Dervin (2012) insist on the necessity for individuals to give up solidly founded identities, in order to "control the circumstances of their life itinerary" (Bauman, 1998: 26) in times of liquid reality. Liogier (2012) argues that the emergence of "individuo-global narratives" constitutes a new expression of the individuals' "desire to be and to become".

The question remains, how future research can grasp complex identities "in flux", across various spatio-temporal settings. It may even be debatable if the notion of identity in itself is adequate and relevant in contemporary settings of global mobility and imagined belongings... From the author's perspective the unfolding multiplicity of the human condition in a contemporary, globalised world, as theorised by Hannerz (1990, 1996), Apadurai (1996) or Deleuze and Guattari (1980), can inspire

further problematization of the state of the art of identity studies in intercultural management and expatriation studies.

As initially formulated by Foucault, problematization is "an endeavour to know how and to what extent it might be possible to think differently, instead of what is already known." (Foucault, 1985: 9, cited by Sandberg and Alvesson, 2011). Foucault also states (1968: 751) that the response to the process of problematization are factions of objects, types of formulations, concepts and theoretical options that are deployed in institutions, in individual and collective behavioural conduct […], etc.[2] In this sense, an upcoming endeavour of intercultural management and expatriation research may be to further problematize how we, as researchers, use the notion of identity, conceptually and analytically. This may allow us, according to Foucault (1975: 1627), through multiple iterative reflections to perceive the lines of fragility, to identify where the strengths are situated and where power is anchored.[3]

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[2] « tout un ensemble d'objets, de types de formulation, de concepts, d'options théoriques qui sont investis dans des institutions, dans des techniques, dans des conduites individuelles ou collectives, dans des opérations politiques, dans des activités scientifiques, dans des fictions littéraires, dans des spéculations théoriques » (own translation from French)

[3] « qui permette de repérer où sont les lignes de fragilité, où sont les points forts, à quoi sont rattachés les pouvoirs » (own translation from French)

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Culture and consciousness toward quantum leadership

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Abstract

Global trends, such as the financial crisis and new social and environmental challenges have led to the need for new markets to emerge. The profit-centric shareholder supremacy model has created material wealth at the expense of the depletion of natural resources, pollution and imbalances in income distribution. This brought a profound transformation of the economic and social ecosystem to take place where companies are expected to play new roles and become actors of change and value creation, not only economic but also social and environmental. There is therefore an important shift in business focus that is empowering companies to be ethical firms which do good while making a profit, marked by a change in strategy, culture and approach. But this is still not enough. Through a wide range of practices that develop connectedness- combining embodied experience with analytic-cognitive skill- a higher consciousness level can be reached. Changing people at a deep intuitive level provides the keys to greater effectiveness and wellbeing at work which will consequently help to integrate Environmental, Social, and Governance (ESG) into an overall corporate sustainable performance management system. Starting from these premises this paper aims to: RQ1) provide an understanding of the state of art of Theories of Change (ToCs) by Chin and Benne (1967), through a review of the literature to understand underlying implications and shed new light on the new emerging quantum leadership theory proposed by Tsao and Laszlo (2019) which introduces a fourth ToC based on the direct-intuitive experience of connectedness. The study highlights how, on top of an approach that interprets sustainable development as a necessary evolution of the current profit-centric business model, the most important driver in the spread of new paradigms such as benefit corporations, social purpose companies, teal organizations and flourishing enterprises, is the prosocial entrepreneurial drive. This can lead the way to quantum leadership where the company can reach a higher level of consciousness and truly change its structure and culture. In this regard, relatively few papers have analyzed this phenomenon and it is evident how it should be included in future research lines.

Keywords: Sustainability, Flourishing, Quantum Leadership, Prosocial Entrepreneurship

Biographical notes:

Giorgia is a practitioner and active researcher in the field of management studies. She works for Italy's export credit agency since 2013 and is a certified benefit impact manager. She is part of various alumni associations as she has been a business consultant for over ten years and collaborates with researchers in several other disciplines through academic networks such as the International Humanistic Management Association and the Responsible Research in Business Management network. Giorgia completed her Ph.D. at LUMSA University, her MBA at the Luiss Guido Carli Business School and her undergraduate studies at John Cabot University and University of Wales. Her research interests lie in the area of sustainability, sustainable development and corporate social responsibility with particular attention to new hybrid forms of business such as benefit corporations and social purpose companies. Giorgia is assistant professor to organizational behavior and corporate social responsibility and teaches in LUMSA. She also collaborates actively with researchers in several other disciplines of human resource management, humanistic management and corporate welfare.

Armando is a junior researcher in the field of humanistic management studies and is currently looking to start a PhD. After completing his degree and masters in digital marketing and communications at LUMSA University he collaborates with researchers in the field and is beginning to build his academic career. His research interests lie in the area of sustainable development, organizational behavior in new business paradigms- such as flourishing enterprises and teal organizations- and corporate social responsibility.

1. Introduction

With the Earth Overshoot Day occurring earlier each year, due mainly to the ever-growing amounts of $CO2$ emissions in the atmosphere caused by business, the importance of decisive action and the necessity to find new practical sustainability-oriented approaches is becoming more and more evident. Environmental disasters, such as the Amazon forest fires, glacier reductions, and desertification together with adverse social outcomes such as hunger, illness, and thirst are both causes and effects of poverty that have increased the urgency for new paradigms serving the common good (Laszlo, 2019) to emerge. The economistic model (Pirson, 2017) focused on profit maximization has created material wealth at the expense of communities and the planet. Today companies and entrepreneurs are expected to play new roles and become actors of change and value creation. At a time of severe economic and social crisis companies are trying to adapt their business model to meet Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as outlined by the United Nations 2030 Agenda.

We are thus experiencing the convergence of profit and non-profit organizations (Billis, 2010) and management with new frameworks derived from quantum physics, neuroscience, behavioral science and positive psychology (Laszlo et al., 2014). Traditional business practices that seek to maximize short-term profits are being replaced by new hybrid forms of business and leadership models that deploy corporate social responsibility (CSR) practices (Weaver, Trevino, e Cochran 1999) generating a positive impact (Herington e van de Fliert, 2018) while making a profit (Hiller, 2013).

For-benefit companies- such as Benefit Corporations and B Corps and Social Purpose Companies (Levillain e Segrestin, 2014)- with their mission, binding or not, to generate common good on top of financial returns are a clear example of for-profit companies with a reinforced commitment to CSR (Nigri, Michelini, e Grieco, 2017; Levillain and Segrestin, 2019[4]). In addition to these new legal frameworks and fitness to standard certifications (Nicholas e Sacco, 2017) new business paradigms such as Teal Organizations (Laloux, 2014) and Flourishing Enterprises (Laszlo et al., 2014) are introducing new managerial practices in organizational behavior. People are placed at the center of the organization to create the positive deviance needed to shift to holistic prosperity. The aim is to not only satisfy the needs of the present without compromising the capacity of future generations (United Nations, 1992) but to create a world in which people and all life thrive across future generations (Laszlo, 2019).

Starting from these premises this paper aims to: RQ1) provide an understanding of the state of art of Theories of Change (ToCs) (Chin e Benne, 1967), through a review of the literature to understand underlying implications; RQ2) shed new light on the emerging quantum leadership theory proposed by Tsao and Laszlo (Tsao e Laszlo, 2019) which introduces a fourth ToC based on the direct-intuitive experience of connectedness. Although a shift is evident, existing approaches to transforming the role of business in society have been insufficient to address the challenges of sustainability. The world is getting worse, not better. Therefore we need a fresh approach to engaging business leaders.

The implications are twofold. The proposed conceptualization is in line with existing managerial theories and supports the most recent statements regarding the importance of cultural value systems and the shifting in organizational practices. The study highlights how, on top of an approach that interprets sustainable development as a necessary evolution of the current profit-centric business model, the most critical driver in the spread of new paradigms such as benefit corporations, social purpose companies, teal organizations, and flourishing enterprises, is the prosocial entrepreneurial drive toward a broader conception of value creation that embraces future generations and all life on earth. This can lead the way to quantum leadership where the company can reach a higher level of

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[4] https://hal-mines-paristech.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-02011872/document

consciousness and truly change its structure and culture. In this regard, relatively few papers have analyzed this phenomenon, and it is evident how it should be included in future research lines.

2. Review

2.1 Managerial Culture

Management in the 21st Century should not be different from management in the 20th Century, but we can expect a breakthrough in the development of theories of management which will become more adapted to national cultural value systems in different parts of the world (Pickel, 2006).

Because management is about people, it is part of the culture- encompassing language, religion, cuisine, social habits, music, and arts[5]- of the society in which it takes place. The core element in culture are values. Values have a significant influence on a person's behavior, on what is good or bad and desirable or undesirable, serve as guidelines, and are shared by members of the same culture. According to the group conception of social solidarity, solidarity requires a definable group of which one can feel a member. It involves an issue of justice, an idea of shared life or destiny, a sense of belonging, integration or rootedness of each member within the group and if it can be harnessed to goals such as the promotion of health and social development, it can be a powerful motivating force and an effective strategy to enhance social development (UNESCO, 2010). Relationships between people in a society are affected by the values that form their culture making management subject to cultural values as well. Some ordinary business-specific values are fairness, innovation and community involvement (Hofstede, 2011).

Today the business world is increasingly taking on an international and intercultural dimension (Maimone e Sinclair, 2014). The complexity of the market, the climate, corporate culture, and the management of human resources require an interdisciplinary and intercultural approach typical of anthropological methods and research. Many of these economic and social challenges go beyond conventional linear analysis and planning systems making forecasting systems and purely quantitative strategic plans unusable. Qualitative research, brainstorming sessions and circular and scenario planning systems are required to address these challenges (Pettigrew, 1990).

The theme of culture within organizations has been a highly debated topic over the years and includes different areas of research and application, such as: psychic distance (Johanson e Vahlne, 2009), cultural sensitivity (Fletcher 2004), cultural norms (Battaglia, Nadin, e Gobbini, 2004) and interpersonal relationships (Agndal e Chetty 2007). The cultural elements to be taken into

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5 https://www.livescience.com/21478-what-is-culture-definition-of-culture.html

consideration for a correct market approach concern the individual factors of the participants, the cultural dimensions of the company, and the national cultural factors to which the company belongs (Kostova e Zaheer, 1999). Time, space, and the concept of self and others also influence interaction models (Usunier, 2006)- with each culture giving more or less weight to one or more of the variables. There is a significant association between perceived trust and dependence in business relationships (Svensson, 2004) where dimensions relative to the diffused culture or, on the contrary, to the specific culture, can determine or not, a trust collaboration (Molteni et al., 2004; Trompenaars, 2003). The knowledge of the partner is key to build, and the relationship between affective climate and creativity is strongly related to social interaction and a contributing factor to knowledge creation in the organizational context (Maimone, 2018). Conflict management, group problem-solving, and personal growth are all employed to generate the creativity necessary for managing change and handling knowledge (Zucker, 2012).

It should be noted that the management literature of the last decades incorporates and assimilates these concepts. Regardless of whether we are dealing with comparative management studies or international ones, we observe the attention given to intercultural issues. In the current context of the globalization of the economy, which implicitly presupposes an increase in contacts between cultures, linguistic skills, together with intercultural ones, enjoy broad recognition in the labor market[6]. Behavioral knowledge, different learning styles, or effects of diverse cultural background may be the primary reason for change that affects social systems (Blaesser, 1978).

2.2 Theories of Change

Chin and Benne (1967) proposed three ToC strategies that they considered universally generalizable for change in human systems. The first strategy, empirical-rational dates back to The Enlightenment and Classical Liberalism when it was believed that ignorance and superstition were hindrances to the progress of society and that dissemination of knowledge and reason would move people from ignorance to intellectualism (Barnes, 2017). The empirical–rational strategy considers people to be rationally self-interested. Successful change is thus based on the communication of information and offering of incentives (Nickols, 2016). An organization member will adopt a proposed change if the proposed change is rationally justified and if the change agent can demonstrate the benefits of the change (Quinn e Sonenshein, 2008). The first empirical-rational strategy assumes therefore that human beings are rational people and that they will promote change that will be of benefit to, and

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6 https://www.un.org/en/events/culturaldiversityday/pdf/Investing_in_cultural_diversity.pdf

consistent with, the self-interest of the individual or group on which the change will have an impact (Pickel, 2006). This approach emphasizes that if it is in the self-interest of the target to change, change comes from merely telling the target about the change (Quinn, 2015). It corresponds to the business case for sustainability in which social projects are undertaken and find internal alignment only when there is a positive return-on-investment (Laszlo, 2019).

The normative-re-educative change strategies include socio-cultural norms which are the values and attitudes that affect commitments. In the normative-re-educative approach, the motivation for change is different as people are considered to be internally motivated beings thus change consists of change in attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships on top of knowledge, information, and intellectual rationales (Chin and Benne, 1967, p. 23). At the cultural level, this motivation causes changes in the values and relationships of the units involved. Socially the activity is collective and involves a change agent whose role is to intervene and incorporate change into the workings of the system to be changed, at a corporate or individual level (Pickel, 2006). The organizing of the National Training Laboratories in 1947 was an essential stage in the development of the normative-re-educative approach to planned change. Participants were able to test interpersonal theories in a group which resulted in the development of two main methods of working with social systems: problem-solving- which usually involve steps to identify problems, evaluate current situations, obtain feedback, and employ internal agents to monitor the organizational development- and personal growth-people's needs are met and, as a result, the organization benefits (Barnes, 2017).

Power-coercive change strategies are based on the use of power as a source of change. The source of power can be legitimate, authoritative, or coercive and can include such things as positional, economic, legal, political, moral, and administrative power. In this process, those with more power use it to obtain the desired outcome from those with less power (Blaesser, 1978). In these strategies the change agents attempt to use control to create the change. Those who have legitimate power may or may not be aware of the needs of those under their influence. Groups or individuals outside the control area may seek to influence change by creating a challenge to the existing structure (Pickel, 2006; Quinn e Sonenshein, 2008).

Business efforts to be socially responsible, based on the three ToCs, have helped companies minimize their negative impacts, but they have not created prosperity. On the contrary, inequality is continuing to worsen while environmental problems are augmenting. They are not contributing to health and well-being, both in the workplace and in society and most of all they are not teaching or putting correct societal values in place creating disengagement and ignorance (Laszlo et al., 2014).

The personal growth approach focuses on the individual as the vital element in the organization- the belief is that personal re-education can occur. This is especially true in conflict management since

through the resolution and management of conflict changes in the individual, and the organization will take place (Halperin e Tagar, 2017).

3. Quantum-ness

3.1 Consciousness and practices

Why people behave the way they do though is still on the most part, a mystery. What can be done to avoid vicious circles resulting in a lack of creativity and collaboration at all levels of entrepreneurial activity (Laszlo, 2017), contrarily, is a closer academic reality. Meadows mentions that the highest leverage point to intervene in a system is the mindset or paradigm out of which the system arises (Meadows, 1997) and Tsao and Laszlo (2019) state that transforming our consciousness is the most effective tool we have for unlocking local and global change. There is, therefore, an essential shift in business focus that is empowering companies to be ethical firms which do good while making a profit (Hiller, 2013), marked by a change in strategy (Pache e Santos, 2013), culture and approach. Through a wide range of practices that develop connectedness- combining embodied experience with analytic-cognitive skill- a higher consciousness level can be reached (VanderWeele, 2017). Changing people at a deep intuitive level provides the keys to greater effectiveness and wellbeing at work[7] which will consequently help to integrate Environmental, Social, and Governance (ESG) into an overall corporate sustainable performance management system (Nigri e Del Baldo, 2018; Aureli e Del Baldo, 2016).

The goal of quantum leadership at an organizational level is thus to generate economic output and empowerment by creating prosperity in the communities in which it operates. Full-spectrum flourishing, where collaborative business ecologies pursue doing good (Laasch, 2018)- because that is who they are not because it is the right thing to do-, will only result from a quantum leap in personal and collective consciousness (Tsao e Laszlo, 2019).

The strategy for change introduced by Tsao and Laszlo, direct-intuitive, is anchored in connectedness practices that offer a direct experience of wholeness to individuals encompassing both eastern and western forms of mindfulness. Such methods include meditation, walking in nature, art and aesthetics, gardening, appreciative inquiry, physical exercise, and journaling, but also enjoying meals or a glass of wine with friends. Their function is to help quiet the analytic mind and focus on the surrounding world, experiencing self-love. Including one or more of these practices in a daily routine, appreciating and being present in the moment[8] helps strengthens a person's learning journey and elevates

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7 https://grli.org/resources/global-responsibility-issue-15-december-2016/

8 http://www.ottoscharmer.com/programs/ulab

consciousness (Laszlo, 2017; 2019). Flourishing enterprises will exist if leaders can flourish as people first.

Authentic collaboration, compassion, humility, the ability to let go[9] are all characteristics of the quantum leader who, in this changing process, learns not to trigger unnecessary defense mechanisms that emerge from feelings of vulnerability (Tsao e Laszlo, 2019). Courage means becoming comfortable with uncomfortable feelings so that one can feel at one with nature and the world avoiding functional stupidity (Alvesson e Spicer, 2016). Opportunities to evolve lie in challenges if they serve as a learning experience.

