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La compétence interculturelle comme facteur contribuant de la disposition des gestionnaires au changement organisationnel

Jose Luis Vallejo Garcia

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Jose Luis Vallejo Garcia. La compétence interculturelle comme facteur contribuant de la disposition des gestionnaires au changement organisationnel. Business administration. Université de Strasbourg, 2012. English. NNT : 2012STRAB010 . tel-00836472

HAL Id: tel-00836472

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École doctorale AUGUSTIN COURNOT

**INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AS A CONDUCIVE
FACTOR OF MANAGERS' READINESS FOR
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE**

Thèse pour l'obtention du
DOCTORAT ès SCIENCES DE GESTION

présentée par

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*A mi madre, por su amor y ejemplo de fortaleza y trabajo
A mis hermanos, Maritere y Eduardo, por su nobleza
A mi sobrino Diego, por su sensibilidad
A mi padre, quien en vida, me legó parte de su espíritu soñador*

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to the University of Strasbourg, to the Ecole de Management and the Faculté des Sciences Economiques et de Gestion for facilitating my enrolment in this doctoral programme.

I particularly thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. Gilles Lambert for his direction, time and advice during the development of this thesis.

My gratefulness to Universidad Panamericana campus Guadalajara, to the School of Management and Economic Sciences, especially Dr. Sergio Villanueva Varela; Dr. Juan de la Borbolla Rivero; MBA Jorge Franco López; and Dr. Carlos Trejo-Pech, for their flexibility and support.

Special thanks to my good friend and colleague Kevin Mac Gabhann for his companionship, unconditional friendship and constant moral support throughout this process.

I am indebted to my friend and colleague Jessie Pallud, for her supportive advice, technical help, optimism and always uplifting comments.

My sincere gratitude also to my friend Dixie Santana for taking the time to read and correct my writing as English is not my native language.

Thanks to all the people who directly or indirectly were involved and always showed concern with my progress until the end of this journey.

Résumé

L'objectif de cette thèse est d'identifier les compétences interculturelles qui déterminent la disposition des gestionnaires au changement organisationnel. Pour ce faire, nous avons analysé l'influence des compétences interculturelles, impliquant des aptitudes cognitives, des habiletés émotives et des compétences comportementales/sociales chez les gestionnaires, sur la disposition au changement. Afin de tester notre modèle de recherche, incluant douze hypothèses principales nous avons eu recours à une enquête avec un questionnaire électronique auto-administré. Notre échantillon total compte cinq cent cinquante-sept personnes en provenance de soixante-huit pays différents. Les personnes interrogées, des salariés d'entreprises, occupent des postes à différents niveaux hiérarchiques : au niveau stratégique, mais aussi au niveau opérationnel, c'est-à-dire, des gestionnaires qui sont responsables de la planification à long terme, du contrôle du progrès, ou de la supervision quotidienne des opérations.

La compréhension du concept de la compétence interculturelle était un aspect essentiel dans cette thèse de doctorat. La partie théorique a donc été écrite discrétionnairement par le chercheur au sujet des références choisies sur lesquelles le cadre conceptuel a été établi. Une partie empirique a été soutenue avec une analyse méthodologique quantitative afin de prouver qu'il y a une corrélation positive significative entre la compétence interculturelle et la disposition des gestionnaires au changement organisationnel. En plus, il fut voulu de découvrir la pertinence de l'exposition à la formation interculturelle en rapport avec d'autres facteurs tels que les gestionnaires expatriés contre les gestionnaires non-expatriés; le niveau de gestion et l'expérience multiculturelle individuelle.

Les résultats montrent qu'il y a une corrélation positive significative entre les compétences interculturelles et la disposition des gestionnaires au changement organisationnel. Les aptitudes qui sont reliées aux compétences comportementales/sociales semblent être le prédicteur le plus important de la disposition au changement organisationnel. De plus, les analyses indiquent une corrélation significative entre l'exposition à la formation interculturelle et la disposition au changement. Enfin, cette recherche inclut une analyse post-hoc qui visait à tester le rôle de trois composantes principales en tant que compétences interculturelles influençant des facteurs et démontre l'influence évidente sur la disposition des gestionnaires au changement.

Abstract

The object of this thesis is to discover the intercultural competencies that determine manager's readiness for organizational change. Through the analysis of twelve main hypotheses; regarded as intercultural competence; involving cognitive capabilities, emotional abilities and behavioural/social skills in managers; and their influence on readiness for change, the procedure to validate the general hypothesis includes an electronic self-administered questionnaire and a total of five hundred and fifty seven respondents from sixty-eight different nationalities. The respondents are managers of corporations who hold strategic, tactical or operational management positions; that is, managers who are responsible for long-term planning, progress monitoring, or day-to-day operational supervision.

The understanding of the concept of intercultural competence is a central aspect in this dissertation and therefore the theoretical part has been written discretionarily by the researcher concerning the selected references upon which the conceptual framework was built. An empirical part is supported with a quantitative methodological analysis in order to prove that there is a significant positive correlation between intercultural competence and managers' readiness for organizational change. Additionally, it is intended to discover the relevance of intercultural training exposure in contrast with other factors such as expatriate versus non-expatriate managers; level of management and individual multicultural experience.

Concluding findings show that there is a significant positive correlation between intercultural competence and organizational readiness for change in managers; particularly those competencies related to behavioural/social skills. Moreover, there is also significant correlation between intercultural training exposure and readiness for change. This study includes a post-hoc analysis where three main components are tested and validated as intercultural competence influencing factors and show clear effect on managers' readiness for change.

Index

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION	29
CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW	43
CHAPTER 3 – CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH MODEL	113
CHAPTER 4 – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	171
CHAPTER 5 – ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	211
CHAPTER 6 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	255
REFERENCES	279
APPENDICES	295

Table of Contents

LIST OF FIGURES.....	XIX
LIST OF TABLES	XXI
1 INTRODUCTION.....	29
1.1 MOTIVATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	35
1.2 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY.....	36
1.3 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS.....	38
1.4 MANAGERIAL RELEVANCE.....	39
1.5 ACADEMIC RELEVANCE.....	40
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	43
2.1 INTRODUCTION	43
2.2 THE THEORY BEHIND ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE	44
2.2.1 <i>Approaches to organizational change</i>	49
2.2.2 <i>The role of the manager in organizational change</i>	52
2.2.3 <i>Change management and organizational learning</i>	55
2.3 READINESS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE.....	59
2.3.1 <i>The dynamics of individual readiness for change</i>	64
2.3.2 <i>Resistance to change</i>	64
2.3.3 <i>Managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	66
2.3.4 <i>Previous findings on factors affecting readiness for change</i>	72
2.4 INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE REVISITED	74
2.4.1 <i>The theory of intercultural competence</i>	74
2.4.2 <i>Coinciding models of Intercultural Competence</i>	80
2.4.2.1 (1992) Gertsen's Dimensions of Intercultural Competence.....	80
2.4.2.2 (1995) Dirks' Intercultural Competence Model	82
2.4.2.3 (1997) The Multicultural Competence Pyramid of an Individual.....	83
2.4.2.4 (1997) Spitzberg's Diagrammatic Representation of Relational Competence	85
2.4.2.5 (1998) Hamilton's Intercultural Competence Components Model.....	87
2.4.2.6 (1998) Ting-Toomey's Mindful Intercultural Communication Model	88
2.4.2.7 (2000) Barmeyer's Dimensions of Intercultural Competence.....	91
2.4.2.8 (2001) Kim's Components of Intercultural Communication Competence.....	93
2.4.2.9 (2004) Intercultural Competence Model based on Gudykunst	94
2.4.2.10 (2004) Matveev and Milter's Intercultural Competence Model	95
2.4.2.11 (2006) Deardorff Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence	97
2.4.2.12 (2007) Illeris' Triangle. Learning as a Competence Development	99
2.4.2.13 (2010) Bücker and Poutsma's Global Management Competencies Model.....	100
2.4.2.14 (2010) Klein's Model of Intercultural Competence	101
2.4.2.15 (2010) Zimmermann's Notion of Intercultural Competence.....	103
2.4.2.16 (2011) The ABC Model of Intercultural Competence	104
2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	110
3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH MODEL.....	113
3.1 INTRODUCTION	113
3.2 DIMENSIONS AND ELEMENTS OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE.....	114
3.3 THE ASSESSMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE.....	115
3.3.1 <i>Behavioural Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence</i>	116
3.3.2 <i>Intercultural Competence Assessment</i>	117
3.3.3 <i>Framework of International Competencies</i>	119
3.3.4 <i>Assessment Tool of Intercultural Competences- Intercultool</i>	120
3.4 DIMENSIONS OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE	122
3.4.1 <i>Cognitive capabilities</i>	123
3.4.1.1 Knowledge Discovery	124
3.4.1.2 Respect for Otherness	125