All reality happens in our inner world, and our perception of the outer world also happens in our inner world, so the practice is both what is happening as we deal with the movement of information and our response to it.

The first form of consciousness is to be centered and in equilibrium with oneself, reality and nature. The focus may then shift on co-creating positive relationships as each system-especially organizations-is composed of people with specific roles.

The team-based network organization formed by the IMC senior leadership and management team acts as a flexible interface layer to absorb the external disruption from the changing external environment and to keep IMC strategically aligned with external realities while interfacing with internal operations.

As Tsao proved in his IMC's Triple Organization model, a buffer is useful to minimize disruption and create alignment within the organization as it adapts to change. This arrangement achieves both learning agility and operational efficiency for the overall system.

3.2 Science

As Bohr stated, those who are not shocked when they first come across quantum mechanics cannot possibly have understood it (Dunningham and Vedral, 2018). Today on top of an intuitive understanding of the spiritual journey required for information flow at the quantum level, science is

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9 https://mitsloan.mit.edu/action-learning/s-lab#tour-welcome

validating the ability to experience it and offers insights as to why the practices can lead to an inner transformation of the self toward raised relational awareness (Laszlo, 2017; Tsao e Laszlo, 2019). Consciousness exists outside the brain as quantum-level vibrational frequencies (Chalmers, 2016) that can help heal our bodies or affect our well-being. Also, the constant regeneration of cells makes us mutable (Karp e Geer, 2005), ever-evolving beings that can be affected by lifestyle, daily practices and rituals, experiences, and external factors.

Thus having a consciousness of connectedness- feeling like an integral part of the natural world- makes individuals more empathetic and compassionate and increases their responsible behavior since they can see how their actions affect all life on earth. A conceptual understanding of the new narrative of coherence and interconnection plus an experiential path to oneness by introducing practices leads to changes in who leaders are being and can become (Tsao e Laszlo, 2019).

The path to quantum leadership is, above all, an experiential one. It is not achieved through conceptual learning alone. Mindfulness, which engages the heart-body-spirit and not only the mind, is the gateway to an awakening experience of wholeness. Leaders who successfully pursue it find higher purpose and meaning through the pursuit of positive social impact. The point is that our consciousness, influenced by both science and our values and beliefs, and shaped by our daily practices, is the foundation for the stories we tell about who we are and the nature of the world in which we live. These stories, in turn, determine the actions we take in business as in life.

This is very different from current management goals of business strategies which are often limited to reducing ecological footprints and minimizing social harm. Through quantum-ness, the purpose of management becomes to be a force-for-good and create prosperity for all (Laszlo, 2019).

4. Discussion

Sustainability is the main challenge for the twenty-first century, and meeting this challenge requires changing human behavior and the systems in which it interacts. Today, CSR practices mitigate trends but do not reverse them, because the structure is so that if practices are not felt or promoted by top management, they do not get implemented into company routines. Tsao makes a point about not imposing a company vision. Instead, he suggests directionality and evolutionary elements which grow and flourish through constant learning.

Tsao and Laszlo are not suggesting that the fourth ToC they propose be used to the exclusion of the other three, but as an integration of the past with future discovery. All four ToCs- rational-empirical, normative-reeducative, power-coercive, and directive-intuitive- should work together for outer

transformation of business toward sustainable value and inner transformation of leaders toward wholeness and connectedness to take place.

The experience of wholeness and connectedness is the foundation for altering a person's behavior and decision-making in business as in life (Laszlo, 2017). This way we can have companies that works in society and for society and leaders that can nurture commitment in others- not always top down.

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Organizational Culture, Learning Organization and Innovation in German Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

This quantitative study investigates the organizational culture (OC) centered aspects on learning organizations (LO) and explorative innovation (EI) practices in context of German higher education institution (HEI) by suggesting a holistic configuration model of organizational culture. Feedback from academic deans and academic staff of 54 German HEI were analyzed by using group comparisons and correlation analyses to test our hypotheses. Our results show that OL and EI are affected by the perceived dominant culture type. The empirical data indicates main differences in 'Strategic Emphasis' and 'Management of Employees' as well as 'Provide Leadership for Learning', 'Collaboration and Team Learning' and 'Systems of Capture Learning'. All dimensions of OC were significantly correlated with OL and EI. The perceptions of OC are a decisive factor to attach importance for developing LO and coordinating EI practices to gain legitimacy. We provide novel insights into the multidimensional nature of LO and EI and the importance of a cultural equilibrium for HEIs facing dynamic environments.

Keywords: Organizational Culture, Learning Organization, Innovation, Higher Education Institution

1. Introduction

In this paper a subcultural level of analysis was chosen to explore how highly skilled professionals in German HEIs perceive organizational culture (OC), learning organization (LO) and explorative innovation (EI) activities. It is assumed that higher education institutions (HEI) are composed of diverse subcultures that co-exist and interact with each other, while each subculture has its distinct set of values, norms and work practices that guide the behaviour of individuals and groups and provide a

frame of reference for the interpretation of operations inside and outside the university environment. We focus on following research questions:

1.) How do highly skilled academic deans and academic staff perceive OC (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011), LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and EI activities (Jansen et al., 2006) in German HEIs?

2.) What role do OC perceptions play in determining LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and EI activities (Jansen et al., 2006)?

Current approaches to higher education goals and strategies and LO as well as EI activities, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon world, have been largely management driven, dominated by a focus on measurement. These approaches almost entirely neglected the organizational culture-centered aspects of higher education, in particular the academic work of highly skilled professionals. This research paper aims to contribute to closing this gap in research.

The German higher education system has undergone a profound transformation in the last two decades since the introduction of the Bologna Process with the aim to create a European higher education area. Recent years have brought many legal, funding, economic, research and education policy changes to the landscape of Germany´s higher education. HEIs are challenged to set goals for guiding research and teaching activities to derive specific strategies for reaching these goals to ensure legitimacy and their survivability. However, universities as knowledge generating institutions are embedded in cultural, legal and political environments that limit the organizational choices that are available for campus and faculty leaders. LO and EI activities is a critical feature of the OC in higher education institutions to prepare for adaption and change. Neglecting this perspective in a higher education context would limit the abilities to face the complexity and dynamics in the increasingly complex and turbulent institutional environments.

The configuration model of organizational culture (Dauber, Fink & Yolles, 2012) provides a multidisciplinary approach for studying organizational culture, strategy, structure and patterns of behaviour as well as the impact of external environments on the organization under conditions of complexity. This framework has been chosen as an appropriate frame of reference to investigate the effects of OC (Cameron & Quinn, 1999), LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and EI (Jansen et al., 2006) to compare cultural perceptions of academic deans and academic staff in context of German HEIs (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). The configuration model of organizational culture represents a significant step forward to a more holistic, comprehensive and interdisciplinary approach to cultural dynamics in organizations by synthesizing seminal work in the fields of organization theory and culture theory (e.g. Argyris & Schön, 1974; Amburgey & Dacin, 1994; Chandler, 1962; Child, 1972; Schein, 1895, Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Harris & Ruefli, 2000; Whittington, 2001).

Figure 1: Configuration model of organizational culture (Dauber, Fink and Yolles, 2012)
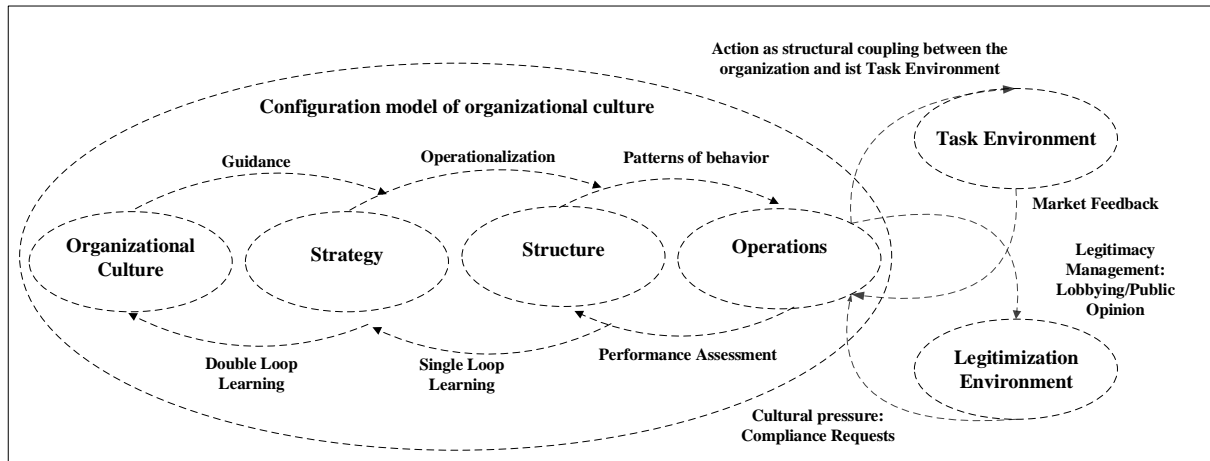
The key aspects of the configuration model of organizational culture for our purposes are the OC, strategy and the phenomenological domain operations as well its feedback processes. It is argued that LO and EI activities are influenced by cultural dynamics of the internal and external environment, such as national culture. The outcome of this investigation will be interpreted in a German context and matched to the configuration model of organizational culture (Dauber, Fink & Yolles, 2012).

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.1 Institutional theory

Institutional theory is a powerful theoretical approach for analyzing organizational change and behaviour in context of HEI. Whereas classic organization theory stresses the idea that organizations are dominated by rational actors and their largely management driven interests, institutional theory emphasizes the social structure and external influences in an organizational field. From this point of view, structures and patterns of behaviour are more shaped by institutional conditions, rather than efficiency criteria, to gain legitimacy for the survivability of the organizations.

Institutional theory asserts the influences of the systems surrounding organizations that shape organizational and social behaviour (Scott, 1995). According to Meyer and Rowan (1977) organizations as open systems are embedded in an institutional context, suggesting that organizational structures and procedures are reflections of environmental expectations. Organizations adapt practices and design formal structures to the 'rational myth' to gain and maintain legitimacy of their decisions and actions. From this perspective it can be concluded that organizations are affected by institutional influences which guide human behaviour. These influences are manifested in formal and informal institutions (Peng, Wang & Jiang, 2008; Dikova, Sahib, & van Wittelstuijn, 2010) as 'regulative, normative, and cognitive structures and activities that provide stability and meaning' (Scott 1995, p.

33). Formal institutions (North, 1990) are established and constituted by laws, organized structures and processes and regulations which guide organizational behaviour. Informal institutions are related to cultural and normative pressures which guide social behaviour (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Scott 1995). The institutional theory assumes that organizations adapt and react to their institutional environment by isomorphic processes to gain legitimacy (Suchman, 1995, p. 574).

Organizations operate under cultural pressure in line with the social values in order to be recognized as a member of society (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). Germany belongs to the west European cultural region which emphasizes 'Intellectual Autonomy', 'Egalitarianism' and 'Harmony' more than any other world cultural region. It is the region lowest on 'Hierarchy' and 'Embeddedness' (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007, p. 180). Hofstede emphasizes the differences between national values (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001) and organizational practices (Hofstede et al., 1990). They concluded that organizational culture differs at the level of practices, whereas national culture differs mainly at the deeper level of values. While values are acquired in early youth, the practices are learned through socialization at the workplace which people enter as adults. Thus, organizational cultures are influenced by the national culture in two ways. It is influenced by the society and by the organization members who carry their perceptions of national values into the organization. It can be concluded that the organizational culture in line with the national values has a legitimizing effect on the strategies, structures and operations. Consequently, the organizational culture is also influenced by national values of its stakeholders (Freeman, 1984, Jones et al., 2007).

German HEIs are embedded in cultural, legal and political environments. Their internal strategies, structures and behaviour are often reflections of, as well as responses to, expectations in their broader environment. According to institutional theory the external environment limits the organizational choices that are available for campus and faculty leaders. To be effective, the organization strives to develop strategies, structures and actions identifiable both internally and externally as legitimate (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). For example, accreditation bodies, governmental agencies, collaboration partners, OECD and lobby have different and often competing expectations about how universities should operate. When organizations go along with accepted conventions about appropriate behaviour, then institutional actors view them HEI as a legitimate actor within the higher education field. The institutional environment then rewards legitimacy with support in terms of funding, interested students and quality faculty.

2.2 Cultural theory

The OC research can be classified in three categories: 1.) Dimension approaches (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1990; Hofstede, 1998; House et al., 2004; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007); 2.) Interrelated

structure approaches (Schein, 1985; Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Hatch, 1993; Homburg & Pflesser, 2000) and 3.) Typological approaches (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Cameron et. al., 2006). The organizational culture in the higher education system context can be characterized with subcultural characteristics (Austin, 1990; Becher, 1981; Becher, 1987; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Clark, 1970; Clark, 1972; Davies & Devlin, 2010; Harman, 1989; Lee, 2007; Kuh & Whitt, 1988; McNay, 1995; Mintzberg, 1980; Rogers, Scaife & Rizzo, 2005: 3, cited in Davies & Devlin, 2010; Silver, 2003; Sporn, 1992; Tierney, 1988; Van Maanen & Barley, 1985; Weick, 1976; Yazici, 2015). Subcultures in HEIs may have characteristics of academic, institutional and disciplinary subcultures (Clark, 1983; Harman, 1989; Lee, 2007; Yazici, 2015). Although the OC research is a relatively young research field, a variety of approaches, models and concepts have been developed from the different perspectives of scientific disciplines. While there are linkages between the single scientific disciplines, such as between organizational theory and cultural theory approaches (e.g. Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006), the connections, however, are unspecified. It is still unclear which methods lead to the best results in particular contexts and no consensus has been reached with regard to general, holistic, dynamic and interdisciplinary approaches. We understand culture as an informal institution that influences individual and organizational behaviour by providing norms and practices that guide human behaviour which is accepted of the institutional environment. Such norms may shape the perceptions of stakeholders in the task-related and legitimization environment and therefore resource allocation towards desired goals to gain legitimacy.

We choose the organizational culture instrument, as a typology approach, to assess organizational culture in context of HEIs. The Competing Values Framework (CVF) which was developed in the early 1980´s is a result of various studies on effectiveness and success (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) followed by studies on culture, leadership and information processing (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Based on this framework Cameron and Quin (1999) developed the organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI) to identify and classify different cultural perceptions using two bipolar dimensions of competing values: Flexibility vs. Stability and Internal vs. External focus. Taken together, the two dimensions create four mayor cultural archetypes, namely (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p.32):

Table 1: Mayor culture types (Cameron & Quinn, 2006)

	Hierarchy (internal focus and stability)	**Clan** (internal focus and flexibility)	**Market** (external focus and stability)	**Adhocracy** (external focus and flexibility)
Orientation	Control	Collaborate	Compete	Create
Leader type	Monitor	Facilitator,	Hard driver	Innovator

	Organizer	Mentor, Teambuilder	Competitor Producer	Entrepreneur Visionary
Value drivers	Efficiency, Timeliness Consistency and Uniformity	Commitment, Communication, Development	Market share Goal achievement Profitability	Innovative outputs, Transformation, Agility
Theory of effectiveness	Control and efficiency with capable processes produce effectiveness	Human development and high commitment produce effectiveness	Aggressively competing and customer focus produce effectiveness	Innovativeness, vision and constant change produce effectiveness

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), the six key dimensions will be used for assessing the four types of culture. These six dimensions characterize the foundations of a culture and refer to basic assumptions (1. Dominant Characteristics, 2. Organizational Glue), patterns of behavior (3. Organizational Leadership, 4. Management of Employees), and organizational strategy (5. Strategic Emphasis, 6. Criteria of Success) (Kaufman, 2013).

HEIs can be interpreted as 'loosely coupled systems' (Weick, 1976), 'professional bureaucracies´ (Mintzberg, 1980) and 'normative organizations' (Harman, 1989). Weick (1976) develops the model of 'loosely coupled systems' in his research on education systems and intends to 'convey the image that coupled events are responsive, but that each event also preserves its own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical separateness.' He emphasizes fragmentation of heterogeneous subunits which are somehow attached. The key characteristics of a 'professional bureaucracy' (Mintzberg, 1980) is a highly decentralized structure, minimally formalized and a thin middle-line. 'The organization hires highly trained specialists – called professionals – in its operating core and then gives them considerable autonomy in their work. In other words, they work relatively freely not only of the administrative hierarchy but also of their own colleagues.

It is assumed that academic deans and academic staff, as highly skilled professionals, working in the loosely coupled operating core, which is characterized by flat hierarchies, collegial and informal structures, probably perceive the OC as clan culture. Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Academic deans and academic staff perceive organizational culture as clan culture in German HEIs.

2.3 Learning Organization

When considering change in HEIs in light of institutional theory, it is essential to refer to isomorphic mechanisms in an organizational field to describe why 'organizations become more and more alike' (Rhoades & Sporn, 2002: 356). DiMaggio and Powell (1983, p. 147) conclude that organizational change is less inspired by 'competition' or 'by the need for efficiency'. Instead, the authors identify three main mechanisms that lead to institutional convergence; namely, coercive, mimetic and normative isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell 1983, p. 150). HEIs may respond differently to such changes. We argue that the capability to adjust and learn from changes in the internal and external environment can considerably change the future of HEIs.