3.4.1.3	Contextual Understanding.....	127
3.4.1.4	Cultural Mindfulness.....	128
3.4.2	<i>Emotional abilities</i>	130
3.4.2.1	Tolerance for Ambiguity.....	131
3.4.2.2	Cultural Empathy.....	132
3.4.2.3	Polycentrism.....	134
3.4.2.4	Emotional Strength.....	136
3.4.3	<i>Behavioural skills</i>	137
3.4.3.1	Behavioural Flexibility.....	138
3.4.3.2	Communicative Awareness.....	140
3.4.3.3	Collaborative Dialogue.....	141
3.4.3.4	Social Rapport.....	143
3.5	INDIVIDUAL MULTICULTURAL EXPERIENCE.....	144
3.6	MANAGEMENT LEVELS AND TYPES OF MANAGERS.....	146
3.6.1	<i>Management level as a significant factor</i>	146
3.6.2	<i>Type of manager as a significant factor</i>	148
3.7	INTERCULTURAL TRAINING.....	154
3.7.1	<i>Academic intercultural training</i>	157
3.7.2	<i>Professional intercultural training</i>	159
3.7.3	<i>Intercultural training and readiness for organizational change</i>	161
3.8	HYPOTHESES FORMULATION.....	163
3.9	RESEARCH MODEL PROPOSITION.....	166
3.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	167
4	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	171
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	171
4.2	APPROACHES TO SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.....	172
4.3	SELECTION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	175
4.4	FOUNDATION FOR A QUANTITATIVE APPROACH.....	176
4.4.1	<i>Design of the research</i>	178
4.4.2	<i>Measurement instrument</i>	181
4.4.3	<i>Design of survey questionnaire</i>	183
4.4.4	<i>Reliability and validity of the measurement tool</i>	188
4.5	TARGET POPULATION.....	189
4.6	SAMPLE CONFIGURATION.....	190
4.6.1	<i>Sample size</i>	190
4.6.2	<i>Convenience sampling versus accidental sampling</i>	191
4.7	DATA COLLECTION.....	192
4.7.1	<i>Data collection process</i>	192
4.7.2	<i>Data classification and codification</i>	193
4.8	DEFINITION OF VARIABLES.....	195
4.8.1	<i>Core variables</i>	195
4.8.2	<i>Additional variables</i>	196
4.8.3	<i>Control variables</i>	196
4.8.4	<i>Formative components</i>	197
4.8.5	<i>Measurement parameters</i>	198
4.8.6	<i>ANOVA variance analysis</i>	200
4.9	STATISTICAL APPLICATION PACKAGES.....	200
4.9.1	<i>SmartPLS testing instrument</i>	200
4.9.2	<i>SPSS statistical tool for linear regression</i>	201
4.9.3	<i>GRETLM software package for econometric analysis</i>	202
4.10	FACTOR ANALYSIS.....	203
4.10.1	<i>Consistency of variables</i>	204
4.11	RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY.....	205

4.11.1	<i>Ethical considerations</i>	205
4.11.2	<i>Researcher credibility</i>	206
4.12	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	207
5	ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	211
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	211
5.2	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	212
5.3	ANALYSIS OF NORMALITY.....	215
5.3.1	<i>Normality of residual</i>	215
5.3.2	<i>Heteroscedasticity</i>	216
5.3.3	<i>Probability distribution</i>	217
5.4	RELIABILITY OF THE SAMPLE.....	218
5.4.1	<i>Cronbach's alpha coefficient</i>	218
5.4.2	<i>Average variance extracted</i>	221
5.5	COLLINEARITY TEST.....	222
5.6	PEARSON'S CORRELATIONS.....	223
5.7	HYPOTHESIS TESTING- INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCIES.....	224
5.7.1	<i>H1: Knowledge Discovery (KDI) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	224
5.7.2	<i>H2: Respect for Otherness (RFO) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	225
5.7.3	<i>H3: Contextual Understanding (CUN) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	226
5.7.4	<i>H4: Cultural Mindfulness (CMI) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	227
5.7.5	<i>H5: Tolerance for Ambiguity (TAM) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	228
5.7.6	<i>H6: Cultural Empathy (EMP) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	229
5.7.7	<i>H7: Polycentrism (POL) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	230
5.7.8	<i>H8: Emotional Strength (EMS) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	231
5.7.9	<i>H9: Behavioural Flexibility (BFL) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	232
5.7.10	<i>H10: Communicative Awareness (COA) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	233
5.7.11	<i>H11: Collaborative Dialogue (CDI) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	234
5.7.12	<i>H12: Social Rapport (SRA) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	235
5.8	HYPOTHESIS TESTING – ADDITIONAL FACTORS.....	236
5.8.1	<i>H13: Multicultural experience (MCE) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	236
5.8.2	<i>H14: Management level (LEV) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	237
5.8.3	<i>H15: Type of manager (TYP) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	238
5.8.4	<i>H16: Intercultural training (ITE) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	239
5.9	VALIDATION OF HYPOTHESES.....	240
5.10	POST-HOC HYPOTHESIS ANALYSIS.....	244
5.10.1	<i>Confirmatory factor analysis</i>	244
5.10.2	<i>Cognitive intercultural capabilities (COG) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	246
5.10.3	<i>Emotional intercultural abilities (EMO) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	247
5.10.4	<i>Behavioural intercultural skills (SOC) and readiness for change (ORC)</i>	248
5.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	250
6	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	255
6.1	INTRODUCTION.....	255
6.2	CONCLUSIONS ON READINESS FOR CHANGE.....	256
6.3	CONCLUSIONS ON INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCIES AS CONDUCTIVE FACTORS.....	259
6.3.1	<i>Knowledge discovery</i>	259
6.3.2	<i>Respect for otherness</i>	259
6.3.3	<i>Contextual understanding</i>	260
6.3.4	<i>Cultural mindfulness</i>	260
6.3.5	<i>Tolerance for ambiguity</i>	261
6.3.6	<i>Cultural empathy</i>	261
6.3.7	<i>Polycentrism (openness)</i>	262
6.3.8	<i>Emotional strength</i>	263
6.3.9	<i>Communicative awareness</i>	263

6.3.10	<i>Behavioural flexibility</i>	264
6.3.11	<i>Collaborative dialogue</i>	264
6.3.12	<i>Social rapport</i>	265
6.4	CONCLUSIONS ABOUT OTHER INFLUENCING FACTORS	266
6.4.1	<i>Multicultural experience</i>	266
6.4.2	<i>Level of management</i>	267
6.4.3	<i>Type of manager</i>	267
6.4.4	<i>Intercultural training exposure</i>	268
6.5	NEW MODEL OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND READINESS FOR CHANGE	269
6.6	IMPLICATIONS FOR MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS.....	270
6.7	IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS	271
6.8	ADDITIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY	272
6.9	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	273
6.10	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	274
	REFERENCES	279
	APPENDICES	295

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Context in which competitive strategy is formulated.....	31
Figure 1.2 Synoptic presentation of the thesis	38
Figure 2.1 Organizations' interacting variables	50
Figure 2.2 Approaches to organizational change.....	51
Figure 2.3 Organizational dimensions of analysis.....	57
Figure 2.4 Armenakis' change readiness model.....	71
Figure 2.5 Gertsen's dimensions of intercultural competence	80
Figure 2.6 Dirk's intercultural competence for managing in diverse environments	82
Figure 2.7 Multicultural competence pyramid of an individual based on Queeney.....	83
Figure 2.8 Spitzberg's diagrammatic representation of relational competence	85
Figure 2.9 Hamilton's intercultural competence model	87
Figure 2.10 Ting-Toomey and Kurogi's model of intercultural competence	88
Figure 2.11 Ting-Toomey's mindful intercultural communication model.....	90
Figure 2.12 Barmeyer's intercultural competence dimensions	91
Figure 2.13 Kim's components of intercultural communication competence	93
Figure 2.14 Intercultural competence model based on Gudykunst.....	94
Figure 2.15 Matveev and Milter's intercultural competence model.....	95
Figure 2.16 Deardorff's pyramid of intercultural competence	97
Figure 2.17 Illeris' Triangle- Learning as a competence development	99
Figure 2.18 Bücker and Poutsma's global management competencies model	100
Figure 2.19 Klein's model of intercultural competence	101
Figure 2.20 Intercultural competence in a virtual multicultural team.....	103
Figure 2.21 Várhegyi and Nann's ABC model of intercultural competence	104
Figure 3.1 Distribution of intercultural competence elements	114
Figure 3.2 The WorldWork's framework of international competencies.....	120
Figure 3.3 The Planning Pyramid.....	147
Figure 3.4 Types of managers- classic definition.....	152
Figure 3.5 Types of managers- complementary conceptualization	153
Figure 3.6 Type of managers based on level of internationalization.....	154
Figure 3.7 Relevant IC-Dimensions for intercultural training	156
Figure 3.8 Designing an intercultural training.....	160
Figure 3.9 Organizational influences on individual change.....	162
Figure 3.10 Proposed research model.....	167
Figure 4.1 Approaches to scientific research	175
Figure 4.2 Effect of intercultural competence on readiness for change.....	178
Figure 4.3 Logic of sequence of the research.....	181
Figure 5.1 Histogram of normality	215
Figure 5.2 Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual.....	217

Figure 5.3 Scatterplot	218
Figure 5.4 Validation of hypotheses	241
Figure 5.5 Bar chart of variables' t-statistics coefficients	242
Figure 5.6 Validation of hypotheses- post-hoc analysis.....	249
Figure 6.1 Intercultural competence and readiness for change	269

List of Tables

Table 2-1 Selected definitions of organizational change	48
Table 2-2 Composition of change according to Teneau	52
Table 2-3 Definitions of intercultural competence	78
Table 2-4 Compendium of all coinciding intercultural competence models	105
Table 2-5 Synthesis of the coinciding intercultural competence models	106
Table 3-1 Intercultural dimensions according to Brent Ruben	116
Table 3-2 Essential intercultural competencies of the INCA Project.....	118
Table 3-3 Conceptual framework of the Intercultool	121
Table 4-1 Questionnaire- Part I- items on respondents' demographics	184
Table 4-2 Questionnaire- Part II- items on individual multicultural experience.....	186
Table 4-3 Questionnaire- Part III- items on managers' readiness for change	186
Table 4-4 Questionnaire- Part IV- items on intercultural cognitive capabilities.....	187
Table 4-5 Questionnaire- Part V- items on intercultural emotional abilities	187
Table 4-6 Questionnaire- Part VI- items on intercultural social skills.....	188
Table 4-7 Codification of categories and items- section 1 on demographics	193
Table 4-8 Codification of categories and items- section 2 on multicultural experience	194
Table 4-9 Codification of categories and items- section 3 on readiness for change	195
Table 4-10 Codification of categories and items- section 4 to 6 on intercultural competence... 195	
Table 4-11 Classification and definition of variables	198
Table 4-12 Parameters of variable measurement.....	199
Table 5-1 Respondent demographics information	212
Table 5-2 Graphical representation of respondents' demographics	214
Table 5-3 White's heteroscedasticity test (squares only).....	216
Table 5-4 Cross-Loadings for variable consistency (Cronbach's Alpha)	219
Table 5-5 Average Variance Extracted	221
Table 5-6 Collinearity test.....	222
Table 5-7 Pearson's correlation of variables	223
Table 5-8 Validation of hypotheses including control variables	242
Table 5-9 Accepted and rejected hypotheses.....	243
Table 5-10 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	244
Table 5-11 Average Variance Extracted	245
Table 5-12 Accepted and rejected hypotheses- post-hoc analysis.....	250
APPENDIX Table 0-1 Questionnaire labels- items and categories	301
APPENDIX Table 0-2 T-Test One-Sample Statistics.....	305
APPENDIX Table 0-3 ANOVA- Family cultural condition	309
APPENDIX Table 0-4 ANOVA- Type of manager.....	310
APPENDIX Table 0-5 ANOVA- Gender	311
APPENDIX Table 0-6 ANOVA- Group of age	312