Argyris (1977) distinguishes between two forms of learning: 'single-loop learning' and 'double loop learning'. 'Single-loop learning' refers to processes of detecting errors and adjusting existing strategies to meet new requirements. 'Double-loop learning', by contrast, refers to a more profound process of learning, where 'underlying organizational policies and objectives' (Argyris, 1977, p. 116) are questioned. The understanding of organizational learning is based on two modes of action. According to Argyris and Schön (1974) behaviour is determined by theories of action. Argyris and Schön assert that two contrasting theories are involved. The explicit espoused theory refers to the values and worldview that people believe guides their behaviour. The espoused theory is the theory of action which people report as a basis for behaviour (Argyris, 1976). However, the theory which implicitly guides action is the theory-in-use (Argyris & Schön, 1974). On the organizational level learning is an interactive and interdependent process which results in a collective experience used to acquire knowledge, that builds the intellectual capital, and develops skills. Learning can be triggered by internal and external influences (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). The perceived organizational culture directs the organization´s attention and may shape the goals and strategy for responding to the trigger. The success of the strategy depends on the organization´s ability to operate cohesively. This requires shared patterns of meaning and assumptions and the capacity to work together (Schein, 1985). According to Marsick and Watkins (2003) organizational learning is a collaborative capacity and not the sum of the learning of the individuals. The mental programs and shared visions as well as practices that the organizational members learned by making them explicit (Schein, 1985) may lead to profound organizational changes, the so-called double loop learning (Argyris & Schön, 1977).

In our study we focus on the Learning Organization Approach developed by Watkins and Marsick (1993). The model of LO is defined as 'one that learns continuously and transforms itself…Learning is a continuous, strategically used process, integrated with and running parallel to work…Learning also enhanced organizational capacity for innovation and growth. The learning organization has embedded systems to capture and share learning' (Watkins & Marsick, 1993, p. 8). The proposed learning

organization model has two main constituents: people and structure (Watkins & Marsick, 1993; Yang et al., 2004). Watkins and Marsick (1993, 1996) identified seven dimensions of a learning organization (DLOQ) at the individual, group and organizational level.

The individual level is composed with two dimensions of LO, namely 'Continuous Learning' as well as 'Dialogue and Inquiry'. The group level reflects 'Collaboration and Team Learning'. At the organizational level, they included four dimensions of organizational learning, namely 'Systems to Capture Learning', 'Connect the Organization', 'Empower People', and 'Provide Strategic Leadership for Learning'. These three levels can be further considered to belong to one of the two components mentioned earlier. The first component represents people who comprise an organization, and the second component represents the structures and culture created by the social institution of the organization. Theories of LO have emphasized that the organization needs to work with its organizational members at the individual and group levels first (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). People also need to be encouraged to take learning initiatives. Individuals learn on individual bases first, and then learn as teams, networks, and increasingly large units when they join together in organizational change' (Watkins and Marsick 1996, p. 4). Organizations also need to create facilitative structures to support and capture learning in order to reach their missions and desired goals (Karabag 2015; Yang et al., 2004; Marsick & Watkins, 1996).

According to institutional theory in context of HEIs, it is assumed that institutional forces shape the patterns of organizational behaviour, in particular LO activities. Organizations engage in OL practices as a response to cultural pressure in accordance with their OC in order to gain legitimacy. Developing strategies and structures to enhance LO are most meaningfully reflected in the roles and responsibilities of academic deans, as faculty leaders. Therefore, we assume:

Hypothesis 2: Academic deans value the perceived Learning Organization practices more positively than academic staff do.

Hypothesis 3: All Learning Organization dimensions are positively related to dominant culture.

2.4 Innovation

How do highly skilled professionals in HEIs perceive their workplace to be innovative? Institutional theory argues that informal and formal institutions shape the behaviour of organizations (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2003) and therefore resource allocation within and outside an organization (Mueller et al., 2013). In today's rapidly changing environments, organizations are required to gain new knowledge, resources, skills, processes, organizational structures to achieve innovation in order to create new products and services that meet the rapidly changing customer needs. At the same time

organizations have to allocate resources and skills efficiently. In this study we focus on partnerships between HEI and business entities to shed light on the interplay between environmental forces and intra-organizational cultural dynamics regarding innovation.

In the literature innovation is classified in explorative and exploitative innovation (Benner & Tushman, 2003; Gupta, Smith & Shally, 2006) to respond to environmental uncertainties. Organizations that are able to pursue simultaneously both explorative and exploitative innovation is known as ambidexterity (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004; O'Reilly & Tushman, 2004) which has been identified as important for the competitive advantage of the innovating organization. 'Exploration includes things captured by terms such as search, variation, risk taking, experimentation, play, flexibility, discovery, innovation' (March, 1991, p. 71). Explorative innovation involves the challenging of new markets which creates a high level of risk. The outcome of explorative innovation activities are radically new products, services and skills (Mueller et al., 2013). 'Exploitation includes such things as refinement, choice, production, efficiency, selection, implementation, execution' (March, 1991, p. 71). Exploitative innovation is based on improvements and refinements of existing products, services and skills which mainly aim at penetrating existing markets (Jansen et al., 2006; He & Wong, 2004; Mueller et al., 2013).

Through collaboration and partnerships with HEIs, companies can improve their innovation capabilities (Faems, Van Loy & Debackere, 2005). Collaboration with other companies in the field (e.g. suppliers and customers) contribute effectively to exploitation of results (Christensen & Overdorf, 2000). Partnerships with HEIs address the explorative capabilities (George, Zahra & Wood, 2002; Popadic, Pucko & Cerne, 2016). Companies can extend their capabilities for explorative innovation through funded collaboration with HEIs, which may have beneficial effects on innovative outputs (George et. al., 2002). We therefore refer to explorative innovation (Jansen, et al. 2006) as the dynamic capability of the organization's capacity to perform innovation activities.

We argue that behaviours toward innovation and change to specific innovation projects in the context of HEIs are largely determined by OC and LO activities, but they may also be influenced by institutional pressures. Academic deans and academic staff will endow resources, such as human resources, funds, time, to innovation projects that are perceived as promising in line with perceived culture. At the same time, national culture influences the attitudes and consuming behaviours of (potential) customers and affects their resource endowments for specific services and products and thus conclusively the acceptance of innovations that HEIs offer. As mentioned above organizational culture is strongly related to national values (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007; Hofstede, 2001) which may lead to cross-cultural differences in innovation actions in general (Furman, Porter & Stern; 2002; Shane 1993). According to Jansen et al. (2006) innovation requires different organizational settings, resources and skills.

From the perspective of companies, the main goals are early access to new technological and scientific knowledge (Bonacorsi & Piccaluga, 1994) as well as reduced recruiting costs (Azaroff, 1982). On the HEI side the main goals are acquiring third party funds, cooperative partnerships, promoting regions´ economy with spin-off's and advancement of the entrepreneurial perspective (Azgara et al., 2006; Yazici, 2015), Research and knowledge transfer into scientific community, service to communities and practice in the society (Siegel, 2003; Yazici, 2015; Yazici, 2017), innovative teaching, teaching specialized knowledge in the scientific subject, competitiveness of the university (Yazici, 2015). We assume that innovation activities of institutional actors are determined by the availability of resources and the capability to learn which constitute a culturally supported base of legitimacy.

Hypothesis 4: Academic deans value the perceived innovation practices more positively than academic staff do.

Hypothesis 5: Explorative innovation practices are positively related to the dominant culture type.

Hypothesis 6: Organizational Learning Dimensions have a significantly positive effect on explorative innovation.

3. Method

The quantitative research design aimed mainly to analyze the group differences and the relationships between OC (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011; Kluge & Ganter, 2010), LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003; Yang et al., 2004; Kortsch & Kauffeld, 2019) and EI (Jansen et al., 2006) in the context of German HEI.

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011) is used to assess the six dimensions of organizational culture in context of German HEIs to analyze the perceptions of highly skilled academic deans and academic staff. The OCAI has been conducted in several countries, cultures and organizations and addresses suitable psychometric standards of consistency, reliability and validity (David, Valas & Raghunathan, 2018). The OCAI has demonstrated validity in numerous studies across the landscape of HEIs (e.g., Fralinger & Olson, 2007). To avoid cultural bias and item bias, we conduct a German translated version of the OCAI (Kluge & Ganter, 2010).

The Dimensions of the Learning Organization Questionnaire (DLOQ, Marsick & Watkins, 2003) addresses organizational learning and has been used in several international research studies and has been applied to several cultures in different contexts (Kim & Marsick, 2013). There are two versions of the DLOQ. We conducted the 21-item version of the DLOQ (Yang et al., 2004) which is abbreviated

from the original 41-item version. It still possesses validity and reliability. To avoid cultural bias and item bias, we conducted a German translated version of the DLOQ (Kortsch & Kauffeld, 2019). As far as we know, the short version of DLOQ has never been tested in context of German HEI. The hard copy version was used to avoid response bias.

Explorative Innovation was measured using the validated items proposed in Jansen et al. (2006). This scale is widely used in research studies on firm level explorative innovation (Jansen et al. 2006; Yang & Li, 2011). The scale captures the degree to which organizations create innovations that allow for exploring new products and services. As far as we know, the explorative innovation scale has never been tested in context of German HEIs.

The data were collected with an online (SoSci) and hard copy questionnaires. The applied tool for data analysis was SPSS, Version 25. All items were scaled on a 6-Point Likert-Scale from 1 (do not agree at all) to 6 (completely agree).

The primary data analysis techniques employed by this study are descriptive statistics, reliability test (Cronbach 1951, $\alpha \geq 0.60$ is accepted), analysis of variance (T-Test) and correlation analysis. T-Test is used to test for differences between two independent groups. Mann-Whitney-U Test analysis of variance is the nonparametric counterpart of T-Test. If data violate the assumptions of T-Test, then Mann-Whitney-U Test will be used to verify the mean differences. The homogeneity of variances was tested by the Levene test. Normality was tested by Kolomogorov-Smirnov. Due to the central limit theorem, the sampling distribution will be normal or nearly normal, when the sample size is large enough (N>30). To avoid further item-bias the term 'organization' is replaced by 'university' and 'unit' by 'faculty'. To avoid method bias (Van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004) clear instructions for answering the items were given to increase the familiarity with the used response procedure. The relationships between perceived organizational culture and learning organization as well explorative innovation were tested by using Pearson´s Correlation (1-tailed).

4. Results

To test our hypotheses, we constructed a sample by using different sources of data. The participants were recruited during a period of five months (from June to October 2019) from events taking place at HEIs throughout Germany. The events where the study took place were selected with regard to the target groups to ensure that the academic deans and academic staff were working at the same university. The questionnaire was made available to about 100 academic deans and 180 academic staff out of about 54 German HEIs as a hard copy or as a link to an online questionnaire by e-mail for

participation. The participation was voluntary, and anonymity was ensured. The response was 82 evaluable questionnaires (31 dean and 51 academic staff, response rate of 29 %).

For each group we calculated the OCAI score and then analyzed the data using two different approaches: 1.) group comparison, 2.) Correlation analysis. There has been some criticism regarding the data allocation to one culture type (Aier, 2012). Namely, we reduced our data to one specific dominant cultural type and thus neglected the fact that the HEIs typically have some scores in all four types of culture. However, the identification of the dominant culture type is useful for our purpose to analyze the assumed differences in perceived LO and EI.

Cronbach's alpha values of six OCAI dimensions, the seven DLOQ dimensions and EI scale are acceptable for our study (Table 2).

Table 2: OCAI, DLOQ and EI: Cronbach alpha, means and standard deviations (N=82)

		Academic Deans		Academic Staff	
	α	M	SD	M	SD
OCAI Dimensions					
1. Dominant Characteristics	.81	3.10	0.61	3.14	0.57
2. Organizational Leadership	.89	3.06	0.79	2.86	0.71
3. Management of Employees	.88	3.23	0.79	2.87	0.72
4. Organizational Glue	.76	3.37	0.53	3.33	0.55
5. Criteria for Success	.77	3.08	0.57	3.05	0.60
6. Strategic Emphasis	.82	3.35	0.65	3.13	0.62
DLOQ Dimensions					
1. Continuous Learning	.85	3.15	0.91	3.20	1.04
2. Inquiry and Dialogue	.91	3.29	1.00	3.05	1.22
3. Collaboration and Team Learning	.91	3.39	1.15	3.05	1.05
4. Provide Strategic Leadership for Learning	.88	3.26	1.01	2.74	1.12
5. Systems to Capture Learning	.71	2.86	0.88	2.50	0.98
6. Empower People	.85	3.30	1.18	3.17	1.09
7. Connect the Organization	.85	3.31	1.09	3.20	1.11
Explorative Innovation	.90	3.07	1.00	2.79	0.87

To identify the dominant culture, we analyzed the mean scores of four culture types. The data indicates the highest mean score for hierarchy culture (M=3.37, SD=0.55) from the perspective of academic deans and academic staff (Table 3). Thus hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Table 3: Organizational Culture Type: Cronbach alpha, means and standard deviations (N=82)

		Academic Deans		Academic Staff	
Organizational Culture Types	α	M	SD	M	SD
1. Clan Culture	.94	3.28	0.84	3.03	0.76
2. Adhocracy Culture	.93	2.85	0.81	2.83	0.66
3. Market Culture	.84	3.15	0.54	3.10	0.57
4. Hierarchy Culture	.84	3.51	0.56	3.28	0.53

We conducted a t-test for six OCAI dimensions to analyze group differences. The data indicates that there was a significant difference (t(81)=2.15, p=0.035, d=0.48) in the scores for 'Management of Employees' in the groups of academic deans (M=3.32, SD=0.79) and academic staff (M=2.87, SD=0.72).

To substantiate our findings, we conducted the non-parametric Mann-Whitney-U test with the following results: 'Management of Employees' (U= 567.50, Z=-2.25, p=0.012) and 'Strategic Emphasis' (U= 627.50, Z=-1.68, p=0.046).

To test Hypotheses 2 and 4 we conducted an independent-sample T-Test to compare the perceived LO and EI practices from the perspective of academic deans and academic staff (Table 4).

Table 4: T-Test OL and EI (N=82)

	Academic Deans		Academic Staff			
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
DLOQ Dimensions						
1. Continuous Learning	3.15	0.91	3.20	1.04	-0.20	0.842
2. Inquiry and Dialogue	3.29	1.00	3.05	1.22	0.94	0.351
3. Collaboration and Team Learning	3.39	1.15	3.05	1.05	1.36	0.179
4. Provide Strategic Leadership for	3.26	1.01	2.74	1.12	2.11	0.038
5. Systems to Capture Learning	2.86	0.88	2.50	0.98	1.69	0.095
6. Empower People	3.30	1.18	3.17	1.09	5.12	0.610
7. Connect the Organization	3.31	1.09	3.20	1.11	4.36	0.664
Explorative Innovation	3.07	1.00	2.79	0.87	1.31	0.275

The Levene test as a precondition of T-Test was non-significant. The assumption of the homogeneity of variances has been violated. The Mann-Whitney-U Test will be used to verify the mean differences. The results indicate significant mean differences for 'Collaboration and Team Learning', 'Provide Strategic Leadership for Learning' and 'Systems to Capture Learning' (Table 5). Therefore Hypotheses 2 and 4 are partial supported.

Table 5: Mann-Whitney-U OL and EI (N=82)

	Academic Deans		Academic Staff				
	M	SD	M	SD	U	Z	p
DLOQ Dimensions							
1. Continuous Learning	3.15	0.91	3.20	1.04	776.00	-0.14	0.446
2. Inquiry and Dialogue	3.29	1.00	3.05	1.22	689.50	-0.97	0.167
3. Collaboration and Team Learning	3.39	1.15	3.05	1.05	619.50	-1.64	0.050
4. Provide Strategic Leadership for	3.26	1.01	2.74	1.12	583.50	-1.99	0.023
5. Systems to Capture Learning	2.86	0.88	2.50	0.98	616.50	-1.67	0.047
6. Empower People	3.30	1.18	3.17	1.09	724.00	-0.64	0.263
7. Connect the Organization	3.31	1.09	3.20	1.11	748.50	-0.40	0.345
Explorative Innovation	3.07	1.00	2.79	0.87	628.00	-1.56	0.060

To test Hypotheses 3, 5 and 6 we correlated LO dimensions and the EI scale with the dominant culture type. For this analysis we measure each of the OC type with separate variables instead of splitting the data into four culture types (Aier, 2012). Due to the central limit theorem, the sampling distribution will be normal or nearly normal, because the sample sizes are large enough (N>30). The following table (Table 6) shows the relationships between the cultural Dimensions (OCAI), Learning Organizations Dimensions (DLOQ) and explorative innovation scale (Jansen et al., 2006).