APPENDIX Table 0-7 ANOVA- Human Development Index	313
APPENDIX Table 0-8 ANOVA- Marital status.....	314
APPENDIX Table 0-9 ANOVA- Level of education.....	315
APPENDIX Table 0-10 ANOVA- Working experience as a manager	316
APPENDIX Table 0-11 ANOVA- Level of management	317
APPENDIX Table 0-12 ANOVA- Intercultural training	318
APPENDIX Table 0-13 ANOVA- Intercultural training exposure	319
APPENDIX Table 0-14 ANOVA- Multicultural experience	320

Index of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AIC	Assessment of Intercultural Competence
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
APAIE	Asia-Pacific Association for International Education
AT	Academic Intercultural Training
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
B	Beta
BASIC	Behavioural Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence
BFL	Behavioural Flexibility
CCAI	Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory
CDI	Collaborative Dialogue
CLAS	Classmates from other Countries
CMI	Cultural Mindfulness
COA	Communicative Awareness
COG	Cognitive Capabilities
CQ	Cultural Intelligence
CUN	Contextual Understanding
EAIE	European Association for International Education
EDU	Level of Education
EMO	Emotional Abilities
EMP	Cultural Empathy
EMS	Emotional Strength
EXCH	Exchange abroad
EXP	Experience as a Manager
FAM	Type of Family
FCN	Foreign Country National
FRND	Friends from Diverse Cultural Backgrounds
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEN	Gender
GNU	General Public License
H	Hypothesis
HCN	Host Country National
HDI	Human Development Index
HRM	Human Resource Management

IC	Intercultural
ICC	Intercultural Communication Competence
ICIC	Intercultural Interaction Competence
ICSI	Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory
IDI	Intercultural Development Inventory
INCA	Intercultural Competence Assessment
IP	Internet Protocol
IREL	International Relations
ISI	Intercultural Sensitivity Index
ITE	Intercultural Training Exposure
KDI	Knowledge Discovery
LCN	Local Country National
LEV	Level of Management
LIVA	Living Abroad Experience
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MCE	Multicultural Experience
MEDI	Media from other Countries
MNC	Multinational Corporation
MSGN	Management Study Guide Network
MWE	Multicultural Work Experience
n.s.	No Significance
NAFSA	National Association of Foreign Student Advisers
NAT	Nationality
OAI	Overseas Assignment Inventory
ORC	Organizational Readiness for Change
p	Probability
PCN	Parent Country National
PLS	Partial Least Squares
POL	Polycentrism
PT	Professional Intercultural Training
RFO	Respect for Otherness
Sig.	Significance
SOC	Behavioural/Social Skills
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRA	Social Rapport

STA	Marital Status
TAM	Tolerance of Ambiguity
TCN	Third Country National
TRAV	Traveling Abroad Experience
TYPE	Type of Manager
VAR	Variable

Chapter 1

Introduction

1 Introduction

Every human has four endowments- self awareness, conscience, will and imagination. These give us the ultimate human freedom... the power to choose, to respond, to change.

Stephen R. Covey

The promoting action for organizational change has moulded the way organizations approach new challenges, particularly during the last twenty years due to the rapid liberalization of markets. Thus, the ability of organizations to adapt to change has become a major concern all over the world. Regardless of the sector, type of industry, volume of sales, size or system, multinational corporations—in their variety of forms—are under challenge more than ever before. Globalization, as the process of economic integration, intrinsically and necessarily implies more sophisticated intercultural communication networks, physical mobility deployment of people across borders as well as higher levels of adaptability to new environments. This process is imminent, unavoidable and, to a certain extent, inevitable. The level of connectivity among nations is stronger than ever and both individuals and organizations need to negotiate with the rest of the world in a more assertive and efficient way. As a result of this progression organizations are rapidly learning and implementing strategies to survive. Organizations lacking creative modification may face difficulties in survival (Katz and Georgopoulos, 1971). It is common that organizations undergo periods of turbulence and crisis because of major structural changes and the role that individuals play in such periods is crucial for the achievement of the change objective, though a great number of organizations still lack adequate adaptive structures towards change strategies. Both internal and external forces influence organizational change. Internal forces may then be either planned or unplanned so the nature of the change may vary accordingly. Managers are the architects of organizational change, and corporations,

especially multinational corporations¹ need a different type of manager today. A manager who is able to think, react and behave comfortably within intercultural environments. Subsequently, intercultural competencies (capabilities, abilities and skills) are crucial when it comes to change planning, management and implementation. But, how ready are they for change? What intercultural abilities are required for that? That is exactly what this research aims to determine. Thus, the central object of this dissertation is the study of the effects of intercultural competence as a factor of competitiveness represented by the notion of organizational readiness for change.

The starting point is the understanding of intercultural competencies as practical tools which can be developed by managers working in multinational environments challenged by the undeniable need for rapid assimilation and adaptation for change. This consideration implies to achieve a certain level of consciousness of the *status quo* and of the limitations that it involves in terms of human behaviour. Recent history focuses more and more on the role of organizations as actors of the human *system of interactions* and increasingly more attention has been paid to the capacity of managers to respond to the very organizational *instincts* of survival. Those initial questions posed above lead to a reflection from different angles, but with one clear idea which is the relation between intercultural competence and readiness for change.

Thus, the phenomenon of globalization stresses the appreciation of organizational readiness for change favouring the development of social representations among individuals within the organization. Hence managers (as leading individuals within the organization) necessarily have an influence on the attitudes, values, and behaviour of the people within the labour sphere; and the development of change readiness implies a certain level of organizational flexibility so that the internal structures can carry out the key processes towards adaptation and integration. Yet, the capacity (readiness) for

¹ This study was predominantly conducted on managers of multinational corporations (MNC) because such types of organizations present higher levels of cultural diversity and there is higher probability that some managers have received intercultural training at one stage of their careers (which is one of the aspects measured as an additional influencing factor of readiness for change). Moreover, a study on MNC's provides international relevance of the work since the outcome can be of great interest for corporations world-wide.

change in both the manager and the organization is undoubtedly linked to the concept of competitiveness because the new “rules” of competitiveness include values such as rapid organizational adjustment, simplicity and quick managers’ decision-making. Figure 1.1 on the context of competitive strategy according to Porter (1998) clearly shows the role of the implementer’s (manager) personal values along with the strengths and weaknesses of the organization as internal factors of the strategy. And it is precisely in the manager’s personal values where the notion of readiness for change is embedded.

Strategic planning represents an important aspect when referring to organizational change because it presupposes the strategic management of innovation and progress, which inevitably deals with that predisposition to change required by managers and organizations. Especially in multinational organizations innovation and development strategies include all sets of international (read intercultural) capabilities, abilities and skills that managers require to address all facets and phases of change.

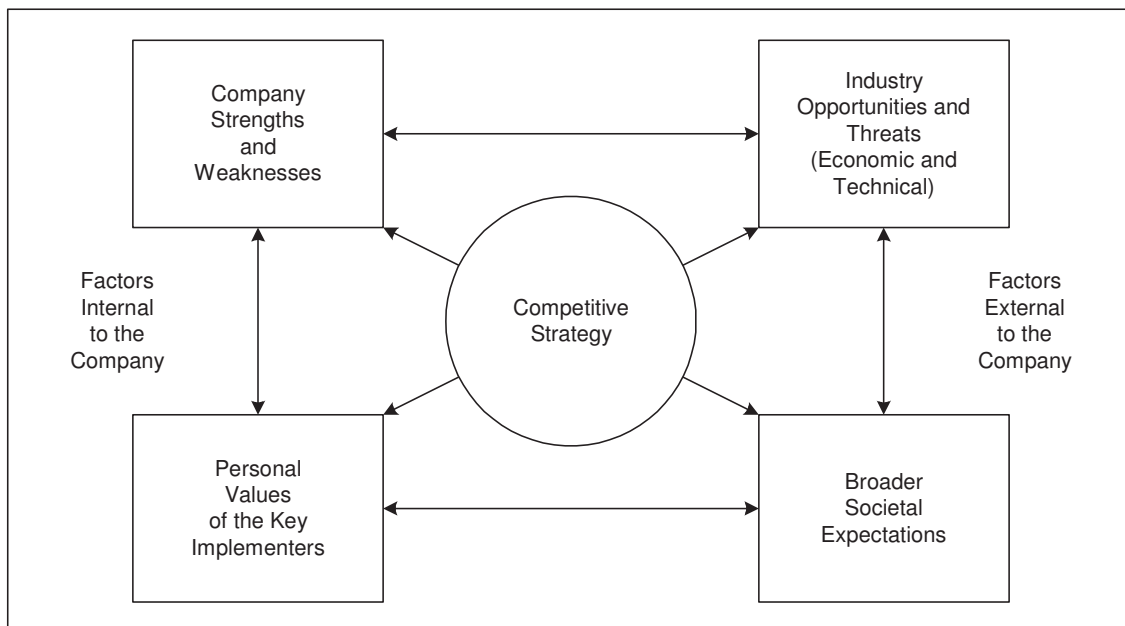


Figure 1.1 Context in which competitive strategy is formulated

Source: Adapted from Porter, M. E. (1998). *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors*. New York. The Free Press. Introduction, 1980 p. xxvi

Perhaps one of the reasons of strategic planning failure is the lack of tools related to the implementation of the strategy; thus this study tries to prove that intercultural competencies can be powerful potential tools that managers can use to facilitate change. Unquestionably, management decisions related to organizational change are quite complex and multifaceted but organizations must be aware that humans are the most valuable and important resource they have. According to Pleshko (1993) there are three dimensions to be considered for the outcome or results of the organization: efficacy, efficiency and adaptability. Efficacy explained as the degree of achievement of organizational objectives; efficiency regarded as the positive relation between inputs and outputs; and adaptability as the organization's capability of change in accordance to its own opportunity and threats. Ready-for-change organizations are those who emphasize the importance of people's role involved in the change; that is, the people who live and experience the change and their capabilities (among them their intercultural capabilities). Therefore, the appropriate management of the human resources passing through a process of organizational change is crucial for the success of the carrying out and implementation.