Table 6. Correlations dominant culture, OCAI, DLOQ and EI (N=82)

Constructs	Correlations														
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Hierarchy Culture	-														
2. Dominant Characteristics	.68**	-		-											
3. Organizational Leadership	.68**	.87**	-												
4. Management of Employees	.68**	.78**	.86**	-											
5. Organizational Glue	.75**	.81**	.79**	.77**	-										
6. Criteria for Success	.67**	.71**	.73**	.69**	.80**	-									
7. Strategic Emphasis	.69**	.73**	.77**	.71**	.76**	.79**	-								
8. Continuous Learning	.48**	.60**	.65**	.71**	.66**	.56**	.63**	-							
9. Inquiry and Dialogue	.55**	.69**	.82**	.78**	.71**	.66**	.70**	.77**	-						
10. Collaboration, Team	.48**	.67**	.73**	.66**	.68**	.59**	.67**	.60**	.77**	-					
11. Strategic Leadership	.59**	.64**	.75**	.75**	.63**	.60**	.63**	.66**	.75**	.70**	-				
12. Systems to Capture	.57**	.62**	.69**	.69**	.64**	.62**	.65**	.43**	.56**	.60**	.66**	-			
13. Empower People	.43**	.67**	.71**	.71**	.67**	.62**	.66**	.65**	.76**	.80**	.75**	.61**	-		
14. Connect the Organization	.39**	.63**	.65**	.59**	.61**	.60**	.61**	.62**	.67**	.72**	.69**	.58**	.79**	-	
15. Explorative Innovation	.45**	.56**	.56**	.52**	.52**	.58**	.57**	.50**	.54**	.53**	.48**	.31**	.59**	.56**	-

N=82, * p < .05; ** p < .01.

The data indicates that all OCAI dimensions are strongly positively related to DLOQ dimensions and EI scale. The correlation coefficients range between r=0.31, p<0.01 and r=0.82, p<0.01. There are relatively strong positive correlations between 'Organizational Leadership' and 'Inquiry and Dialogue' (r=0.82, p<0.01). The data indicates weak correlations between the dominant culture type and 'Connect the Organization' (r=0.39, p<0.01). The data suggest strong correlations between 'Criteria for Success' and EI (r=0.58, p<0.01) and relatively weak correlations between 'Organizational Glue' and EI (r=0.52, p<0.01). Regarding DLOQ and EI, the data indicate strong correlations between 'Empower People' and EI (r=0.59, p<0.01) and relatively weak correlations between 'Systems to Capture Learning' and EI (r=0.31, p<0.01). The hypotheses 3 and 5 are supported. All DLOQ dimensions are positively related to EI scale. Thus hypothesis 6 is supported.

5. Limitation and Future Research

The main limitation is the cross-institutional design of the empirical data which does not allow for the verification of the causality of the results. We focus on academic deans and academic staff. The results do not offer detailed insights into an organization specific OC and LO as well as EI activities, but it reveals insights into the specific HEI context. More research is needed on the group level in HEI to offer insights in perceived culture, LO and EI practices from the perspective of different stakeholder groups, e.g. academic staff and administrative staff. In our study we focus on explorative innovation practices. Addressing explorative and exploitative innovation practices and their balance towards innovation outcomes by considering a balanced culture would offer further insights in the context of HEI. The influence of national culture seems to play a relevant role when developing culturally based learning organizations and coordinating explorative innovation practices. We interpret our results in the context of German values. Comparative studies on national values in relation to LO and EI would provide further insights on this topic. In order to avoid common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003)

we asked different subjects on dependent and independent variables and use more than one person per examination unit as a subject. A common-method bias can generally not be ruled out in this research.

6. Discussion

The scope of this study was to explore the OC (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) centered aspects of HEIs, in particular the LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and EI (Jansen et al. 2006) activities of highly skilled professionals, to confirm the relationships of the selected domains and feedback processes in our metaphorical framework and to interpret our findings in relation to the institutional environments.

Our study provides empirical evidence that there is an existing relationship between OC (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011), LO (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and EI activities (Jansen et al., 2006) in context of German HEI. Empirically we extend the work of LO and Innovation capacity scholars who have employed a culturally independent view on the relationships between LO and EI practices in context of German HEI. In addition, this study offers an extension of the OCAI measurement approach by emphasizing a cultural balance when coordinating EI activities and developing LOs in context of HEI. The outcome of this study contributes empirically to the configuration model of organizational culture research by confirming the relationships between the organizational culture, strategy and phenomenological entities as well its feedback processes towards desired goals (Dauber et al. 2012).

Our data indicate a low balanced OC in context of HEI. Deans, as faculty leaders, and academic staff perceive hierarchy culture as the dominant culture type, which is characterized by a highly formalized and structured work environment. Therefore, our first hypothesis is not confirmed. The dominant culture can foster both, but can also act as a barrier for LO and EI activities. Specifically, academic deans should be aware of their dominant culture type and their characteristics and choose the appropriate approach towards LO and EI activities. The results reveal that the highest level of LO and EI activities is achieved in HEIs with the Clan Culture type, whereas HEIs achieving the lowest level of LO and innovation activities appear to have a Hierarchy Culture, as measured by the culture classification of Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011). HEIs need to develop the capability to shift emphases from control orientation towards collaboration and creation orientation in the operating core to meet the requirements of LO and EI practices. The dynamic equilibrium of the competing values seems to play an important role in creating LO and coordinating EI practices. We suggest that adequate balanced composition of hierarchy, clan, adhocracy and market culture would perform better on enhancing LO activities and innovation outcomes.

The DLOQ questionnaire (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) and the EI items proposed by Jansen et al. (2006) were tested for the first time in context of HEI. Our study indicates significant differences in the perceptions regarding 'Collaboration and Team Learning', 'Strategic Leadership for Learning', 'Systems to Capture Learning' (Marsick &Watkins, 2003) and 'Management of Employees' as well as 'Strategic Emphasis' (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). As expected, academic deans scored higher in these dimensions than academic staff did. The significantly higher rating can be explained by the role ambiguity and special responsibilities for the development of LO and coordinating EI. Leadership, management of employees and strategic emphasis are constructs that perhaps are most meaningfully reflected in the roles and responsibilities of academic deans, while academic staff are working relatively freely from the administrative hierarchy in the loosely coupled operating core (Weick, 1976; Mintzberg, 1980), fulfilling their main tasks research and teaching. Academic deans working in the thin middle line between the operating core and the strategic apex (Mintzberg, 1980) and making sure that organizational choices provided are in cohesion with the academic staff, the administrative units and the overall vision of the HEI.

Academic deans and academic staff have significantly different perceptions of 'Systems to Capture Learning' and 'Collaboration and Team learning' (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). Academic staff indicate a lower encouragement to share knowledge through collaboration and learning via systems to capture learning than academic deans do. Academic staff perceive that LO practices are less embedded in systems, structures and practices. The differences in the perceptions of the groups can also be explained by poor vertical communication styles and characteristics of the dominant OC type. 'Management of Employees' and 'Organizational Leadership' (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) have strong relations to 'Systems to Capture Learning' and 'Collaboration and Team Learning'. Therefore, it can be concluded that the causality lies in the interaction of the two interactive components of change and development proposed by Yang, et al. (2004): People and structure (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). We suggest that HEIs need to develop the capacity to integrate people and structures in order to direct the OL practices towards continuous learning and change.

Institutional environment is related to cultural and normative pressures which guide social behaviour (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2003). Hence, institutionalism is a useful lens to interpret our findings from a national culture perspective. We focus our interpretation on 'Individualism', 'Uncertainty Avoidance' (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001) and 'Intellectual and Affective Autonomy' (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007), because they are likely to affect the perceptions of organizational culture with regard to LO and EI activities. Germany belongs to a world region, which is highest on 'Intellectual and Affective Autonomy' compared to 76 national groups (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). According to Hofstede

(Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001) Germany scores high in 'Uncertainty Avoidance' and 'Individualism', compared to other national cultures (e.g. Netherlands and Denmark).

Germany belongs to individual cultures with a high degree of intellectual autonomy that encourage people to pursue their own high potential ideas independently (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2007). The individual intellectual achievements are more rewarded than group achievements. In individualistic societies the task comes first, and the relationships may come afterwards (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001). The individual ties between individuals are loose. With regard to EI activities individualism goes along with the imagination of new ideas, but at one point in time, when it comes to implementation and commercialization, interdependence emerges, and a more collectivistic undertaking is required. Explorative innovation projects, which are, by definition, complex and of high risk, require collaboration and networking skills on the intra-organizational level as well as in interaction with the broader stakeholder environment (Freeman, 1984; Jones et al., 1997).

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which the members of a national society feel threatened by ambiguous and uncertain situations (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001). Members of uncertainty avoiding societies believe in formalization and regulations. Innovations do take more time than in uncertainty acceptance societies. HEIs operating within a culture of high uncertainty avoidance are usually characterized by formal structures and regulations that shape the organizational behaviour of their members. The dependence of their behaviour to formal structure and rules may discourage taking risks and creative problem solving. With regard to our findings, LO and EI activities in an uncertainty avoidance society might have lower innovation performance compared to countries with low uncertainty avoidance scores.

Our findings were matched to our metaphorical framework configuration model of organizational culture (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Configuration model of organizational culture including OCAI, DLOQ and Explorative Innovation
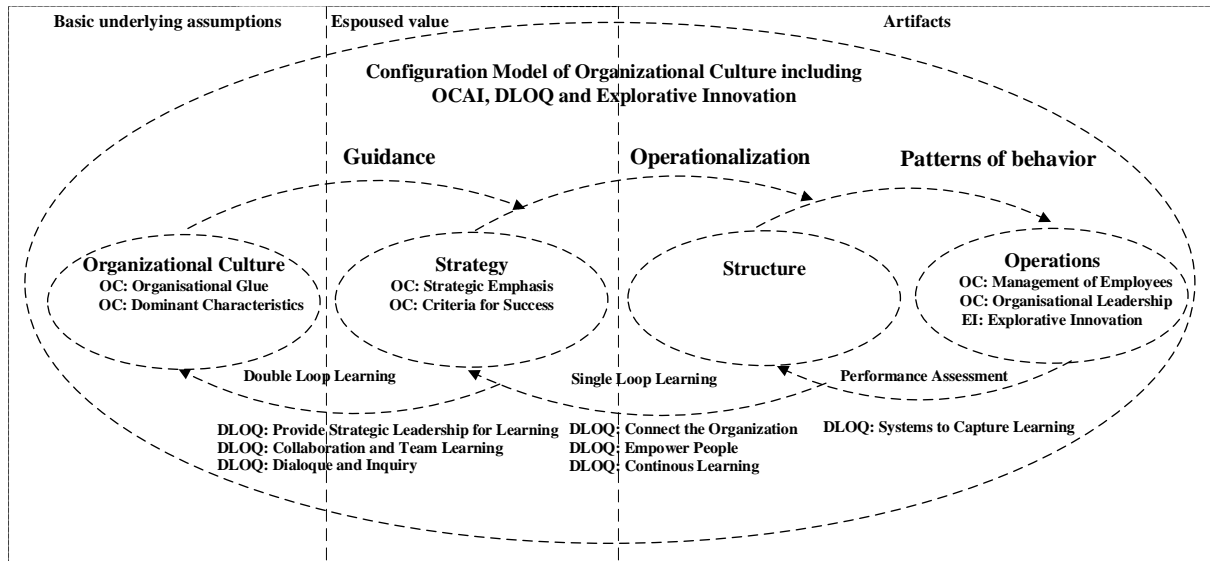
A dynamic cultural equilibrium that provide stability and meaning to social behaviour is a decisive factor in attaching importance to developing LO and coordinating EI activities for German HEIs. A culturally supported base of legitimacy is expressed by its values, goals and strategies through structures and operations in relation to the dynamic and complex environments.

7. Practical Implications

The outcome of this study is useful for HEIs, in particular for academic deans who attempt to develop an organizational culture which fosters LO and EI activities. Hierarchical culture may act as a barrier to learning organization and explorative innovation practices. Understanding and handling dynamic and complex internal and external environments in the context of a German HEI thus presupposes a holistic perspective of the organizational culture. Neglecting the cultural perspective in a higher education context would limit the abilities to face the complexity and dynamics of the external environments. We suggest that a balanced organizational culture composed of adhocracy, market, clan and hierarchy might foster more learning organizations and explorative activities in context of HEIs than one dominant cultural type.

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Section: Doctoral Papers

Cultural intelligence - Learnings from exchange programs from an Indian business school

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Abstract

In this study, we have reflected upon the experience and expectations of the students to understand their cultural cognition and the development of cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence is the knowledge and skills developed in a specific cultural context through cultural metacognition (Thomas et al., 2008) which allows people to adapt to, select, and shape the cultural aspect of different environments (Earley et al., 2006). Through semi-structured interviews around the academic and non – academic experiences of students, we reflected on the development of their cultural intelligence. Also, by contrasting the experience of this intercultural training with their expectations, we propose to develop a standardized coverage of content and exposure that can be ingrained systematically in intercultural training programs.

Keywords: Cultural intelligence, Social interaction, Cultural metacognition, Cross-cultural Adjustment, Cross-cultural Management, Cross-cultural skills, Intercultural training, Social skills, Cultural competence,

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Introduction

Advances in Technology and communication had created an integrated world of business driven by Multinational companies doing business without boundaries being leaded and managed by the same core team. For successful interactions across cultures and geographies, one thing that is as important as the business acumen and the technology infrastructure of these firms is the Cultural Intelligence (Triandis et al., 2006) of their managers. Even if the teams are to function virtually, coordination is needed to understand the dilemmas on other ends. Trust building is necessary for cohesion, team identity, and overcoming isolation among virtual team members, and timely guidance is an important key (Krikman et al., 2002). While research on Sabre was exhaustive to develop instructive guidelines to cope up with these challenges, there is still a long way to go for adaptation of those lessons and absorbing them into cultural training, and various institutions across the globe are working on intercultural training for students and professionals including CEMS. The Global Alliance in Management Education or CEMS (formerly the Community of European Management Schools and International Companies) is a global alliance of academic and corporate institutions dedicated to educating and preparing the future generation of International Business leaders. Founded in Europe in 1988, the CEMS alliance now comprises 31 member schools on every continent, delivering the CEMS Masters in International Management around the world. Indian Institute of Management – Calcutta (IIMC) is one of these 31 B-Schools participating in the CEMS MiM program where the selected candidates from IIM – Calcutta go as exchange program students to the other 30 participating institutions for one exchange term. While there is already much competition to get into IIM-Calcutta for its prestigious MBA program, there is an internal competition among students too to be able to go for CEMS. To put this competition into perspective, it is to be noted that the acceptance rate at the oldest 3 IIMs, i.e. Ahmedabad, Bangalore, and Calcutta is close to 0.25 percent compared to 7 percent at the Graduate School of Business at Stanford and 13 percent at Harvard Business School making

these institutions the toughest B-schools to get into in the world (Bloomberg 2013). The students admitted here are crème de la crème of the country with high CAT percentiles and having done well in academics throughout their academic career. While this is the range of acceptance at these schools, the environment inside is highly competitive too, and people compete with each other for everything available for grab be it summer internships, jobs, scholarships, seats in exchange programs, and CEMS program. The institute had structured a comprehensive process that evaluates candidates based on their merits, statement of purpose, their academic excellence along with some points for having international work experience. Out of more than 70 applicants from the first-year PGP program at IIM – Calcutta, 30 students are shortlisted to represent IIM-Calcutta, and they go to the other 30 participating institutions for the exchange term. In that term, even IIM – Calcutta receives a total of 30 students from these institutions.

This study is an attempt to understand the cultural meta-cognition and action orientation of CEMS students after they had spent a semester abroad. The choice of CEMS students among multiple exchange programs here was made to get a homogenous sample of students. Also, since CEMS is an institutionalized exchange program, there was scope for us to get structured data and continue to this research over multiple years to construct theories that can be tested over time. Management education aims to develop skills, knowledge and business network of professional and aspiring managers. However, with the expanding impact of global businesses, educational institutions are increasingly focusing on imparting cross-cultural exposure to their students (Eisenberg et al., 2013). The aim therein is to prepare culturally intelligent professionals capable of working successfully across geographies. Top business schools across Europe and Asia have adopted Student Exchange programs as an integral part of their curriculum. Global Alliance in Management Education (CEMS) is one such alliance of academic and corporate institutions comprising 32 member schools existing across all continents. With a pre-defined curriculum, they exchange students for one semester with each other. This study is to understand the cultural cognition of CEMS students from the Indian Institute of Management Calcutta (IIM-C). We focus on the development of students' cultural metacognition (Thomas et al., 2008) and action orientation through semi-structured interviews about their academic and non – academic experiences in the exchange semester. We also attempt to understand the power distance (among students and professors), group dynamics (among native and exchange students), and the experience of foreignness for the students for whom this was the first experience of being abroad. As the full semester exchange programs provide an intensive immersive cultural experience, the qualitative data we collected through interviews with 15 students is rich in terms of emotions, expressions, and expectations. Contrasting the experiences with expectations of the students also allows us to identify the gaps in intercultural training programs. This would help to work towards a

standardized coverage of cultural content and exposure, the institutionalization of which in intercultural training programs would improve the learning and living experiences of participants.