Nevertheless, Porter's model is, to a certain extent limited in the sense that it is rigid and apparently does not offer range for an "evolving" process. Quinn's (1978) notion of *logical incrementalism* rises when detecting that organizations do not necessary follow a formal pattern of strategic management because the process is rather intuitive. The change of strategies comes from both internal and external factors and sometimes the organization has little control over such factors; therefore it is difficult to predict or anticipate the very nature of changing events. This approach basically emphasizes the fact that organizations frequently lack time and resources to face change and its consequences. Quinn (1980) proposes three dominant patterns for successful strategic change management: (1) the creation of incremental awareness and commitment; (2) the consolidation of the procedure and; (3) the integration of both processes and interests. He suggests that organizations normally try to keep existing strategies rather than making drastic changes.

Intercultural competence appears thus in this scenario as a strategy of readiness for change and it can be considered as relevant from the logical incrementalist perspective according to the Quinn's premises of experience and gradual change associated with the traditional organizational strategic management. That notion of incrementalism contrasts with the conception of rationality as a way to measure *comprehensiveness*² (Fredrickson, 1984) in an attempt to understand the strategies behind organizational performance. However, strategies based on the rationality model; flow easier within stable environments (Fredrickson and Iaquinto 1987).

The rational paradigm basically refers to strategic management as a step-by-step structure, where strategies come out from a detailed analysis of the objectives as well as a carefully conducted planning phase. Rationality, under this perspective, helps the formulation of strategies in a very systematic approach which is undoubtedly useful. But when considering intercultural competence as a strategic aspect of organizational performance and progress, it is necessary to bear in mind the risks of only relying on a rational planning. Therefore, the stance of this study falls into the incrementalist paradigm not only because it recognizes the role of culture and involves intuitive thinking; likewise because the insertion of intercultural competence as a strategic element towards managers' readiness for organizational change is rather a link within a series of processes through which other strategies develop from the managers' perceptions concerning change and readiness.

In summary, all organizations pursue their own objectives as a function of the sector, industry or whatever the business nature be in which they are involved, and every organization offers a unique environment with different characteristics or peculiarities that should be considered by managers when it comes to the conception, preparation, securing and implementation of change within the organization. The literature on change and change readiness provides evidence that managers must have the abilities to cope with unexpected situations and be able to direct people, work and

² The term *comprehensiveness* in this context to be understood as: "the extent to which an organization attempts to be exhaustive or inclusive in making and integrating strategic decisions." (Fredrickson and Mitchell, 1984)

operations towards the necessary adjustments facing change. The adaptation to new situations in any working environment definitely implies abilities that have to do with interpersonal relations rather than with only technical or structural aspects.³ Therefore the idea of exploring such necessary interpersonal abilities appears to be relevant for the notion of change readiness and the associated skills of managers.

Moreover, this research study addresses the two connecting points (intercultural competence and readiness for change) from three well-identified standpoints:⁴ (1) the managers' intellectual capabilities; (2) the managers' emotional abilities; and (3) the managers' behavioural-social skills. A collation of coincident models on intercultural competence showing those three perspectives will be revisited in the literature review.

Thus, the linkage between readiness for change and intercultural competence is not accidental; and as stated before, the purpose of this dissertation is to prove that the higher the capabilities of a manager to communicate with people of other cultures; to manage reactions to stereotypes and pre-acquired prejudices; to adapt to new ways of thinking, behaving and interacting; to maintain and cultivate positive relationships; to respect and understand other cultures; and showing a flexible attitude towards cultural differences; the higher the predisposition for organizational change will be.

³ This new conception is being explored by some researchers and some related work on the cognitive approach of strategic management was provided in a paper by Laroche and Nioche (1994).

⁴ These three perspectives will be repeatedly observed and/or mentioned throughout the chapters, and even tested and presented in a *post-hoc* analysis as independent components influencing readiness for change in managers.

1.1 Motivation and problem statement

Teaching and consulting in the area of intercultural management during the last seven years led the researcher through practice, experience and reflection on the focus of this study, at the same time that oriented his interests into finding concrete answers on the effects of intercultural competence in real managerial performance. Thus, the query of investigation that has driven the motivation of the researcher to carry out this study is the product of several years of professional work both in intercultural competence consulting and teaching intercultural management, aspects which derived in a persistent curiosity about the intercultural skills required for fostering organizational competitiveness. Among the reasons to select this topic, apart from the personal drivers of having an intrinsic tendency to get involved in intercultural environments and a natural inclination to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds; were: the interest in establishing a possible relationship between global progress, internationalization challenges and predisposition for change as a competitive advantage of organizations; and those specific intercultural abilities associated with such mindset.

Management is a practice that undoubtedly concerns individual and organizational change through planning (activities), organizing (resources) and leading (people). These three concepts can be applied and explained at an individual, national and organizational level. An individual plans personal activities, organizes his/her own tasks and leads others –directly or indirectly– in order to achieve personal objectives. Organizations, as units, do exactly the same; by means of the managers they plan organizational activities, organize resources and lead through an organizational structure headed for the accomplishment of its objectives. According to Medina-Walker *et al.* (2003) managers require intercultural competencies based on several aspects: an open attitude; that is, challenging assumptions, quick judgement avoidance, ambiguity tolerance; self-awareness, meaning knowing one's own cultural values, beliefs, attitudes, behaviours and assumptions; other-awareness, meaning knowledge about the other, cultural disconnects, values, perceptions and behaviours of the counterparts; cultural knowledge; that is knowledge about the others' culture in terms of history,

problems, decisions, motivations, etc.; and cross-cultural skills; meaning the abilities to properly perform in multicultural situations and intercultural business practices.

Several studies have been conducted to find out the determinant factors of employees' readiness for organizational change. Such factors include elements like career commitment, job satisfaction, involvement with the organization, wages, etc., but little or nothing has been done on the intercultural abilities and their effect on readiness for organizational change (particularly of managers). This situation exposes a gap in the subject matter and has led to the construction of the following research question:

What are the intercultural competencies associated with managers' readiness for organizational change?

This question arises and becomes crucial within the global context due to the rapidly changing dynamics of international management and the inevitable adjustments that multinational corporations face in order to survive in the markets. After some approaches made by scholars on how to determine readiness for change, interesting conclusions have been produced but there have not been, as previously mentioned, concrete answers in regards to the very relationship between intercultural competence and managers' readiness for organizational change.

1.2 Scope and delimitation of the study

This doctoral thesis is about the impact of intercultural competence on managers' readiness for organizational change; over which the researcher makes a quantitative in-depth analysis in order to prove the hypothesis. The knowledge obtained through the findings of this study aims to contribute to the field of management sciences with specific relevance for managers, and organizations, but also for higher educational institutions which include intercultural management courses as core modules of their curricula.

This study primarily covers aspects of management, but also some aspects of other disciplines such as sociology, psychology and anthropology; though it only analyses in detail those strictly concerned with the specific objective embedded in the research question. The phenomenon examined is then delimited by the definition of concepts provided in chapter three, deriving from the literature review of several studies on intercultural communication, intercultural management, cross-cultural management, organizational behaviour, organizational culture and of course readiness for change and change management including resistance to change and the nature of change in the global environment. With the exception of manager's multicultural experience, level of management, type of manager and the intercultural training exposure;⁵ this study does not consider other factors affecting readiness for change such as job satisfaction, work involvement, compensation packages or performance appraisals since it is intended to measure only the intercultural competencies affecting the capacity (predisposition for change). Thus, the focus of this dissertation remains on the basic connection established between intercultural competence and readiness for change, plus the four additional factors mentioned above.

This research was carried out using a quantitative methodology approach, under an ontological assumption; it supposes objectivity of the reality being observed. Furthermore, (and now attending to a rather epistemological assumption) the researcher appeals to remain independent from that being researched in an attempt to guarantee impartiality. With this in mind this dissertation aims to provide sound scientific knowledge through the validation of the formulated premises upon the concepts delimited in this section.

⁵ These additional factors considered for the study are delimited and explained in the conceptual framework and also tested and presented in the analysis of results.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This Ph.D. thesis was written in conformity with traditional standards in terms of format and logical sequence. The total document is composed of six main chapters. The general structure is presented in the following synoptic chart.