Literature Review

Organizational Culture had been a long term focus for Organizational scholars (Schein 1990) with Porter (1966) focusing on Managerial values. Intelligence is another interesting construct that is used to predict and understand the performance of individuals in a broad range of occupations with renewed interest in nonacademic intelligence like emotional intelligence (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and practical intelligence (e.g., Sternberg, 1996). Kok-Yee NG (2006) had done an excellent work of integrating the emic and etic of culture and Intelligence as shown in the diagram below.
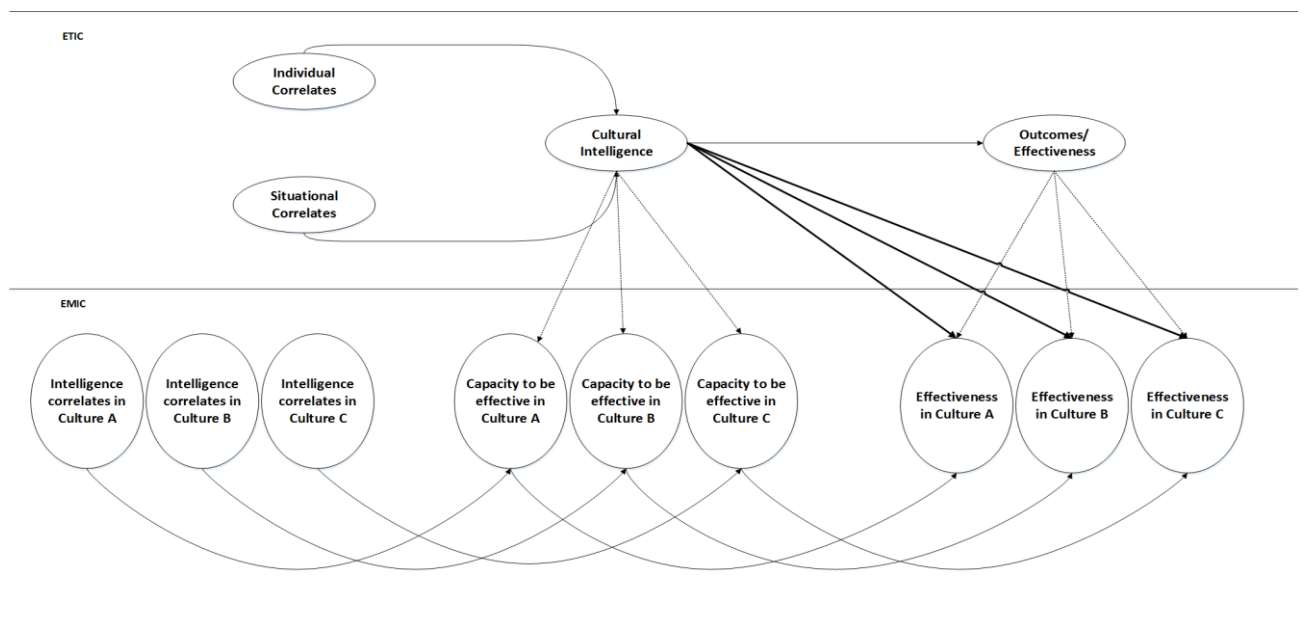

Figure 1 : A Framework for Integrating Emic and Etic Perspectives of Intelligence

Figure 1 - Kok-Yee NG (2006)

The conceptualization of Cultural intelligence began as an attempt to understand the interindividual differences in the ability to adapt effectively to new cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas & Inkson, 2004) and Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualized cultural intelligence to comprise four facets: metacognition (cognitive strategies to acquire and develop coping strategies), cognition (knowledge about different cultures), motivation (desire and self efficacy), and behavior (repertoire of culturally appropriate behaviors). This conceptualization had been extensively discussed and elaborated by David Livermore in his book *Leading with cultural intelligence: The real secret to success (2015)*. Another valuable conceptualization came from David Thomas, where he conceptualized Cultural

intelligence to be lying at the intersection of Knowledge, Mindfulness, and Behavior. However going further we shall be using Cultural Intelligence as conceptualized in his 2008 paper, where Cultural Intelligence is conceived as *knowledge and skills that are developed in a specific cultural (cross-cultural) context, but the effectiveness of which in the production of culturally intelligent behavior is dependent on a culture general process element called cultural metacognition* and is defined as "*a system of interacting knowledge and skills, linked by cultural metacognition, that allows people to adapt to, select, and shape the cultural aspects of their environment*" (Thomas et al. 2008).

Measurement and Validity Analysis

To measure cultural intelligence, the three dimensions of cultural knowledge cross-cultural skills coma and cultural metacognition have been defined separately by the authors. Cultural knowledge is the declarative or content-specific and general process knowledge of the effect of culture on one's own nature or the nature of others. Cultural skills consist of skills associated with learning from social experience, appreciating critical differences in culture and background between oneself and others, relating successfully with culturally different others, and being able to adapt behavior appropriate to the particular cultural situation. Since this dimension of the definition of cultural skills is vast, the authors use the traditional psychometric approach for item reduction with a clear goal to not increase internal consistency reliability in some artificial way. Eighty-four initial items where reduce to 24 and the factor analysis resulted in Five skills categories which are relational skills, tolerance of uncertainty, adaptability, empathy and perceptual activity (Hinkin, T. R. (1998)). Cultural metacognition is knowledge of and control over one's thinking and learning activities in a specific domain of cultural experiences and strategies. It functions by regulating cognition, transferring knowledge game in specific experiences to broader principles, focusing cognitive resources, and compensating for individual disadvantages in cultural knowledge or skills. While there had been a lot of development in the literature related to Cultural intelligence, the specification, and measurement for a construct of this scale were methical and full-proof for multiple types of validities developed in this paper by Thomas et al. 2008. They have looked at cultural intelligence the same as general intelligence and theorize it to be a reflective model (Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2006)) where the underlying construct of cultural intelligence is indicated in the measure, as opposed to a formative model in which a latent construct is an index composed of the measures. They used two items for cultural knowledge and captured the complexity of knowledge by the extent of the respondent's experience of cultural difference. All five cultural skill dimensions had one item, and the three facets of cultural metacognition had one item each. The content validity of items was established by matching with theoretical as well as empirical conceptualization of cultural intelligence. Internal consistency

reliability was also established by investigating the Cronbach's Alpha (19. Schmitt, N. (1996), 20. Cortina, J. M. (1993)) and the item-total correlation which is in-line with the idea of reliability being the necessary condition for construct validity. To establish **discriminant validity** they tested the distinction of the CQ scale concerning emotional intelligence and personal traits such as extraversion and openness. The same **nomological network** was used for convergent validity by evaluating the relationship of the scale with ethnocentrism and multicultural experiences (Schwab, D. P. (1980), Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., & Mobley, W. M. (1998)). **Criterion-related validity** was also investigated with the variables that are associated with intercultural effectiveness by items such as whether a person had a close friend from other cultures and with respect to Intercultural adjustment. **Incremental validity** of the scale was examined by predicting job performance among people who work with people from other cultures which can not be accounted for by personality traits and emotional intelligence (Churchill Jr, G. A. (1992)). Another remarkable note before we get deeper into their methods is the coherence of the whole writing and how 13 academicians from Europe, USA, Canada, Australia, Africa, and Asia had come together is an actual display of Cultural Intelligence in action and this variety is what makes Cultural intelligence a culture-independent construct given that the factor structure across is consistent throughout (Conway, J. M., & Huffcutt, A. I. (2003)).

Research Method and Analysis

Our method of data gathering was semi-structured interviews of CEMS students who had returned after their exchange terms. We asked participants to elaborate on their cultural experiences around academic and non-academic aspects and probed deeper into their experience of "foreignness" and contrast it to their expectations and understanding before leaving India for this exchange semester. Each interview lasted about 45 minutes to 90 minutes depending on the availability and interest of the participants to talk about their experiences. We took an audio recording of these interviews with the permission of the participants. The first author had also made a note for himself in terms of the outline on the inquiries to be made during these interviews and a brief summary of what would be as follows: First were the questions about undergraduate college, academic experiences, motivations for MBA and the reflections of experiences here, second was the questions surrounding academic experiences in terms of institutional culture in undergraduate college with respect to faculties, infrastructure, peer group, choice of stream and course pedagogies. A contrast was made in later interviews with undergraduate and postgraduate experiences. The second part of the interview was to understand the motivation to apply for CEMS and exchange programs during MBA studies. This is the part where the expectations were captured. The next and final part of the interview was around the experience of foreignness from participants and usually started with the inquiry of whether it was their first visit to

Europe/other nations or if they had been their before. The discussion was focussed on the kind of immersion that they experienced academically as well as non-academically with contrasting the differences with expectations and experiences of the participants. The life in campus, food, costing, friendliness, differences experienced among people, and the eccentric memorable experiences of their travel. (The focus on Europe is high because all the participants except one went to European universities for their exchange semester).

This part of the study is limited to the CEMS returned post-graduate program participants from IIM – Calcutta who are graduating in the year 2019 and had taken admission to the institute in 2017. The batch profile consisted of 91.6 percent of students with Engineering degrees, 3.2%, 1.7% and 1.5 % of students from Commerce, Arts and Science background respectively with remaining 1.9 percent being others. They have varied work experience from 0 to 48 months with approximately 47 percent less than two years of work experience, 26 percent of students with more than two years of work experience and 26 percent with no work experience at all. The sample of students who had been interviewed here are all CEMS participants who had completed their CEMS exchange term in their respective schools and in this study a trial had been made to understand the contrasting experiences of academics and culture across various institutions in India to those of institutions of CEMS, mainly in European countries. These students come from different background be it their undergraduate studies or the family background or even the location. Our sample of 15 students hailed from Older as well as newer IITs, BITS –Pilani, NITs and colleges like NSIT and Delhi University which is almost the same as that of institutional composition. Our sample group had five females and ten males which is comparatively higher than the institutional ratio of twenty-five percent females. The one dimension where the sample was biased was the undergraduate stream of the students as only two out of fifteen people here were the ones without an Engineering degree. However, this bias can be attributed to the fact mentioned in the student structure of admitted students at IIM – Calcutta where approximately 90 percent of the students are engineers by their undergraduate degrees. The questions asked with the students were mostly about their academic experience and how they are making sense of what they are doing or what they are asked to do by the system inside IIM-Calcutta. The experiences were contrasted in terms of faculties, Course pedagogy, peer group, and evaluation system concerning their experiences at IIM – Calcutta, their undergraduate studies as well as the studies during the exchange semester with CEMS.

Results and Observations

The CEMS program has most of its participating institutes from Europe and the candidates we interviewed, all of them went to CEMS in Europe except the one to Hong Kong. The cultural vastness

of Europe is always exciting to talk about; however, the differences in cultures across the border of even the small countries were generally visible and were identifiable by even first-time travelers. While most of the students found Europe to be a safe place with rich cultural heritage, excellent infrastructure and multiple travel options that they used to exploit on weekends, their network of connection there and the people they spent most of their time with used to be Indians in most of the cases. Even though they described multiple productive conversations with locals and shared the local food and cuisine in the restaurants, the expense limits and the high cost of living made the students live a life of survival than that of luxury. A big reason as described by many students on why they stuck to Indian groups was that Indians understand the difference of cost, and with Europeans, even at nominal outings, the expenses would shoot very high very soon. While the students in Switzerland and Germany found the local students to be sincerer, hardworking and committed to their studies, the students in Italy, France and the Czech Republic (Prague) found the peers more of chilling type with less sincerity towards studies and the efforts they used to make to the group and individual project.

One more notable mention from the IIM Calcutta students was with respect to the peer group and the learning experiences where the consistent comment was that their peer group at IIM – Calcutta was perceived to be much smarter and intelligent than that of their CEMS counterparts and we can attribute the stringent filter criterion at IIM – Calcutta during admissions to be one of the reasons. Also the Masters in Management program in the European B – Schools is different from their MBA programs, and the work experience of those doing Masters in Management is much less on average compared to that in the MBA. While comparing for the professors in their CEMS schools with that of IIM – Calcutta, students found their CEMS school professors to be more practical oriented with less power distance and the class discussions were given a lot more weight as compared to IIM-C. There were specific themes too that could be made out by the students across the courses to figure out the ideas of prime importance which are going on and being discussed in the institutional setups. One such idea was the rise of the Chinese economy and its impact on the European and global job market and wealth of other nations. Another such theme was a concern for environmental change and its impact in the coming decade on the large cities across seashores. A student commented that while in IIM – Calcutta we focus a lot on how things are done in the United States, and we learn and idealize their ways as theory, there we were given weekly problems from one or many industries from their managers and the discussion and focus was on solving those issues in the best possible ways than to memorize specific words and formulas and scoring maximum marks in the examination. One more noteworthy difference was with the perceived friendliness of the professors with respect to European and Indian education system. Comments like "Attitude of professors like authority" and "top-down approach" and "micro-management" were made for Indian professors while professors in most of the European schools were friendly and less bothered about interfering students even in their class

timings. The leniency at times was attributed to the competition in the Indian system and the collectivistic culture of India where the place of a professor and teacher is high in societal order for respect. Also talking about a peer group, a point made about the capabilities of the peer group was that of being extraordinary at communication in general and knowing how to present in all kinds of scenarios. They are described as excellent at conversation starters and very good at making small talks. It's a thing that still makes Indians uncomfortable and they find themselves in awkward scenarios when they are to make small talks. Talking about their presentation skills, they were not only structured in how they present their thoughts but also knew about the timing and sequence in which thoughts are to be presented. But also at the same time, the complaint that the Indian students made in general about their talent were them being slow and the confidence that better work can be done in the group projects in IIM Calcutta overnight than the work and conclusion they used to reach after weeks of work. In a way, the thought prevailed that while the structure is good to have a thing in communication, implementing too much of it in work makes one slow and less productive.

Moving on from academics, some of the shocking experience of students revolved around the places they used to stay as in the hostels or the apartments which used to be sharing. While it is uncommon in India for ladies to share apartments with gents and vice-versa, almost all the students had experience of being ended up with foreigners of different gender and surprisingly they adapted to it without even thinking about it consciously. Also, one lady commented about her experience in mixed hostels that Guys really don't care while changing clothes and they used to be so free that made me uncomfortable. This lady did define herself as extremely conservative at the beginning of the conversation. Another such insight was that in the hostels where multiple people had their beds in the same hall or under the same roof, the couples used to have sex with their dates or with the ones they were committed with without being much bothered about who else is sleeping in the room and while it was common for the Europeans, the Indian students found it to be a shocking cultural difference.

Discussion

While student exchange programs for intercultural training are designed for complete immersive experience (spending full semester in partner institutions) in a different culture, we found that the immersion was limited in multiple senses. The experience of exclusion in academic groups from native students led the foreign students to form their own group and there were cost barriers in mixing outside campus due to the high cost of living in Europe compared to India. We had multiple pieces of evidence suggesting the perceived power distance between the professor and the students to be high in India versus low at their exchange school. Indian students appreciated the communication and articulation abilities of their foreign counterparts while they received reverse appreciation for their sharpness in mathematical and logical aptitude along with the ability to quickly turn around the

projects. While educational campuses at top B-Schools in India are residential, the experience of such students at non-residential foreign campuses was also talked about. Passing the day in the institute premise to work for group projects was compared with the convenience of calling midnight group meetings in hostel rooms (practiced in India). Commonly, the apartment sharing culture in India is to share the other rooms with people from the same gender; sharing the common areas in apartments and dormitories with unrelated people from different gender was also a new experience for Indian students. While these findings have their roots in the difference of native cultures, the perceived metacognition about these experiences definitely made the students more culturally intelligent. These acute observations about cultures in different countries while mixing up with locales (students as well as residents) was definitely a conscious effort by Indian students to work on their networking abilities and cultural intelligence in turn. Also, the linkage of knowledge, skills, and metacognition was at a display at various academic and non-academic experiences that was described by students

Implications

Exposure and participation in intercultural training programs in Management Education at graduation level is an effective method for increasing cultural intelligence among the next generation of managers. While the participants in intercultural training learn a lot about cultural nuances in different countries, the fact that certain basic expectations like inclusion, immersion, and adoption from the host create another void. Also, Inter-cultural encounters and exposure to different cultures in higher education lead to an increase in cultural consciousness and in-effect increase in cultural intelligence. While the participants learned a lot about cultural nuances, they also felt excluded and disconnected from the host culture. These gaps in terms of experiences are something that must be taken care of not only by the exchange management programs and institutions like CEMS but also by the professors and trainers indulged in intercultural training. The affordability issues of students from a developing nation going to developed economies can not really be practically addressed neither the lack of on-campus accommodation facilities. However, the misunderstanding regarding exclusion from the local students from the university even after conscious attempts made my Indian students is a detrimental indicator for the performance of such programs. Provisions can be made for group projects having heterogeneous members with a significant number of local students to ensure good amount of time being spent for networking and cultural building. About the issue of being treated at second category citizens at certain countries' borders in Europe (e.g. Spain. Prague) is again an untreatable deeper societal complex however capture and display by media on such issues can have some positive and eye-opening consequences. The next phase of this research which is in progress will capture the

experiences of the incoming CEMS students at IIM-Calcutta this year and once that is done it may give a better perspective regarding the perceptions that had been discussed in this study.

Footnote - This was the first author's first experience for conducting interviews for research and so there was a lot of learning for the author as well along with invaluable guidance and mentoring from the second author. A lot of discussion in the later interviews revolved and rotated around the insights found in the first few interviews from the participants. For that, I would like to note my humble thanks to the participants and the professor.

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Organizational image and identity: the context of Social Media

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Abstract

Organizations have increasingly adopted the use of social media over the last decade. In this globalized world the need for building an attractive, legitim and distinct organizational image has never been greater. This paper explores how the portrayed organizational image in social media impacts the organizational identity on employees. The study in on the framework of Self-Discrepancy theory and uses a quantitative methodology in the form of a cross-sectional survey design. We will also measure the effects of engagement with corporate social media and identification with the organization will be considered. It provides useful theoretical and practical insights. Theoretically, the stable character of organizational identity is challenged. And in terms of practical implications, results will contribute to enhance internal and external projected organizational image in order to an effective branding and favour human resources management practises.

Keywords: Organizational Image, Organizational Identity, Organizational Identification, Self-Discrepancy Theory, Social Media, Anxiety,

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Introduction

The proliferation of social media within the last decades has brought about a considerable change in the way people communicate, operate and relate. As a consequence, the line between offline and online context is becoming increasingly blurred. To the extent that new generations of teenagers do not no longer distinguish between real life and the online world (Lenhart, 2015). People and company's

presence and prestige online are getting a great importance till the point that it is commonly said that "those who are not in Google, do not exist".

As a consequence, corporates nowadays spend an increasing amount of resources on building attractive, distinct, and legitimate organizational images using corporate branding, corporate communication, or corporate reputation management tools as well as culture management in order to align their organizational behaviour with the strategically communicated "official" self-images. Although these efforts are intentionally directed to external audiences, organizational image blurs the external/internal boundaries of an organization. The portrayed image is not only perceived by outsiders to the organization, but also by its own employees which challenges the conception of what "the organization" is, as these may have a completely different image and perception of the organization. A fact that has been labelled as the ''scattered images'' problem (Price and Gioia, 2008).

Corporate social media channels, through their features and connective capabilities, are not only an essential tool to portray and build a desire image but also to expand to the individuals' conception and construction of their organizational identity. This can have a positive effect, for example, an increase in the induction of employee-organization identification. However, when the image produced by the organization does not correspond to the image employees have about it, this may have negative consequences at the individual and the organizational level. For instance, when an identity conflict can emerge due to the discrepancy between online and offline perceived image it can provoke some negative outcomes on the employees, i.e. perceiving the organization as dishonest, suffering high levels of anxiety or negative emotions.

Thus, this study aims to contribute to one of the debates in the organizational identity literature which is which factors affect the identity creation in the organizational context (Pendse and Ojka, 2017), studying the effects of organizational image and social media. Therefore, we will study how the perceived organizational image have an impact on employee's organizational identity, using a quantitative methodology in the form of a cross-sectional survey design. We will also measure the effects of engagement with corporate social media and identification with the organization will be considered. Finally, we will also analyse how a discrepancy between the organizational portrayed image and the employee perceived image may generate higher levels of psychological anxiety on individuals.

Findings will provide useful theoretical and practical insights. Theoretically, the stable character of organizational identity will be challenged. More specifically, the study aims to provide empirical evidence to the theoretical assumption that organizational identities adapt to external factors associated with an unstable environment in a new context: the social media world. In terms of practical implications, this study will contribute to enhance internal and external projected organizational image

in order to promote the employee branding and favour human resources management practises such as: sourcing and recruiting, onboarding, training or engagement processes.

Review

Image is defined in the Cambridge dictionary as: "the way that other people think someone or something is". From this concept organizational image was coined. Organizational image is often understood as a cognitive construct that comprises the perception of an organization and defined as an impression created in the mind of an audience. As an example, Dowling (1986, p. 10) provides the following definition: "an image is the set of meanings by which an object is known and through which people describe, remember and relate to it. That is, it is the net result of the interaction of a person's belief, ideas, feelings and impressions about an object". However, the definition of organizational image has been contested across the different research traditions and study areas.

Organizational image is a multidisciplinary concept that bridges different areas of study such as: communication, marketing or human resources. Company nowadays spend an increasing amount of resources on building attractive, distinct, and legitimate organizational images using corporate branding, corporate communication, or corporate reputation management tools as well as culture management in order to align their organizational behaviour with the strategically communicated "official" self-images. Although these efforts are intentionally directed at external audiences, organizational image blurs the external/internal boundaries of an organization and challenges the conception of what "the organization" is, a fact that has been labelled as the ''scattered images'' problem (Price and Gioia, 2008).

Research on corporate branding or public relations tend to view organizational images as located among external stakeholders. Organizational image is often labelled "corporate image" and defined as "who others think we are," which is the way the organization is perceived by primarily external audience. Such external organizational image is considered vital in order to build and manage stakeholder relationship, and a positive image is argued to achieve organization legitimacy and a unique brand position, which makes the organization attractive and a "preferred choice" across all stakeholders (Dowling, 1986; Gray and Balmer, 1998; Hatch and Schultz, 2002; Scott and Lane, 2000).

On the other hand, within both management studies and communication studies, scholars point out that images may also be held by the management of the organization. This can involve a visionary perception of the organization, which the management would like both internal and external stakeholders to have at some point in the future, also labelled "desired organizational image" (Scott

and Lane, 2000; Gioia, et al., 2000). To influence the stakeholders, such desired images are often communicated and projected by the organization to its stakeholders in the form of an official "self-image" (Christensen and Askegaard, 2001). When they critically assess if an organizational image matches the realities, the image we refer to is often this official "self-image."

Finally, researchers on a social psychology tradition within organization studies, however, typically view organizational image as located inside the organization. From this internal viewpoint organizational image is defined as "who we think others think we are," often labelled the "construed external image." In other words, it is the organizational members' perception of how outsiders perceive the organization.

Research on construed external images has yielded insight on how such images influence the issue of interpretation (Dutton and Duckerich, 1991) and organizational identification (Dutton et al., 1994) which may be considered a threat to organizational identity (Elsbach and Kramer, 1996), as not always the portrayed image is the organizational image employees have. Frandsen (2017) points that some current debates around this concept concern what creates these images in an organizational context and to whom do the images matter and with what consequences.

In the lights of these questions, this study aims to study in which extent the organizational image portrayed in different social media channels have an impact on the employee's organizational identity.

The concept *organizational identity* was firstly introduced by Albert and Whetten (1985) who conceive organizational identity as the self-reflective question: "Who are we as an organization?" (p. 264). These authors defined organizational identity as the central, distinctive, and enduring character of an organization.

Since Albert and Whetten (1985) conceptualization, many scholars have struggled with definitional issues related to organizational identity and its traits, and especially the trait "enduring" has been questioned (Corley et al., 2006). More recently, He and Brown (2013) categorized this concept according to four different perspectives. First, the classic functionalist that understands organizational identity as an observable fact that it is institutionalized and can be managed. Second, the interpretive view that defines organizational identity as a socially constructed concept that has the purpose of giving meaning to organizational members. Third, the psychodynamic claims that organizational identity is something unknowable and that conscious efforts at defining identity will lack certain unconscious process and as such makes definitions of organizational identity illusionary. And finally, the postmodern lens that implies that organizational identity is a paradoxical and fluid concept that results in a multiplicity of organizational identities.

Our study will be based on a functionalist point of view because we understand organizational image as a tangible construct (e.g. communication on the social media corporate channels) allied with the marketing and strategy literature. Therefore, we are interested in studying how the portrayed organizational image in the social media has an impact on the organizational identity.

One of the debates in the organizational identity literature is the way "identity creation" is conceptualized in the organizational context (Pendse and Ojka, 2017). Some theorists claim that identity is unique to an organization and therefore is internally generated (Albert and Whetten, 1985; Corley et al., 2006). However, others, from an institutional perspective, suggest that identity is impacted by an organization's social environment and hence is externally ascribed (Pratt and Kraatz, 2009). Even though, our study will be more focused on a functionalist perspective, I agree with these two points of view. I believe both internal and external influences are crucial for an organizational identity/self to emerge, but what is more interesting is to understand the processes by which these internal (e.g. identification with the organization) and external influences (e.g. evaluation of projected image) are made to interact as the organizational identity is formed. As a consequence, I discuss the characteristics of the social media environment and how these may influence the way organizational identity is constructed.

One of the main characteristics of the social media environment is that individuals have the freedom of constructing their own identity. Therefore, this freedom gives them the ability to construct an identity that does not necessarily have to be what is defined under the self-discrepancy theory as our "actual-self" (Hu et al, 2015). This freedom of organizational self construction is affected when we refer to organizational image. Organizations portray an image about "what are we as an organization" that may not be understood in the same way by all the members of the organization. And as a consequence, this can create negative feelings (e.g. stress) and negative perceptions about the organization (e.g. see the organization as dishonest).

Under the framework of the Self-Discrepancy Theory (Higgins, 1987, 1989a) that claims that individuals construct their identity to ensure the discrepancy between their actual self and their ideal or ought selves is minimized. Hu et al. (2015, p. 466) suggest that online identities offer an escape from "real-world restraints such as social norms, legislation and responsibilities". As a result, Taylor (2011) proposes that we create our identity using a combination of our self-awareness and also from external conditions and feedback (social online interactions) which we internalize to shape our identity. In addition, the framework of The Self-Discrepancy Theory, claims that the distance between our ideal, real and ought selves should be minimized in order to not suffer negative affect and anxiety (Shah and Higgins, 1997). Therefore, we hypothesize that self-discrepancy positively affects the level of anxiety.

H1: Employees with a higher self-discrepancy will tend to suffer higher levels of anxiety.

Another important characteristic of the social media context is the opportunity to interact with other users and different channels. As previously discussed, there is also a freedom in identity construction online which allows for individuals to construct the "self" in any way they choose. Based on the Social Identity Theory, Meshi et al. (2015) found that one of the motivational drives for individuals to engage in social media was the opportunity they have to manage "the impression the make on others". And social media gives the opportunity "to create, modify, or maintain an impression of themselves in the minds of others" (Ahadzadeh et al., 2017).

A theory that explains how identity is created in the virtual environment is the Self-Enhancement Theory. This theory claims that individuals are driven to represent themselves by a desire to maximize positive and minimize negative impressions on others as "self-enhancement is a central goal of human existence" (Swann et al., 1989). Langman (1998) identified the vital components that shape identity to be: "seeking attachments to others, pursuit of recognition and dignity; feelings of empowerment; avoiding fear and anxiety" (Howard, 2000). Social media, therefore, it is a proper environment to put this theory in place, as stated above, the individuals possess the freedom of adequate their identity in order to make a good impression of themselves. This concept has been coined as *curated self* and it is "digital self-presentation created through an ongoing curatorial process of organizing media elements" [Kasch and Rhoads, (2013), p.2].

However, in the case of organizational identity construction, employees are not fully responsible to portrayed and adequate their image and their identity. The company and its corporate departments are in charge of portrayed an image of employees that may match or mismatch with their own representation of organizational image. Considering both the internal (identification with the organization) and external influences (evaluation of projected image) are essential for an organizational identity/self to emerge, we hypothesize that organizational identification positively affects the overlap of ideal, real, ought selves.

H2: Employees who more strongly identify with their organizations will tend to minimize the self-discrepancy.

Self-presentations methods used by social media users to curate their online self are highly related to the feedback they receive in these channels, which engage them in self-derogating or self-enhancing practices and subsequent to adapt and change their identity (Bareket-Bojmel et al., 2016). This is explained by The Self-Verification Theory that holds that individuals are internally driven to represent themselves according to their own "firmly held self-views" and they do so by "soliciting feedback" from

their social interactions (Swann et al.,1989). In other words, according to this theory, individuals seek to portray themselves in a way so that others view them in congruence with how they internally identify themselves. Brown et al. (1988) suggest that this allows the individual to exert a sense of control over their environment.

So it seems reasonable that engaging with the organization social media profiles as well as with organizational members in the social networks may have an influence on identity construction based on this feedback loop (as they want to create their ideal self through self-representations online, interactions and engagement, they receive feedback the derogates or enhances this self). As Belk (2016) claims: "social media users know themselves through the mirror of other's reaction to them". For this reason, we hypothesize that social media engagement with the organization positively affects individuals' real, ideal and ought selves.

H3: Employees who engage with the organizational social media channels will have a lower self-discrepancy.

As a summary, the relationships between my variables and hypothesis are shown below:
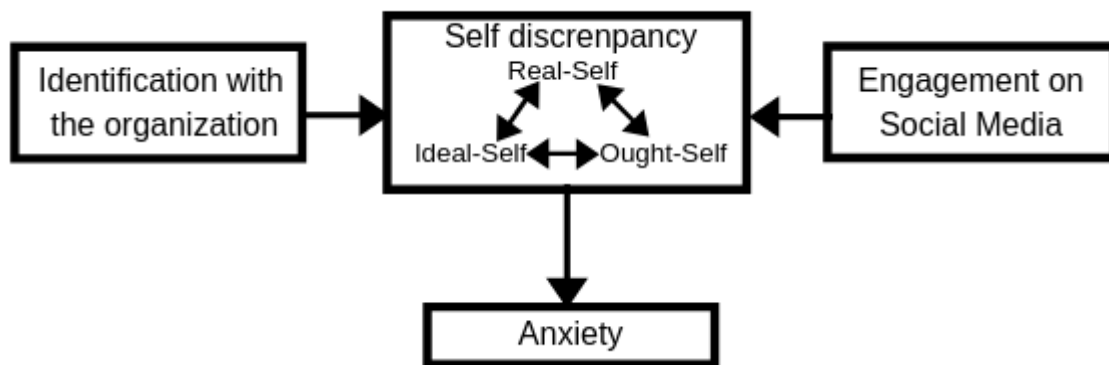
Method

Sample and data collection: The sample of this study will be composed of approximately 40 or 50 employees that belong to a mid-sized engineering company in Spain that currently have offices in six different cities around the country. The demographics of the sample will consist of gender, age range, nationality, tenure, managerial level, work location and highest educational level. The invitation to take part in the survey will be sent electronically to all workers, who were asked to take part in an internet-based survey. The survey will not take more than 10 minutes to be completed and will be based on a Qualtrics platform. The choice of the sample was motivated by engineers and scientist to have a good command of English reading skills and because this company is very active on different

social media channels. I aim to send the questionnaires within the next months and have collected the data in a maximum of 10 days.

Item development: The engagement with the organization in social media will be measure with a set of questions regarding their current use of social media: either they follow the company on social media platforms and three items on a 5-point Likert scale, for which respondents will be asked to state how frequently (from "*very frequently*" to "*never*") they read posts, comment on posts or like posts their company publishes.

The employed measure of organizational identification is derived from Smidts et al. (2001): the scale is composed of 5 elements, ranked on the basis of a 5-point Likert scale ("*I feel strong ties with my company*" "*I experience a strong sense of belonging to my company*" "*I feel proud to work with my company*" "*I am sufficiently acknowledged in my company*" and "*I am proud to work for my company*").

Organizational image is composed of three main dimensions: a social, economic and environmental one. These three dimensions were selected in relation to the Triple Bottom Line model which is a theoretical framework of sustainable development was coined by Elkington (1998) and the foundation of the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility defined as "the degree to which the company adopts social, economic and environmental concerns in their practices or operations" (Hillman and Keim, 2001). Therefore, three dimensions will be measured. Some different statements will be presented to the participants.

For the social dimension the scale is composed of 4 items ("*Is/be concerned with improving the general well-being of society*", "*Take/s direct part of its budget to donation and social work favouring the disadvantaged*", "*Provide/s training and promotion opportunity to its employees*", "*Implement/s flexible policies to provide a good work-life balance for its employees*").

To measure the economic dimension 4 statements will be ranked ("*Keep/s a strict control over its cost*", "*Honestly inform/s about its economic situation to its shareholders*", "*Make/s investment to create a better life for future generations*", "*Target/s sustainable growth which considers future generations*").

And finally to measure the environmental dimension 4 statements will be presented ("*Reduce/s its consumption of natural resources*", "*Have/has a positive predisposition to the use, purchase, or production of environmentally friendly goods*", "*Exploit/s renewable energy in a productive process*

compatible with the environment", "*Is/be concerned with respecting and protecting the natural environment*").

Participants will be asked about these statements preceding by "Your ideal company…" (ideal-self). Secondly, they will be asked "Your current company…" (real-self). And finally "Companies should…" (ought-self). All these 12 statements will be rated on a 5-point Likert scale the rating will rank from "*Totally agree*" to "*Not agree at all*".