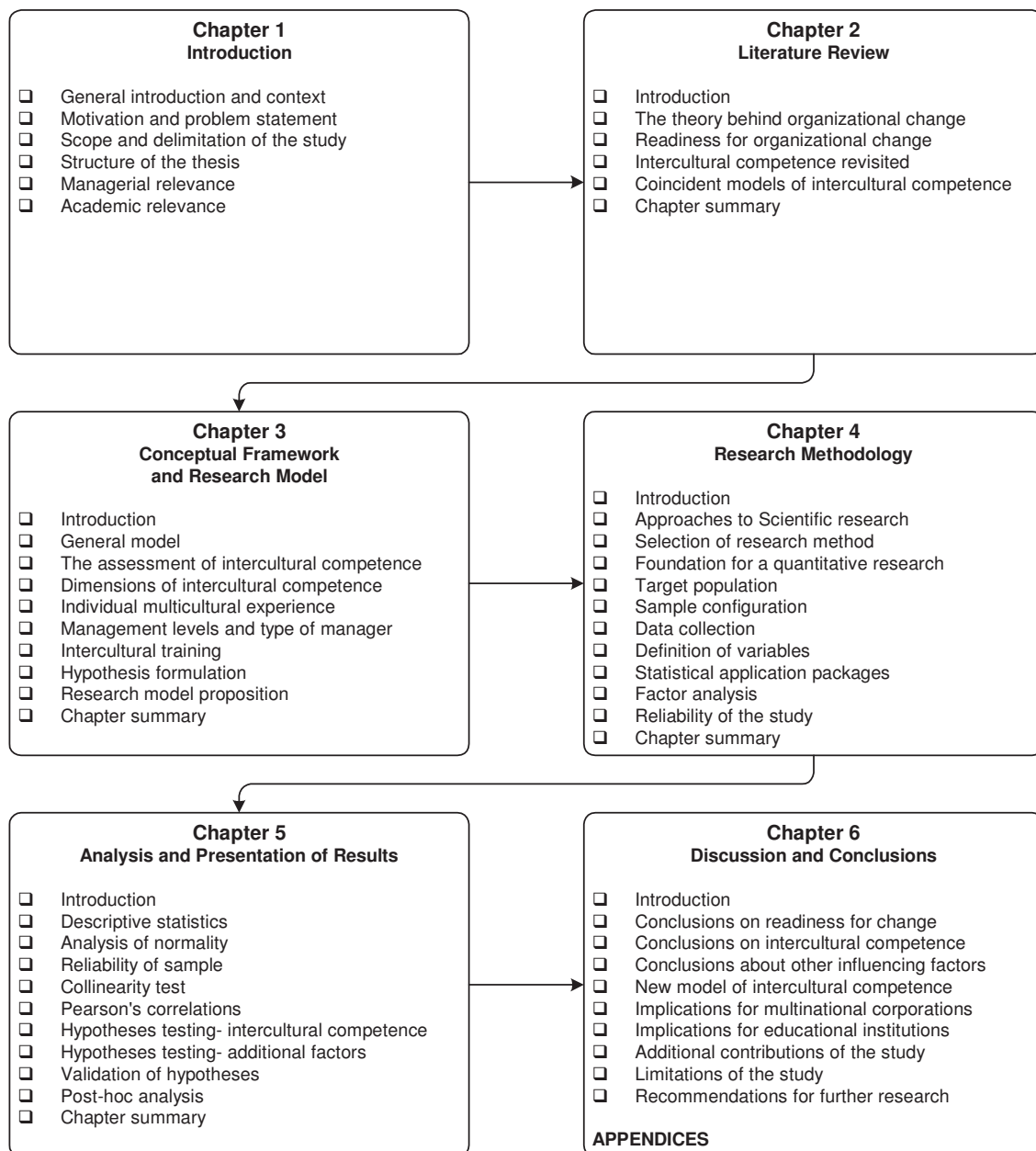


Figure 1.2 Synoptic presentation of the thesis

1.4 Managerial relevance

One of the main objectives of strategic management is to guarantee the continuity of the organization and the constant improvement of practices in order to achieve the general goals. Therefore, managers need to understand the priorities, values and culture of the organization so that such objectives can be accomplished. But to what extent are managers really prepared for the future? To what extent do managers understand cultural diversity and how can they profit from that? Do international managers know what competencies there are to be learned and developed? Some might be aware of this, but presumably many still overlook the importance of acquiring intercultural competencies and how they can facilitate readiness for change.

The managerial relevance of this study is motivated and determined by the new challenges that organizations face within the global context. Technological innovations, and the increasing interconnectivity among individuals and organizations, suppose new ways of managing and decision-making approaches. In order to successfully deal with such challenges, organizations and managers need to be —not only able to adapt to change— but also “ready” for change. Recent trends in management practices are associated with new abilities of managers to carry out transformation and that implies the development of new competencies. Management combines a mix of different activities, but perhaps the most significant of all tasks —due to the impact imbedded— are those associated with managing other people; because managers who are able to maintain the levels of performance, efficiency, motivation and productivity of other employees, are managers who have certain *interpersonal* abilities. Now, if we transport this onto a global scale, where diversity becomes an everyday issue, those interpersonal abilities become *intercultural* abilities. Hence the significance of this dissertation as a possible reference for managers who seek to understand and find out about some of the competencies that might be required to gain intercultural proficiency and face change within the organization.

1.5 Academic relevance

As in the case of managers and organizations, educational institutions must concern themselves with the notion of intercultural competence if they want to provide integral professional instruction. Students graduating from university nowadays require new tools and skills that perhaps thirty years ago were not considered essential. The reason is simple, they now compete globally for job positions and the deployment of young professionals around the world is remarkable. This research was actually mainly conducted among young managers who, not very long ago, were still enrolled in their respective universities; many of whom spend at least one semester abroad.

International business programmes have proliferated in recent years, as have also the number of alliances, agreements, double-degree courses and consortiums; which have forced such institutions to include in their curricula subjects that were not so common a few decades ago, for instance international negotiations, foreign languages, and evidently cross-cultural management related topics.

The academic relevance of this study is then sustained under the assumption that many of those higher educational institutions may use this work as reference to consider specific intercultural competences to be included in their teaching programmes. Actually one of the variables included in this study is about the impact of academic intercultural training and its correlation with readiness for change. Higher educational institutions are also required to insert more innovative ways of teaching since class rooms are increasingly integrated by more culturally diverse groups and the dynamics of learning and providing instruction must be adapted in order to keep a desirable level of performance and knowledge gain.

Current student exchange and mobility have an impact not only on the student himself, but on the faculty involved both at the home university and at the destination university. Therefore, educational institutions enhancing internationalization could profit from the possible contributions of this work in the field of management sciences as an essential academic component of future managers.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2 Literature Review

He who loves practice without theory is like the sailor who boards ship without a rudder and compass and never knows where he may cast.

Leonardo da Vinci

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the review of the literature in order to explore and obtain the necessary theoretical support through the definition of the concepts to be studied before the empirical study. A section dedicated to the theory following organizational change provides the rationale of the subject along with plenty of definitions from prominent scholars in the field who offer a solid base towards a subsequent conceptualization of the topic. Several approaches to organizational change are presented in the same section in order to complement the scientific definitions. Moreover, a subsection describing the role of the manager in organizational change is included with the purpose of directing the attention to the manager as the designer and organizer of change; then, another subsection to insert the role of the manager in the context of change management and organizational learning.

After a thorough review of change management under the mentioned criteria, there is another section exclusively devoted to the term readiness for organizational change. This section was planned to provide sufficient background on this relatively new topic including the notions of resistance to change, dynamics of individual readiness for change and the actual manager's linkage with organizational change and his/her role as a change agent.

Once the soundness on change management and readiness for change have been provided in the first three sections of the chapter, it was considered appropriate to address the notion of intercultural competence as the major connecting point upon which the whole study will be based. Just as for the concepts of organizational change

and readiness, the theory of intercultural competence was extensively revisited in order to offer enough conceptual reliability of the subject matter. A number of definitions of intercultural competence, from diverse scientific areas such as anthropology, psychology, sociology and management were taken into consideration in order to form a strong theoretical foundation. Furthermore, sixteen coincident models on intercultural competence were selected and exposed with the intention of creating robust support to the conceptual framework. The sixteen selected models share certain homogeneity in terms of composition which is crucial for the purposes of defining the variables of the model and the formulation of hypotheses. This chapter ends up a small summary to recap the main contents and setup rationale in preparation for chapter three on conceptualization.

2.2 The theory behind organizational change

Organizational change has traditionally been studied under the discipline of organizational development due to the fact that it is considered a response to change that contemplates transformations in beliefs, attitudes and values from both individual and organizational perspectives. Organizational development is then an effort of systematic improvement from the highest management level. It is strategic; a planned endeavour tailored for the increment of effectiveness through productivity and performance. Beckhard (1969) defines it as “an effort planned, organization-wide, and managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization’s processes, using behavioural-science knowledge.” For Wagner and Hollenbeck (1998) change is the act of varying or altering conventional ways of thinking or behaving.

To get consensus on one single definition of organizational change is difficult, but several attempts have been done and provide a more harmonized idea of the subject matter. Burnes (1996) proposes that organizational change should refer to the understanding of alterations within organizations relating individuals, groups, and at the collective level across the whole organization. Francesco and Gold (1998) contribute to

the definition by saying that organizational change is the “reconfiguration of the components of an organization to increase efficiency and effectiveness.” They complement thus Burnes’ input with the statement that change can occur at three different levels at the individual level, at the group level, or at the actual executive-organizational level. A concept description by Per-Olof Berg (1985) offers the reflection that organizational change can be perceived as a process of symbolic transformation where the form and content of a symbolic area is altered. It is important to mention that Berg proposes to see organizational change with a view of organizations as if they were “symbolic fields” hence the analogy of symbolic transformation. (Austin and Bartunek, 2006) refer to Bass’s contribution of transformational leadership framework (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994) who conceives that organizational change appears as the result of “leaders’ attempts to develop their followers and transform follower goals to match more closely those of the organization.” This approach though, is more linked to the scholars who establish direct correlations between change management and leadership style. Furthermore, Austin and Bartunek (2006) affirm that other researchers see organizational change as the final result of cognitive development of organizational leaders, and quote Hooijberg, Hunt, and Dodge (1997) as the main scholars. Porras and Robertson (1992) define organizational change as a “set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members’ on-the-job behaviours.”

For Hutchison (2001) in (Chonko, 2004), organizational change is something like the break down process of existing structures in order to create new structures including culture and strategy. This leads us to the assuming assertion that change alters people’s actions, reactions, and interactions to shift the existing present state of the organization to a future desired state (Pettigrew, 1990). Collette (1997), made also a comprehensive description where organizational change is defined as “a relatively sustainable change occurring in a subsystem of the organization, provided that this change can be observed by its members or by those who are connected with that

system.” Grouard and Meston (1998) captures the concept by saying that organizational change is “the process of radical or marginal transformation of the structures and competences set up in the process of the development of the organizations” and for Van de Ven and Poole (1995) organizational change is viewed as the “empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organizational entity. The entity may be an individual’s job, a work group, an organizational strategy, a program, a product, or the overall organization.”

In a plain sense, change can be regarded as the act of departing from a status quo (Rothwell, Stavros and Sullivan, 2010). It is proposed that change carries out implicitly the idea of movement from one present point to a future point. It implies the transformation of attitude and therefore behaviour. Golembiewski (1990) postulates three levels of change: *alpha change* —implies constant progress— “a shift from a pre-change state to a post-change state in which variables and measurement remain constant; *beta change* —implies variable progress— “a shift from a pre-change state to a post-change state in which variables and measurement methods themselves change; and *gamma change* —in addition to beta change— “a radical shift from what was originally defined as a pre-change state and a post-change state” also called transformational change because it involves a major “transformation.”

Rothwell, Stavros, and Sullivan (2010) show also another approach from Anderson and Anderson (2001) on three levels of change where they make an interesting distinction: *Developmental change*: “it represents the improvement of an existing skill, method, performance standard, or condition that for some reason does not measure up to the current or future needs.” *Transitional change*: “rather than simply improve what is, transitional change replaces what is with something entirely different.” *Transformational change*: “the most complex type of change facing organizations today. Simply said, transformation is the radical shift from one state of being to another, so significant that it requires a shift of culture, behaviour, and mindset to implement successfully and sustain over time.”

As observed in the previous definitions, organizational change is a systematic process of alteration and it necessarily involves a future referent. Organizational

literature provides enough evidence that every change within the organization implies a certain level of transformation and that transformation is primarily linked to the constitution of organizational effectiveness. However, we must recognize some divergence when defining organizational change by showing an undervalued description that states: “Organizational change can be understood as a 'neutral' term identifying the simple fact that organizations do change over time” (Levin, 1991). Though for the purposes of this work, ultimately the very essence of a change is, or should be not the change per se, but a change towards improvement. Steven Ott (1996) refers to Bennis (1984) as making use of the term *healthy organization* to broaden his concept of effectiveness within the organization. The criteria includes (in Schein, 1980, p.232): (1) adaptability, as the capacity to resolve problems and respond with flexibility to the changing claims; (2) sense of identity, knowledge about the organization in terms of activity and goals; (3) capacity to measure reality, the ability to recognize and interpret the signs and codes of the environment that are pertinent to the organization and, (4) integration, meaning the incorporation of all four criteria elements throughout the whole organization. According to Bennis, these criteria are the basic conditions needed in an organization in order to achieve effectiveness.

We can summarize this section by saying that organizational change is any significant action or cluster of actions which results in a move of path or progression that has an effect on the way an organization and its managers work, relate and perform. Changing organizations requires direct manipulation of the organizational variables and those alterable components that are influenced by both external and internal forces. Moreover, the internal events are inevitably related to the small cumulative changes executed by every single individual within the organization. Organizational change is a complex and diverse process. Barabel (2010) recaps the idea of change as a significant modification of a state, relation or situation within a political, economic, and social context of an organization, whose elements affect the people who work in that organization. It is undeniable that change is there in the everyday life of an organization

and it presents itself in many different forms.⁶ But perhaps the reason why it has become an increasingly relevant topic for management is the quickness and frequency with which change occurs. It is a central phenomenon in organizations if we conceive the organization as a continuous changing system. Changes within an among organizations relate to each other in a variety of manners and it is to be handled by all concerned organizational members as it appears, especially when it is imminent. Change is defined in terms of organizational development and growth (Starbuck, 1965); but also in terms of capacity and level of adaptation (Thompson, 1967).

Table 2-1 Selected definitions of organizational change

Author	Definition
Barabel and Meier (2010)	Organizational change is an ambivalent concept that symbolizes whether the progress (improvement/ innovation) or the risk of a loss in terms of resources and power.
Bass (1985); Bass and Avolio (1994)	Organizational change emerges as the result of leaders' attempts to develop their followers and transform follower goals to match more closely those of the organization.
Beckhard (1969)	An effort planned, organization-wide, and managed from the top, to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioural-science knowledge.
Bruno-Faria (2000)	Any alteration planned or not, occurred in the organization, resulting from internal and/or external factors to the organization that brings some impact in the results and/or the relations between people at work.
Burnes (1996)	The understanding of alterations within organizations relating individuals, groups, and at the collective level across the whole organization.
Collerette (1997)	A relatively sustainable change occurring in a subsystem of the organization, provided that this change can be observed by its members or by those who are connected with that system.
Ford and Ford (1995)	It is a temporary event strictly related to a logic, or individual point of view that allows people to think and to speak about the perceived change.
Francesco and Gold (1998)	Organizational change is the reconfiguration of the components of an organization to increase efficiency and effectiveness.
Grouard and Meston (1998)	The process of radical or marginal transformation of the structures and competences set up in the process of the development of the organizations.

⁶ Barabel and Meier (2010) propose that change can be taken in a variety of forms according to its extension, its depth and its rhythm.

Author	Definition
Hafsi and Fabi (1997) *In Barabel (2010)	Organizational change is a process of radical or marginal transformation of the structures and competences that punctuate the evolution process of organizations.
Hooijberg & Dodge (1997); Torbert (1991)	Organizational change is the end result of cognitive development of organizational leaders.
Hutchison (2001)	Organizational change is comprised of those processes that break down existing structures and create new structures—often new organizations, cultures, business strategies, and ways of working.
Levin (1991)	Organizational change can be understood as a neutral term identifying the simple fact that organizations do change over time.
March, James G. (1991)	Change refers to any effort to improve organizational performance and strengthen competitive advantage. It involves adaptation and a delicate trade-off between exploration and exploitation.
Per-Olof Berg (1985)	Organizational change can be perceived as a process of symbolic transformation where the form and content of a symbolic area is altered.
Perret (1996)	Organizational change is a permanent element that allows the enterprise to adapt to its own environment.
Porras and Robertson (1992)	A set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members' on-the-job behaviours.
Robbins (1999)	Proactive and directed intentional activities conducive to achieve the organizational goals.
Van de Ven and Poole (1995)	The empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organizational entity. The entity may be an individual's job, a work group, an organizational strategy, a program, a product, or the overall organization.
Vandangeon-Derumez (1999)	An organizational change is a constant in management during the life of an organization.
Wood Jr (2000)	Any transformation of structural, strategic, cultural, technological, human nature or other components, capable of generating impact on the organization either in parts or as a whole.

2.2.1 Approaches to organizational change

Leavitt (1970) suggests several approaches to organizational change. He refers to organizations as complex systems and proposes four types of interacting variables to come into view at the notion of change within organizations: (1) *Task variables*, (2) *structural variables*, (3) *technological variables*, and (4) *human variables* [Figure 2.1]. Leavitt then categorizes all groups into three major approaches to change: *structural*, *technological* and *people*. Task in this regard is associated with the industry or sector in

which the organization works. This is, the field or business nature; its main activity as organization including whether the goods or services provided and all the dependant sub-tasks. Structure would mean the systems associated with communication and work flow, including authority channels. Technology is linked to the means that the organization uses to perform its business. The tools and assets needed to carry out the fundamental activities. And finally he refers to the human variables as the actors, but the ones with power of decision who hold the credentials and executive permissions to give orders.

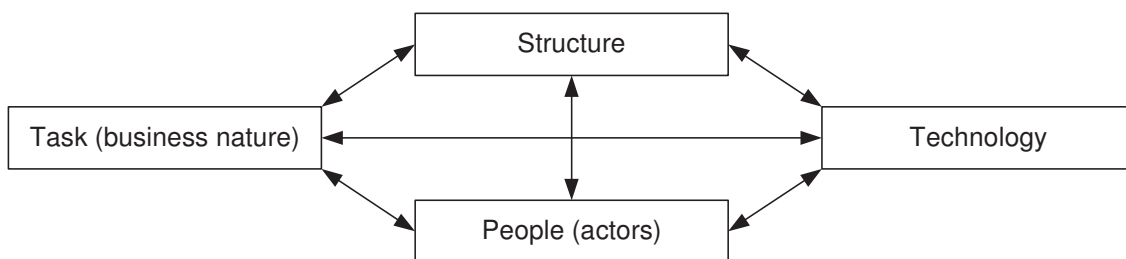


Figure 2.1 Organizations' interacting variables

Source: Adapted from Leavitt H. in March (1970)

The concept of interdependency shown by Leavitt in this model proposes that any change given in one of those four variable sets, will ultimately affect the other variables, especially the “task variable” as it is where all changes acquire significant relevance.

Structural approach. The emphasis of the structural approach is placed on the values such “as discipline, system and acceptance of authority.” It is highly linked with power and hierarchy which is typical in task-oriented and non-egalitarian type of organizations. Rigid procedures, very detailed job descriptions, rather formal and inflexible are some of the characteristics associated with this approach. Traditionally, in the past it has been a common way of working adopted by a number of organizations where changes required high levels of control and strict measures of induction and implementation. Managers within this approach tend to have a greater power distance and institutional changes occur in a rather bureaucratic style.

Technological approach. The technological approach stresses the idea of implementing changes as a result of the invention of new “technologies” rather than to the implementation of just new ideas. According to Leavitt (1970) “information theory did not significantly change organizations until the development of computers and programming could serve as carriers of operational change.” He points at Taylor’s Scientific Management (1911) as the first major entry into this approach and refers to aspects such as technical skills, industrial engineering where the engineers are regarded as change agents thanks to their abilities in planning and measuring.

People approach. This scheme rescues the person as the predominant change agent. Leavitt (1970): “The people approach tries to change organizations by first changing the organization’s members.” We can realize here that special emphasis is placed on the behaviour of the individuals (managers as decision makers). This approach leads us to the idea that the crucial factor is the person and his/her capability of change at first instance. Particularly observed in egalitarian decentralized type of organizations it includes some unique and exclusive characteristics such as: imagination, creativity and innovation. Among many other particularities, this proposal embraces aspects such as human growth and fulfilment which are key elements that have become quite relevant, especially during the past four decades where more emphasis has been placed on the human aspect of organizations as a crucial element. [Figure 2.2] shows a graphical representation of the approaches to organizational change according to Leavitt.