To measure the degree of anxiety the Generalized Anxiety Disorder 7-item (GAD-7) scale will be used. Participants will be asked to answer in which degree they have been bothered by the following problems over the last 2 weeks ("*Feeling nervous, anxious, or on edge*", "*Not being able to stop or control worrying*", "*Worrying too much about different things*", "*Trouble relaxing*", "*Being so restless that it's hard to sit still*", "*Becoming easily annoyed or irritable*", "*Feeling afraid as if something awful might happen*").This items will be assessed using a 4-point Likert scale ("Not at all sure", "Several days", "Over half the days", "Nearly every day").

Data analysis: This study will use a quantitative methodology. The collected data will be analysed by using a cross-sectional approach. To ensure the feasibility of the study, accordingly factor analysis will be employed to ensure the internal consistency. Data will be analysed using the software SPSS.

Results

Results will be provided in the following weeks, once all the data will be properly analysed.

Discussion

We aim this study to have important theoretical and practical implications. We will contribute to the organizational identity literature by studying this concept in a not much explored context, the social media environment. Also, we will provide important methodological contributions, as most of research to the date have been based in a social constructivist framework using qualitative methodological methods. However, we will study our constructs using a quantitative methodology in the form of a cross-sectional survey design. Finally, we will provide solid empirical evidence to the theoretical assumption that organizational identities are not only associated to internal factors, in our case organizational identification, but also to external ones, engagement on social media corporate channels.

In terms of practical implications, and considering some important attributes of most companies nowadays in this globalised world which are: first, the interdependencies among departments and the

flat structures companies have; and second, the blurred lines between the insiders and outsiders, and the real and online world, we aim to bring practical contributions that make an impact on different departments on the organization holistically. More specifically, important contributions would be proposed to the management team, human resource department and marketing and communication teams.

Company management can benefit from these insights in many ways. First the questionnaire could serve as an important tool to analyse the way the organization is perceive by the workforce and what they expectations are. Knowing this, they can draw important action plans to try to minimize the gap and take some actions that meet employees' expectations in order to improve their satisfaction with the company and leadership team. As a result, this insight can be very useful to restate the organizational values, culture, vision or mission to a more realistic way.

Secondly, this study will have important practical contributions for the human resources department. It will help to improve the different processes of the employee journey within the company. From the criteria and practises use in recruitment, selection and onboarding processes, to mentoring, training and succession plan programmes. It will also contribute to the team level, where team dynamics and organizational structures can be enhanced in order to meet the congruence between how the company is perceived and is experienced. Occupational psychologist working in human resources department will also benefit from these findings as they would more precisely know what can create anxiety on the employees, this will improve their evaluation practises and therefore, their interventions.

Finally, marketing and communication teams can improve their practises thanks to the insights this study aims to provide. This will help them to produce an honest corporate image to external and internal audiences, helping them to create more efficient employer and employee branding campaigns, to better position the corporate brand online and offline and to be perceived as a more attractive brand for potential clients, partners or candidates.

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Connecting strategies: Leadership on bridging cultural differences in ethnic diverse teams

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Abstract

Stimulating effective cooperation in ethnic diverse teams has become a day-to-day business challenge for organisations. The level of success of diverse teams is highly depending on the skills of team members to connect and deal effectively with cultural differences. As a consequence, the ability to connect and bridge cultural differences has become a fundamental skill to master for any team leader wanting to survive in a global environment. This paper puts forward the following reasons for evidence based research on the process of connecting strategies: 1) Diversity management up till now has mainly been focussing on controlling differences instead of making effective use of differences 2) In order to make use of differences, it is stated that more leadership on bridging interventions in ethnic diverse teams is necessary 3) Although scientific data on the ingredients for bridging have been put forward by several leading researchers, the actual process on how these ingredients can be applied in a comprehensive approach, needs more research.

Keywords: cross cultural cooperation –diversity management- intercultural effectivity – inclusive leadership – bridging – aligning cultural differences

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Introduction

Both neuroscientists (Casey and Robinson, 2017) as well as social psychologists (Tajfel & Turner, 1986 & Byrne, 1971) show strong evidence for the fact that being biased towards 'the other' is a natural 'first instinct' inclination. That in order to overcome biases, we need to consciously manage our unconscious bias. (Robinson, 2019). Purposeful interventions are needed in order to influence the motivation to connect with a person who is not similar. Specific bridging interventions are recommended in order to stimulate effective performance in ethnic diverse teams. In 2007 Putnam expressed that one of the most important challenges facing modern societies, and at the same time one of our most significant opportunities, is the increase in ethnic and social heterogeneity. And more evidence based knowledge on connecting strategies: the set of interventions that stimulate intercultural effectivity in ethnic diverse teams, is of great importance for organisations dealing with diversity. And also Gelfand says: ''In a world that offers global opportunities as well as global threats, understanding and managing cultural differences have become necessities.'' (Gelfand, 2007:498)

Not organising cultural diversity can contribute to: a lack of organizational coherence (Ansell, Reckhow and Kelly, 1998: in Braunstein,2014) and undermine social cohesion (Putnam, 2007). Nair shows that 'diversity that is not organised is linked to negative outcomes such as personnel issues, costs due to harassment and discrimination, lower commitment, inhibited decision making and turnover (Nair, 2015:8). From the other side, well managed diversity creates benefits like: increased organizational innovation, legitimacy and strategic capacity. (Braunstein, 2014).

Considerable amount of research has been done on the topic of diversity management. However most of the focus has been on the extent and impact of team diversity rather than on the way diversity is best managed, says Adler (2018). Adler further stresses that 'skills needed to both recognise the most appropriate approach and the ability to successfully implement it, need to be identified, validated and learned by managers in the field.' (Adler, e.a., 2018:319).

Bridging: the process of organising differences

Braunstein, Fulton and Wood (2014: 705) claim that "bridging cultural practices serve as a key mechanism through which racially and socio economically diverse organizations navigate challenges generated by internal differences." Research shows that despite the claim that diversity needs to be organised, there is still not much evidence based knowledge on the process of organising these bridging interventions in a comprehensive way. Also the exact type of bridging interventions, their impact and the way they contribute to a more effective cooperation process, has not yet been covered.

The main research question of this research is: which bridging interventions enlarge the effectivity of intercultural teams and how can these bridging interventions be implemented through leadership?

Bridging ingredients

Bridging social capital is what Putnam (2007) uses as a concept for the process of actively stimulating interethnic connections in ethnic diverse teams. Putnam builds upon the famous contact hypothesis, brought forward already in the mid-fifties by Allport. Allport (1954) specified four different situational conditions for optimal intergroup contact: team members experience an equal status within the context the group is functioning in, an understanding of shared goals is created in the group, intergroup cooperation is stimulated and discipline is applied by means of explicit social sanctioning by authorities.

Pettigrew commented on Allport by saying that Allport's contact hypothesis failed to address the process needed in order to create the positive intergroup contact. (Pettigrew: 1998) "the original hypothesis says nothing about the process by which contact changes attitudes and behaviour. It predicts only when contact will lead to positive change, not how and why the change occurs." (Pettigrew: 1998, 70) He added the fact that: stimulating a learning process about the out group can improve intergroup attitudes. If people get to know each other, prejudices intend to diminish. He adds the need for a change in behaviour, due to repetitive contact and the generation of affective ties. As a fourth process condition Pettigrew mentions the development of a shared identity. Pettigrew stresses that all four processes need to be in place in order for the contact hypothesis to create optimal intergroup contact. In line with the last condition, mentioned by Pettigrew, Putnam stresses the importance of building a shared identity. He says: "the central challenge for modern, diversifying societies is to create a new, broader sense of 'we'. (Putnam: 2007, 139)

Allport's conditions, Pettigrew process steps and Putnam's statement on the creation of a broader sense of 'we', indicate the following important ingredients for the process of bridging:

a. Leadership: the presence of a social actor for whom effective teamwork is relevant. This *realisation provides a validation for a focus on leadership when it comes to purposeful bridging interventions to improve intercultural effectivity.*

Based on the above mentioned conditions, leadership on bridging interventions implicates:

b. An ability to organise an inclusive organisational culture in which the conditions are in place in order for team members to meet each other, to create affective ties, and to work towards a shared identity within the scope of the work

c. An ability to enable the learning process of team members in a way that they are willing to connect and attune to the 'cultural other'.

Diversity Management: enabling attuning behaviour

Diversity Management is the main discipline where the above elements are dealt with. However, actual research stresses that diversity management, in sense of keeping under control differences, is not sufficient enough to improve team performance. Vohra and Nair state in their review article on diversity and inclusion research perspectives (2015) that "from a focus whether leaders should or should not support diversity, the discourse has now shifted to how leaders can leverage differences and foster inclusion. Inclusive workplaces characterized by supportive leadership and empowered employees is required, according to Sabharwal (2014). However, according to Vohra and Nair, "a more encompassing examination of sustained inclusive practices, approaches and measures is still largely missing." (Vohra and Nair, 2015: 4).

Contact as well as interventions that stimulate team members to be open to values and behaviour that is different, have already been identified as important ingredients for connection by Allport (1954) , Putnam (2007) and Pettigrew (1998). Based on her field experiences as a management an organisation advisor and working in diverse teams, Jongepier (2005) developed the 4-A model on Managing Diversity. This 4-A model shows different styles of behaviour that can be identified when people are confronted with diversity. Two bridging ingredients determine the type of behaviour: the level of contact on one side and the level of awareness of the needs and interests of 'the other' on the other side.

Different ways of managing diversity
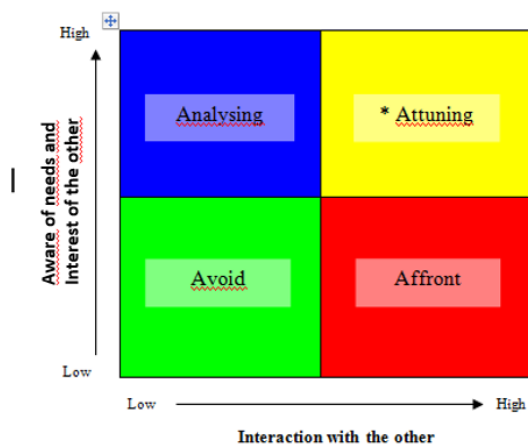
@   Maaike Jongepier 2005

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When there is no contact and no attempt to understand the needs and interests of the other (based on different values) we speak of 'avoiding behaviour'. Treating everybody the same and ignore the fact that cultural differences have an impact on the process of cooperation leads to 'avoiding behaviour'. Low interaction with the cultural different other but purposeful attempts to understand needs and interests of the other could lead to 'analysing behaviour'. With growing national and international polarization, affronting behaviour' is seen more frequently. Affronting in a sense that there is interaction but the interests and needs of 'the other' are not only ignored but even disputed. When interaction together with purposeful actions to become aware of needs and interests of 'the other', take place, we speak of 'attuning behaviour'. In order to create attuning behaviour in ethnic diverse teams, it is assumed that purposeful bridging interventions by a team leader are necessary.

Bridging ingredients

In this paper it has been proposed that a team leader is an important agent for organising the process of bridging in a team. Leadership interventions should add to an inclusive organisational culture at macro level and at the same time stimulate the motivation and capacity among team members to purposefully connect and take interest in each other. Below a concise review of recent, relevant research data in relation to these ingredients (a-c):

Ad a) Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) stress the importance of leadership as a vehicle for diversity management and as agent in creating inclusiveness. In line with the diversity management discourse specific styles of leadership have been proposed as being instrumental to manage diversity and create inclusiveness in ethnic diverse teams. Shaban (2016) positions the Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX) theory as a leadership style significant different from others styles, in the sense that it focuses mainly on the dyad: the bilateral relationship between the leader and the team member independently, instead of the relationship between the leader and the whole team. This style of leadership is focussing on creating a feeling of belongingness and safety with individual team members. Interesting is the high emphasis on relation above task.

The transformational leadership style is a style with a strong focus on motivation, inspiration and space for individual differences, according to Burke. (2006) In her dissertation Celik (2016) identifies through profound research the positive impact of transformational leadership on improved affective commitment of team members with their leader and their work. Another impact she measures is the situation that less employees feel the urge to leave the organisation. Next to the stress that a transformational leader puts on a high level of individual contact with team members, identification of needs and interests, the fact that differences are allowed to exist, as well as the stimulation of growth is expected to play an important role in managing diversity and contributing to inclusiveness.

Homan and Greer (2013) introduce 'considerate leadership'. In contrast to LMX leadership: considerate leadership focusses on the relationship between team members. Subgroup formation is being prevented by means of giving full attention to each individual and openly appreciating individual differences. LMX focusses on the relationship between leader and individual team member, while within transformational leadership the focus is on the collective as well as the individual, but not so much explicitly on the nature of the relationship between team members. In contrast to the other styles, transformational leadership also seems to focus on transcending differences by developing shared values, coming up with a common, shared goal.

All three styles take into account that cultural differences need to be purposefully organised in order to lead to effective teamwork. The level at which the styles focus more on either task and/or relationship building is different. LMX and the considerate leadership style seem to focus more on building positive relationships: either between leader and team member or among individual team members. Within the transformational style a focus on a mere task style oriented relationship building

seems to be present by means of appreciating individual differences and providing time and space for individual development. However, for this theory, to be useful for practitioners, more scientific evidence on how leadership can be used as the main vehicle for organising differences is needed. Questions like: at which moment does a leading professional take what kind of step and why need to be researched in an empirical way. What interventions do create the situation that differences are appreciated, used and be made effective within the process of teamwork. How can these interventions be applied, in which order in a learning on the job style of approach?

Ad b) Shore (et al,2011:1265) have been frequently cited when it comes to a definition to developing an inclusive culture. '"Inclusion refers to the degree to which an employee perceives that he or she is an esteemed member of the team through experiencing treatment that satisfies his or her needs for belongingness and uniqueness." It is envisaged that the feeling of trust and safety enlarges when an organisation embraces an inclusive culture. (Celik, 2016) Research has shown that an inclusive culture has a positive impact on productivity. Celik emphasis that especially the 'integration and learning' perspective of Ely and Thomas, 2001) is very useful in relation to the creation of an inclusive organisational culture. Within this perspective stimulating the learning process within the company, by providing coaching and training, appears to be a strong mediator in changing a culture. (Celik, 2016).

Diversity management is seen as the vehicle through which transformational leaders can create an inclusive culture within the organisation. Diversity management should cover the policies and interventions that organizations develop and implement to bring about the so called "added value of diversity" (Celik, Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2011) The same researchers, however, emphasize that not enough is yet know on how exactly management can improve diversity outcomes.

Ad c) Referring to leadership as the main vehicle to enable team members to acquire intercultural skills, in a learning on the job style of approach: Looking from the point of the individual team member, at the interpersonal level, inclusion calls for respect and acceptance, empathy, listening skills, dignity, trust, decision making authority and access to information (Daya, P. 2014), Hays-Thomas et al. (2012), in: Nair and Vohra, (2015) If team members are to be enabled by means of leadership style, one could raise the question what interventions are needed in order to influence this intercultural competence building process? With this respect, Leung, et. Al. (2014) say that: "cultural diverse teams often experience negative interpersonal dynamics, and the intercultural competence of team members should alleviate such negative dynamics and improve team performance." These authors have thoroughly reviewed the impact of intercultural competence on intercultural effectivity: the situation when ethnically mixed teams come to results together. For intercultural competence, they use the much cited definition of Whaley and Davies (2007) as 'an individual ability to function effectively across cultures. Leung and others have reviewed more than 30 intercultural competence models, covering together more that 300-plus personal characteristics. Their review reveals that of all models only the Cultural intelligence model of Ang et al. (2007) looks as if most applicable. They claim that their analysis of different global training programs focussing on the development of cultural intelligence, reveals the positive effects on intercultural competences. This indicates, according to them, that global talent can be developed.

When it comes to intercultural experiences as a development tool Leung, Ang and Tan claim that from the 'leader and executive development literature, it has been proved that 70% of the development occurs through direct, on-the-job experiences whereas training accounts for less than 10 and coaching and mentoring for 20%.'(Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014: 508) This statement seems to add to the validation of this research to focus on the role of embedded learning, a learning on the job approach, in relation to leadership. Also Leung expresses the need for more research into the specific mechanism through which intercultural competences contribute to intercultural effectiveness.

Research motives

The above presented scientific discourse on the process of stimulating intercultural effectivity in ethnic diverse teams, subscribes the following motives for this research:

- Nancy Adler in a recent review article comments that: "multicultural team performances have focused primarily on the extent and impact of team diversity rather than on the way diversity is best managed." (Adler, 2018: 323). The realisation that nowadays a diverse workforce is an imperative that organizations can no longer choose to ignore (Nair and Vohra, 2015), makes it eminent to take a more pragmatic stand: if we are becoming more and more diverse, we better get more fundamental grip on the question: how can we deal with each other in such a way that we can be as effective as possible?

- Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) conclude in their meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory using 713 independent samples, that Allport's four conditions facilitate the achievements of positive outcomes in intergroup interactions. They state that the four optimal conditions for intergroup interactions identified by Allport are "best conceptualized as an interrelated bundle rather than as independent factors" (Pettigrew and Tropp, 2006, 751). Adler concluded her review article with: "the skills needed to both recognise the most appropriate approach and be able to successfully implement it need to be identified , validated and learned by managers in the field. (Adler, 2018: 319).