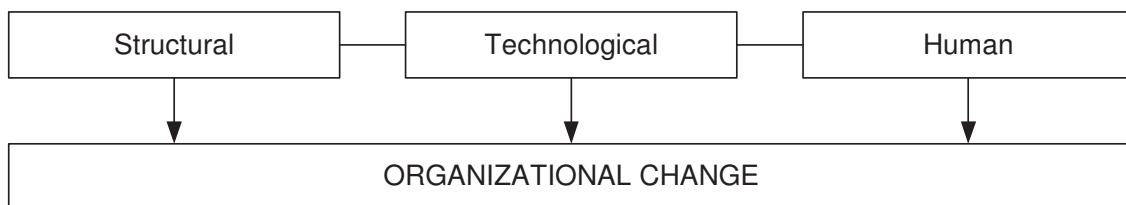


Figure 2.2 Approaches to organizational change

Teneau and Pesqueux (2005) in their book *la résistance au changement organisationnel*, propose eight aspects [Table 2.2] to consider for the composition of

change which are very explicit and serve as a good orientation for the understanding of the concept. They start by addressing the vital aspect of “change actors” and connect it with the subsequent facets of the change process which concern the objects of the change; the origins and sources of change; its practical levels; constituent forms; the drivers of change as well as its stages and incidents; and finalize the ultimate aims and objectives of change.

Table 2-2 Composition of change according to Teneau

1. The actors of change	Engineers, technicians (facilitators of change). Heroes, leaders, managers (constructors and innovators). Victims (submitted).
2. The objects of change	Either people; material objects and/or abstract objects such as ideals.
3. The origins and sources of change	Exogenous forces (the impact of the environment); endogenous forces (interactions within the organization); and the internal/external boundaries of the organization.
4. The levels of such change	Technology and infrastructure; socio structure (rational and political) superstructure of values and cultures.
5. The forms of change	1) Reproductor or evolutionary 2) Transformer or revolutionary.
6. The drivers and logics of change	Family, life cycle, evolution, dialectic, teleology. Van de Ven and Poole (1995).
7. The stages and episodes of change	Discipline 1: Organizational Development. Discipline 2: Change within the organization.
8. The aims and functions of change	Change is conceived in a technocratic way in order to improve or reform the system. Change is addressed from a political approach which aim is to reform considering a more radical way.

Source: Adapted from Teneau and Pesqueux (2005). *La Résistance au changement organisationnel: Perspectives sociocognitives*. Paris. L'Harmattan. p. 29.

2.2.2 The role of the manager in organizational change

The relationship between the manager and the organization is primarily an employee-organization one, and in joining an organization, a manager accepts the rules from upper levels but at the same time he/she brings some own rules to the game. Managers have a more versatile set of choices than other employees and those choices depend on a higher level of complexity inherent to the job's nature. In other words, a manager is an employee with formal legitimate influence (Cohen *et al.*, 1992) who

makes choices about functions and styles of leadership in the context of the situation: whether it is the nature of the task; expertise; attitudes and needs of subordinates or the management of power towards superiors. (Cohen *et al.*, 1992) suggest that managers have essentially three types or categories of functions: the first category is *interpersonal* —which “involves building and maintaining contacts and relationships with a variety of people located both inside and outside his/her organizational unit”—. The second category is *informational* —which “involves gathering and disseminating information inside the unit and to and from the external environment”—. And the third category is *decision-making* which —“involves making a range of decisions pertaining to internal operating practices and to exchanges with other units of the organization as well as the outside world.” From this model we can further perceive an interrelation among the three categories within which certain subsets of functions interplay in a sort of dynamic system. The role of the manager in the interpersonal (social) category is one of an administrator or controller, where he or she directs and organizes the work that ought to be done. The role of the manager in the informational (cognitive) category is that of a distributor or disseminator who disperses or spreads the information that has to be known by all subordinates. And the role of the manager in the decision-making (emotional+cognitive) is that of a negotiator, where he or she makes the choices and actions to be executed by subordinates.⁷ Managerial behaviour establishes a clear relationship between superiors and subordinates and presupposes individual change. Woodman and Dewett in Van de Ven and Poole (2004) consider three common managerial behaviours tailoring change: feedback, granting autonomy, and support/encouragement. Research on feedback shows interesting conclusions on how it influences behaviour in both groups and individuals. For instance, Adler (2002) makes an interesting link between feedback and effective team diversity management, where feedback constitutes an important factor for innovation, divergence, and common goals achievement; which are essential elements of organizational change and the role

⁷ The concepts: social, cognitive and emotional will be later on used in this study to frame up a suggesting grouping of variables associated with the managers’ intercultural capabilities as determinant factors for change readiness.

managers play in it. Ashford and Cummings (1981) associate feedback and performance with managerial behaviour; since feedback provides information valuable in correcting behavioural mistakes toward achieving the organizational goals (Nadler, 1977). According to the work of Woodman and Dewett, “feedback provides motivation to the individual that is necessary to engender continued and/or increased effort.” The second managerial behaviour proposed by Woodman and Dewett is the granting of autonomy. Managers and employees in general, seem to perform better in environments of autonomy, where they are free to make the appropriate decisions according to the organizational goals. This also influences individual change according to the authors and they presume —referring to the study of Hackman and Oldham (1980)— that managers working under an atmosphere of independence and freedom positively impact individual change performance when conducting a task. In view of that, Zhou (1998) suggests that a certain level of autonomy leads to creativity; another essential ingredient of organizational change. The third aspect proposed by Woodman and Dewett leading to individual change is that one related to support and encouragement. They cite Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, and Herron (1996) referring to those terms, along with communication, as important factors of creativity. Thus, feedback, autonomy and support/encouragement encompass an interesting combination of determining elements towards the interpretation of organizational change and its consequent managerial behaviour. The latter explains intrinsically the relevance of the role that managers play within the process of change. The role of a manager involves also the coordination of tools and assessments in order to make specific decisions about strategies, plans and policies that are needed to encourage employee enthusiasm for very specific change situations. Neilson *et al.* (2004) split the role of the manager within three different sets of activities which influence behaviour: (1) *techniques and processes* —meaning the insertion of all kinds of management tools necessary for the decision making process—, (2) *change interventions* —of managers, leaders and employees through a consistent alignment in the sense of route at both strategy and direction levels, towards influencing (changing) individual attitudes and behaviours— and, (3) *maintaining discipline* — meaning keeping control over the change process and managing risks—. Neilson *et al.*

uphold the idea that those three points of change management are essential for a successful transformation to be carried out by managers within any change process.

2.2.3 Change management and organizational learning

How to manage change appears to be a medullar question when it comes to strategic management, and hence the importance of analysing this concept and its relation to readiness in order to understand the mechanisms behind the foundation, inception and implementation of change. Change management is more and more associated with the term *organizational learning*, especially, individual change, because it deals with the techniques and processes that individuals use to achieve change. Both organizational learning and change management shall later be discussed under the optic of change readiness for a clearer understanding of the subject matter. Francesco and Gold (1998) propose that successful change management involves the ability to recognize variables and tendencies that affect an organization and the “acquisition of skills necessary to plan and implement new ideas, technologies, and processes.” From the latter, we observe a clear allusion to the *necessary skills* to implement new ideas — connecting then the concept of *new ideas* with that of *being prepared* for change—. Though the nature of the skills is not specified in detail, we can venture to propose later on in this study that the nature of some of the necessary skills will be those very related to intercultural competence. The authors conclude at some point that in order to manage change, managers must increase the reach of their interests and improve their *knowledge base*. “Knowledge of local issues and problems (Francesco and Gold, 1998) is no longer adequate; global issues have intruded on organizations more extensively than ever before and in ways that will potentially produce fundamental change.” Cohen *et al.* (1992) puts emphasis on the need to manage change along with careful diagnoses. He highlights the importance of a structure for managing the transition involving committees and advisory groups in order to overcome resistance. Diagnosis is an essential component of change management and it is present in every process when large-scale change is involved. In accordance to that, change management must propose

a multidisciplinary approach. Whether the organization be facing strategic, operational, technological or behavioural changes, the idea of being prepared towards the appropriate management of the change must remain intact. For Creasey (2003), change management brings into line the expectations of individuals and groups, helps communicate, integrates teams and manages the possible related training process involved. Clarke and Garside (1997) refer to the *ingredients* basic to the change management process. Such factors include materials, procedures, methods, information, people, skills, knowledge, training and equipment as the inputs that will eventually be reflected in products, services, information, paperwork, etc. Here then, the idea of anticipating change must prevail and hold as a strong well-founded capability for change to be referred as readiness for change in the next section. Page (1996) identifies five components to be considered crucial when assessing any given change management process: (1) impact analysis; (2) risk assessment; (3) planning, scheduling and notification; (4) implementation; and (5) post implementation review. Those components provide a basic understanding of the dynamics of change management and establish a clear step-by-step procedure to successfully carry out change. Jaffee (2008) proposes an interesting idea of viewing change management through two dimensions of analysis: the first dimension; the *intra-organizational level* which deals with the internal characteristics of the organization involving aspects such as labour-management, interactions among employees, organizational design, control and culture. According to Jaffee, at this level the organization is perceived as a closed system. The second dimension is the *inter-organizational level*, which has to do with the external interactions of the organizations with other organizations, such is the case of clients, suppliers, government, banks, unions, etc. These two dimensions allow identifying the nature of change —whether it comes from outside influences or it is purely internal—. And the nature of the change is crucial when choosing the managerial strategies to be conducted. [Figure 2.3] shows a graphical representation of Jaffee’s dimensions of analysis.