- Leadership has frequently been identified as the main vehicle for organizing differences and creating an inclusive culture. If it is understood that leadership is the main vehicle, more understanding on the exact way of working and application of the process steps, necessary to support organizing cultural differences, is a validated research question.

- As for the type of approach for organizing differences, developing a 'learning on the job' style of approach is the most promising. Reality shows that the impact of separate diversity trainings is rather limited compared to the impact of learning on the job. Bezrukova et al. (2012: in Van Doorne Huiskes, 2015). Their analysis of 178 articles on the impact of diversity training showed evidence for the statement that a more embedded learning approach in which diversity learning is linked to job related activities is of more potential.

Process model approach

As leadership is seen as the main vehicle for creating an inclusive climate and stimulating team members to develop skills that promote intercultural cooperation, team leaders are the main research subjects for this research study. By choosing for an action or intervention process approach (Ven, 2007) the researcher intends not only to identify which interventions do stimulate intercultural effectiveness but also 'how' these interventions by means of process steps can best be applied by a team leader.

As a process model approach is seen as fundamental for gaining an appreciation of dynamic social life and developing and testing theories of how social entities adapt, change and evolve over time (Ven, 2007:145), the researcher claims that this particular research method fits the central research question of this study.

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Section: Practitioner papers

Report of An Action Research Inquiry to Explore the Relevance and Value of Executive Reflection to Leaders in a Global, Virtual and Diverse World

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UK

Abstract

Leaders, particularly in global organisations, are facing increasing pressure to perform and deliver results. There often appears to be little time to stop and think or reflect on what they are doing. They find little space to develop and resource themselves to sustain their performance. This action research study sought to explore the relevance and value of 1:1 Executive Reflection. This process enables leaders to work with a qualified Executive Reflection Practitioner (leadership supervisor) to develop their capacity and ability to adapt, evolve and even transform themselves. Subsequently they become able to lead their teams or organisations more effectively in fast moving, corporate and virtual environments. It was found that the 1:1 practice of reflection was found to be a vital, invaluable and imperative oasis for leaders. *The concept of "Reflective Leadership" has been further refined in their new book "Tomorrow's Global Leaders Today - Working Wisely in Turbulent Times"*

Key Words

Leaders; Executive Reflection; Leadership Supervision; Executive Coaching; Action Research; Reflection

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The authors also want to acknowledge the support they have received from Dr. Alison Hodge who was their Research Supervisor and who has supported them in the drafting of this paper.

Introduction

Our paper explores how three colleagues co-designed and co-created an Action Research Inquiry to explore the relevance and value of Executive Reflection in a global, diverse and virtual world.

Background

Jackie Arnold and Elaine Patterson (The Researchers) came together early in 2016 because of a shared curiosity about the potential relevance and value of Executive Reflection as a distinct practice, sometimes referred to as Leadership Supervision – to resource and support leaders particularly those leading in a global, virtual and diverse (GVD) world.

The term and emerging practice of "Executive Reflection" was evolving from the course content, approaches and methodology of the Coaching Supervision Academy's Diploma in Coaching Supervision. The Researchers coined the phrase "GVD" Global Virtual Diverse (instead of the more commonly used acronym VUCA from Johansen (2012) as it was felt to better represent the realities of leading today.

At that time, there had been little research into how the 'Executive Reflection' conversation could help leaders working in GVD environments. This research was intended to fill that gap, taking an inductive approach to establish what is happening in this field.

Context

The Researchers noticed that Leaders are working in ever more volatile, fast paced, diverse and complex circumstances. They also noticed that Leaders are increasingly required to support staff in

multi-cultural contexts, working both virtually and globally. This required new ways of thinking, relating, working and innovating, not only to manage day to day but also to create the future.

In the Researchers' respective practices they noticed that, increasingly, their clients in leadership roles were:

- looking to do more with fewer resources in less time

- wanting themselves and their employees to be more resourceful and resilient

- needing safe confidential spaces to think clearly to make effective decisions

- wanting to inspire and motivate their people (in a world where "command and control" no longer works

and

- keen to understand how best to lead people who are working in global, virtual and diverse environments

The findings from their literature review spurred the Researchers on to see if it was possible to take the best from these three interconnected worlds of coaching, coaching supervision and reflective practice to create a "hybrid" practice which could better meet the questions and challenges which today's leaders encounter while working in a GVD world.

Working Definitions

'Executive Reflection' (sometimes called Leadership Supervision) is a 1:1 distinct practice. It provides a creative and reflective space and generative oasis for Leaders to gain deeper insights and awareness ("Helicopter-Vision") that includes themselves, their work, their relationships and with their wider environment at work"

'Executive Reflection Practitioner' (also sometimes known as the Supervisor) works as a confidential witness, companion and observer providing a creative and non-judgmental container for the leader to reflect. The Practitioner creates the personal and environmental conditions for the Leader to gain profound insight, resourcing and learning to ignite personal, team and organizational change and wise action.

VUCA: An acronym meaning volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous

GVD: An acronym meaning "Global", "Virtual" and "Diverse" to capture the essence of business and organizational life today for leaders as they shape vision, goals, deliverables as well as inspiring performance.

• Global - the worldwide nature, stretch and web of work that can cross continents, time zones, cultures and language

• Virtual - computers, the web and digital technology have enabled leaders to reach,

communicate, co-ordinate and deliver work to customers and clients globally

• Diverse - the cultural mix and blending of many different countries, languages, identities, cultures, races and languages which can exist in just one person, in a team and in an organisation.

Leadership Development: The purposeful development of leaders for their leadership tasks and roles

Coaching Supervision: A co-created learning relationship that supports the supervisee in their personal and professional development. It offers a forum to attend to professional and emotional wellbeing and growth.

'Action Research' (AR): It is a participatory democratic process concerned with developing practical knowing in the pursuit of worthwhile human purposes. It seeks to bring together action and reflection, theory and practice in participation with others in the pursuit of practical solutions to issues… and more generally the flourishing of individual people and their communities (Reason and Bradbury 2001: 1-2)

Method

Defining the Research Question

Our research question was framed as follows:

"An Action Research inquiry to Explore the Relevance and Value of Executive Reflection to Leaders in a Global, Virtual and Diverse World"

The aim was to identify and understand more fully how to provide and support executive and leadership development in a GVD world.

Research Methodology

The Researchers developed the project using Action Research Methodology, at the heart of which is inquiry into and changes to practice and the wider system in which the work takes place (McNiff, 2017).

Lewin first coined the term "action research" (1944). He described action research as "a comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action" that uses "a spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action and fact-

finding about the result of the action" (1946). This Methodology invited the Researchers to take a collaborative and co-operative approach, informed by inquiry and curiosity. The choice of methodology was also congruent with the process and methods of Executive Reflection and coaching supervision practice (Murdoch & Arnold Eds, 2012).

Research Design

Two groups of global participants were invited to participate in the project: 10 Volunteer Leaders (VL) and 10 Volunteer Practitioners (VP). They were organized into 10 pairs (dyads). Each dyad engaged in three cycles of inquiry in the form of 'Executive Reflection' sessions of 1.5 hours' duration each. Each participant then engaged in a semi-structured interview with one of the Researchers to conclude the data gathering.

Recruitment of the participants involved two elements using the method of "s*nowballing"* that involves "*finding a small number of subjects who, in turn, identify others in the population"* (Gray 2009).

The Researchers invited a number of VLs to participate from their own networks, based on differences in age, organizational contexts and geographical locations. At the same time, the Researchers offered an invitation to a (random) number of Volunteer Practitioners (VP) accredited as CSA Leadership Supervisors. Individuals who expressed an interest were sent the research design and protocol, at which point they were free to agree to participate or decline.

10 VLs and 10 VPs were recruited. Participants were located in the UK, France, Switzerland, Malaysia, China, Australia, America and Canada and worked globally with global reach. There were 12 women and 8 men. The Researchers then randomly allocated the VLs to VPs without formal matching through chemistry sessions but they did take into account any declared past or dual relationships, in which case new pairings were found. We chose this approach because the Researchers did not want to impose any of their own assumptions (about what). They also wanted to explore new approaches to matching. The risk was that the pairings had not chosen each other. However, there was a clear exit strategy in place for all participants.

Data Gathering

Data was collected from the Reflective Logs that each VL and VP submitted at the end of each cycle. The Reflective Logs invited the participants to respond to the following questions:

What was the relevance of the session for you?

What was the value of the session for you?

What / how have your thinking, decision-making or relationships changed as a result of the session?

Is there anything else you would like to add?

After the 3rd session, the Researchers each conducted a recorded 30-minute, semi-structured telephone interview with each participant who shared their final reflections on the relevance and value of the process and outcomes of their encounters.

Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was used to mine the data (Braun and Clarke 2006).

The Researchers met face to face to analyse the data from Cycles 1 to 3. Time constraints meant that they met virtually via Zoom to analyse the majority of Cycle 4 - the transcripts from the semi-structured interviews. Jackie Arnold took responsibility for writing up the findings for the VLs. Elaine Patterson took responsibility for writing up the findings for the VPs. The Researchers noticed what was continuous and what was unique to each Cycle and the patterns that recurred and new themes that emerged.

There was then a further final stage when the Researchers met to extract the final interpretation and conclusions from the data and to prepare the final report of the research findings for publication.

Results

This section summarises the results from the project.

(1)   The relevance and value of 1:1 Executive Reflection for VL's

The VL's valued their reflective space with a non-judgmental and non-competitive reflective partner. Their willingness to engage led to greater disclosure. This often enabled rapid and transformative exploration of self, purpose and different ways of thinking, relating and behaving in their organisations.

The VL's also worked on live current issues which was a fractal of their systems and was the portal into broader explorations of self and self in work. The complete freedom to bring to each session whatever they needed to work on was liberating and empowering. The ability to choose their own agenda, and co-create the relationship in an emergent space without pressure to perform had multiple spin-offs. One VP described this as "providing water in a dry place".

All the VLs participated voluntarily and their engagement was driven by their curiosity about the process and what they might learn about themselves and their leadership challenges in order to lead more effectively.

All the VLs valued being given a unique space and time to stop, think and reflect on themselves as a person and as a leader. They valued the free space to come without necessarily having a fixed agenda that enabled them to explore WHO they were being and becoming and HOW they showed up at work

and HOW this affected their impact, relationships and results. They all valued the rare opportunity of being heard, seen, supported and resourced by a trusted partner who had no other agenda except to be in service of their own insights, learning and development.

All the VLS felt validated through the acknowledgement, support and challenge that they received that built their self-awareness, self-reliance and self-confidence.

(2)   The experience of the VP's working with the VL's

What was common across the reported experience of the VP's was the significance and value of the relationship that enabled their VLs to reflect. The VP's recognized the value of offering the time and space for leaders to reflect on themselves and their own unique leadership style. Both the VP's and VL's sought clarity on the purpose of 1:1 Executive Reflection but then co-created their working partnership in and through their mutual relationship.

An interesting theme the VP's identified was how they played a vital role in establishing clear working agreements (contracting) to individualize the conditions for learning. This went beyond the practical to include the culture and time zones as well as the psychological, emotional and spiritual phenomena. At the same time, the VP's also noted how sessions were used to address live current issues providing a gateway to wider explorations of role, purpose, awareness and perspective.

The VP's drew on their personal extensive and cumulative theoretical and experiential skills, knowledge and wisdom that they evidenced through the notes in their Reflective Logs. This enabled them to co-create genuine reflective thinking partnerships which moved beyond the day to day surface considerations to a deeper exploration of WHO the leader was and WHO they are becoming (their mission, purpose and identity (Dilts 1996) and how this showed up in HOW they worked; to explore further choices open to them moving forward (beyond capability, behaviour or context).

Storytelling (Owen 2001) use of language and reframing (Lahad 2000, Shohet 2008) emerged as important skills. The VP's clearly blended more classical models and theories with whole body practices like meditation, mindfulness, visualisation, metaphor cards, Clean Language and drawing to foster new insights and new learning.

The VP's exhibited both a personal and professional robustness to challenge and support their VL's appropriately. This was greatly valued by the VLs

The VP's shared a lived and living experience of reflection and reflective practice that enabled them to role model and embody reflection for their VL's as they were engaged in their own supervision (reflection on practice before, during and after the project). They each had a strongly developed heart-based relational presence (Benefiel & Holton, 2010) as well as an "internal supervisor" with a very

strong capacity to work with the unexpected and the emergent with multiple intelligences in the moment. As one VP said "there was less propositional knowing and more wondrous receiving". The VP's also evidenced that they relied on a systemic and field awareness as well as an appreciation of global complexity in their work.

(3) Further issues that were identified

The Researchers noticed that initially there was some confusion amongst the VLs about the term and purpose of 1:1 Executive Reflection (and the difference between Executive Coaching and Executive Reflection) that may have caused some initial hesitancy and may have impacted on their enjoyment and confidence in the process. Technology, whilst key, did prove troublesome sometimes and interfered with the sessions running smoothly or without interruption.

There was also a real challenge for the VL's to shift from a clear action-results focus to a more reflective focus from which clearer or better decisions would evolve. The maturity and wisdom coupled with the skill of the VP's built safety and trust in most cases. This in turn enabled rapid disclosure for deeper work on identity and meaning, which informed the VL's decisions, behaviours and actions.

Despite the random pairings of the dyads, without formal matching chemistry sessions to establish compatibility, safety and trust was created through a clear process and psychological contracting (Carroll 2005) and through the shared commitment of both parties to each other.

DISCUSSION

The overall conclusions and recommendations are:

Relevance and Value of 1:1 Executive Reflection was confirmed

From the data, 1:1 Executive Reflection was found to be relevant and valuable to the VL's leading in a GVD world. The process was found to be a vital, invaluable and imperative 'oasis' for leaders. It supported them to adapt, evolve and transform themselves, in order to lead their teams or organisations more effectively in the face of fast moving external business environments.

Use of the GVD Acronym

Based on our sample the GVD acronym descriptor did not appear to impact on relationships or outcomes due to the experience and maturity of those involved. The Researchers have therefore concluded that GVD should be used with the acronym VUCA as shorthand to describe the experience of living and working today.

Definition of 1:1 Executive Reflection

The Researchers' original definition of Executive Reflection was broadly validated but also needed to be refined in the light of the project's conclusions.

In essence 1;1 Executive Reflection could be described as "super-vision" for leaders in the context of leadership. 1:1 Executive Reflection is typically geared to the higher levels of change and works at the levels of mission, purpose and identity (Dilts 2012). 1:1 Executive Reflection for leaders attends to the formative, normative and restorative functions of supervision (Inskipp & Proctor 1993). Thus the Researchers adapted the definition as follows:

"1:1 Executive Reflection is an independently co-created learning partnership and distinct developmental practice built on trust, safety and service. Executive Reflection provides a uniquely creative, compassionate, resourceful and generative reflective oasis for Leaders to gain a robust and deep awareness of WHO they are, WHY they lead and HOW they lead. The process attends to both their personal and professional development that in turn resources leaders to lead wisely in turbulent times".

A certain level of maturity that was defined as both skills and personal adult development, reflective capacity and life experience was needed from both the VL's and VP's to benefit from this level, quality and type of intervention (Mezirow 1991, Kegan 1982, Laske 2005).

(4)   Practice Development for Executive Reflection Practitioners

The Researchers' description of the work of the VP was validated and reads as follows:

"The Practitioner works as an independent and confidential witness, companion, mirror and observer providing a creative space and non-judgmental container for the leader. The Practitioner creates the personal and environmental conditions for the leader to gain profound insight, resourcing and learning to ignite personal, team and organizational change and wise action."

The research also revealed that the VPs required particular qualities and training for this practice. Capabilities and competencies that were highlighted included: relational presence (Senge, Scharmer, Jaworski & Flowers 2005), finely attuned systemic and field awareness, cultural sensitivity and global awareness, deep understanding of adult learning, relational and group dynamics, psychological mindedness and development of the internal supervisor (Casement 1985).

Chemistry Sessions

The research found that chemistry sessions might not be always necessary or relevant if robust contracting was put in place, given the professional maturity of the VP's in this sample.

Action Research Methodology

The research found that the Action Research Methodology was congruent and compatible with the practice of 1:1 Executive Reflection. The methodology was robust, rigorous and evidence based.

The recommendations are as follows:

Acronyms of VUCA and GVD

VUCA and GVD together describe the realities of leadership today. The use of one or other on its own does not reflect the complexity of today's realities.

Recognition of 1:1 Executive Reflection as a Distinct Practice

1:1 Executive Reflection is recognized as a specific developmental intervention to grow leaders and resource them to lead in today's VUCA GVD world. 1:1 Executive Reflection is a form of deep "supervision" for leaders in the context of their leadership.

Development of 1:1 Executive Reflection Practitioners

It would be useful to carry out further research to define the skills, training, resourcing and support of Executive Reflection Practitioners "super-vising" leaders in a VUCA GVD world.

Promoting Executive Reflection to Leaders

Communicating the value and relevance of Executive Reflection to leaders leading in a VUCA GVD world is now vital. New ways of reaching new audiences who would benefit from this intervention need to be found.

Further Research

Further research with a larger cohort is recommended to test the findings more widely.

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