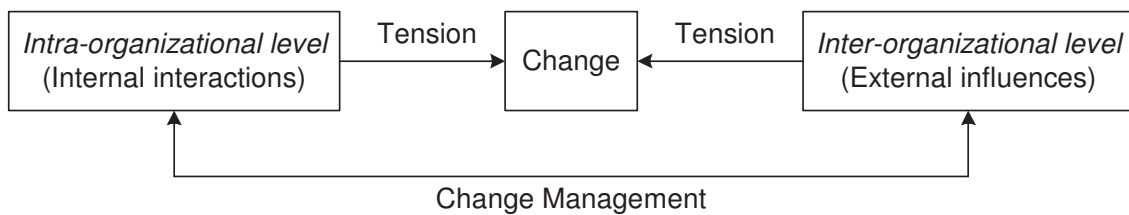


Figure 2.3 Organizational dimensions of analysis

Within the definition of his conceptual framework of analysis, Jaffee links the first dimension with the human factor as a determinant of organizational behaviour and actually defines the controlling of the human factor as one of the tensions that impact change within organizations. He states that “the most fundamental intra-organizational transaction involves the employment relationship.” The tension element here, presupposes a strained relationship between individuals and groups within organizations. Many authors support the premise that change management is primarily a people issue. Kane (2005) refers to managing change as a factor of motivation and behavioural influence, concerned with habits and attitudes to embrace the new. Regarding the human factor, again Jafee refers to the “*unique nature of the human resource*”, as a conscious, reflective and reactive entity. We can venture here that the idea behind such a statement is that people behave differently according to their own mental programming. Human resources are not like all other resources within organizations. Human resources are in equal circumstances in their very condition as *persons* but differ in terms of functions and level of involvement in the decisions within organizations in function of the purposes for which they have been hired. Thus, human resources are deeply embedded with the concept of change due to the fact that people are the ultimate agents of any change within organizations, which move forward following the natural stream —organizational instinct of competition— in order to prevail. And in order to prevail, organizations need to learn so that they can effectively adapt to change.

Argyris and Schön (1978) bring in the idea of *single-loop* and *double-loop* learning which is based in the assumption that people develop mental maps in their minds and those mental maps will be determinant in the course of action to be taken in

every situation where a decision is required. That “process” of making a decision according to a mental map, supposes, to a certain extent, a sign of adaptation. Argyris and Schön (1974), establish that such mental mapping consists of three stages or phases: (a) planning, (b) implementing and (c) reviewing. The idea of single-loop (Ashby’s, 1952) within the context of theories-in-use presently described by Argyris and Schön (1978) establishes that single-loop learning happens when an individual gains knowledge about new techniques for repressing conflict. In the case of double-loop learning though, the individual engages with the surfacing (materialization) and resolution of the conflict instead of concentrating in its suppression. It is important to remark that “double-loop learning does not replace single-loop learning.” Argyris and Schön (1974). Both concepts relate to decision making at every stratum of the management structure. But we can summarize the idea by saying that in single-loop learning, individuals do not inquiry about the origins and design of a given change, this is, they are not that concerned with the implementation or really (consciously) affected by the change. In the case of double-loop learning, individuals normally inquire and ask questions about the origin of the change, enabling them to take a more active part in the implementation. Double-loop learning is then recognizable at the behavioural rather than attitudinal level.

2.3 Readiness for organizational change

The recent concept of *readiness for change* may have part of its origin in the seminal research about organizational culture and change (Schein and Bennis, 1965). But its academic basis perhaps does not start until the early studies on *resistance to change*. Substantial literature on change management has commonly addressed the issue of readiness under the conception of a capability or receptiveness for change, while behavioural models have also attempted to undertake the issue by explaining how certain conducts favour the disposition for change and trying to find the causes of behaviour.

However, before inflowing into the discussion of change readiness within the organizational context, we can say that, in its purest sense, the notion of readiness refers to the condition of being prepared, this is, the disposition to act and respond fast. Readiness puts forward the idea of being ready as for use or action. For Walinga (2008), readiness for change is defined as “prepared mentally and physically for an experience or action.” If we take the latter suggestion we can add that readiness is ultimately a mental state of willingness, an inclination to respond promptly to a given change. As regards to the causes, she further defines change readiness as “the state in which one is best prepared to change internally because one is best prepared for changes in the environment.”

Within the organizational context though, the concept of readiness for change is relatively new and has been studied more deeply within the field of management and human relations by some scholars during the last twenty years (Armenakis and Holt *et al.*, 1993; Ferlie and Shortell, 2001; Hayes, 2005; Madsen *et al.*, 2005; Prochaska, 1994; Rafferty and Simons, 2006; Soparnot, 2010; Susanto, 2008). Precisely during these last two decades, the changes in organizational structures, processes and culture have been vertiginous, and perhaps this increasing relevance of the concept of organizational change readiness is also linked to the fact that traditional hierarchical-rigid type of structures have been replaced by more flexible teamwork oriented ones, while the organizational practices have become more dependent on technology. Know-how and

technological expertise evolve at a speed that just some decades ago was simply unsuspected. In this sense, organizations are strong-minded to become less bureaucratic and more entrepreneurial in an effort to adjust to change. They are less concerned with just stability and more concerned with flexibility and adaptability, less worried about preserving the past and more worried about creating the future. This rapid transformation urges organizations to develop the continuous capacity of adaptation to those new structures. Both internal and external changes push organizations to respond quickly to such transformations. For Nadler, Shaw, Walton and cols. (1995), organizational readiness for change is the capability to respond to the transformations which invigorate the environment, with the intention of maintaining congruence among the organizational components such as work, people, structural arrangements and culture.

Soparnot (2010) defines the concept of organizational readiness for change as the organization's aptitude to produce, in a repeated way (in the long term), the varied concordant responses (different types of changes) to the environmental evolutions (external context) and/or organizational (internal context) and to make effective the transition induced by such aspects within the organization. For Weiner (2009), organizational readiness for change is a multi-level, multi-faceted construct which "refers to organizational members' shared resolve to implement a change (change commitment) and shared belief in their collective capability to do so (change efficacy)." Weiner argues that "organizational readiness for change varies as a function of how much organizational members value the change and how favourably they appraise three key determinants of implementation capability: task demands, resource availability, and situational factors." Thus, if members appreciate and value the change, we can then venture to say that the involvement within the development of the changes, can positively contribute to the level of commitment of the members at the implementation phase. Lewin (1951), has a particular approach to consider for the definition of change readiness, through his conception of the three stages: (1) *unfreezing*, which means to defrost the balance of forces that keep the change target stable; (2) *moving* the change target to a different level and; (3) *refreezing* the balance of forces with the new change.

Above all, the first step described is the essential one to consider for the idea of readiness, because it implies an attitude disposed towards the new challenge. It requires the mental state of openness that will further propitiate the reaffirmation of the change. Literature on organizational development primarily emphasizes planned comprehensive change at various levels— individual, group and organizational. For Jones *et al.* (2005), organizational change readiness is a process that primarily involves the motivation and willingness of the employees; and then refers to the concept of “shaping capabilities” where other components such as knowledge, skills and abilities of the organization as a whole, are carried out for successful change implementation.

Readiness for change (Armenakis *et al.* 1993) is a “mindset that exists among employees during the implementation of organizational changes.” Armenakis’ definition of readiness also incorporates elements such as beliefs and attitudes of the targeted individual’s change concerning certain need for and capability for implementing organizational change. It is visible in this author to see the exaltation of the person during any organizational change as an essential element. In addition to such definitions we can ascertain that people’s preparation for change depends on that personal, therefore internal, conviction that a change is needed. Changes are recognized and needed usually when things are not working well or the way they should in order to produce the desired results. Managing change is a difficult task because it involves not only the technical aspects of change, but also the personalities of the individuals involved in the process. “Readiness for organizational change is important to any change effort because the state of readiness for change may influence the strategy followed throughout the change effort.” (Armenakis *et al.* 1993).

Scholars have also documented relevant concepts within the organizational adjust readiness progression. Lewin (1958), for instance, proposes a theory of change, while Prochanska (1997) contributes with his transtheoretical model of change. Cognitive schemas or attitudes toward change by Fiske and Taylor, 1984; Lau and Woodman, (1995) add some valuable contributions, whereas Lazarus and Folkman (1987) speak about the interactive and interpretive aspects of coping with change from. And, more recently, the notion of readiness for organizational change, self-efficacy, behavioural

control, active change process participation, and decisional latitude and balance are evident constants in Armenakis work. To elaborate on the idea of behaviour we can also cite Katz and Georgopoulos (1971): “At the level of *role behaviour* people make the system function because of their independence with others, the rewards for performing their roles, and the socio-emotional satisfactions from being part of a role independent group.” The latter advocates the importance of job satisfaction and emotions; and the probable derived disposition for change from such factors. The concept of change readiness then requires the inspection of social, emotional and psychological factors as crucial determinants. Many organizational change readiness models place emphasis on the understanding of the need for change prior to the launch process; and also emphasize the responsiveness of people to support the change always in accordance with the goals and strategies of the organization. Bernerth (2004) describes readiness as a mental state, throughout the change process, which reveals receptivity to changing the way of thinking. Individual organizational members ought to understand both the stand point of themselves and that of the organization in order to be able to move forward.

Change management theorists and social scientists have extensively contributed to the categorization of change readiness factors of individual members within organizations. Wanberg and Banas (2000) designate personal resilience, job satisfaction and turnover as important determinants; idea that can be linked to Lewin’s concept of refreezing, since it represents the power or capability to go back to the original position but including the new form coming from the adaptation to a new given change. Madsen *et al.* (2005), on the other hand, address the aspects of individuals’ organizational commitment and social relations at work as influencing factors for change readiness. Furthermore, Armenakis and Harris (2002) evoke efficacy and discrepancy as significant components to be considered as fundamental determinants before readiness for change. With similar approach, individual knowledge and technical abilities are also brought to the scene by Miller *et al.* (2006) as important elements to consider.

Literature shows numerous studies on this concept; and the state of the art review should allow us to affirm that individual readiness to change essentially implies an attitude associated with the conviction of being prepared to take action before new

organizational challenges. And the latter leads to recall that readiness for change necessarily deals also with cultural elements such as values and beliefs. Armenakis (1993) complements this idea by saying that readiness is a belief, intention, attitude and behaviour concerning the scope to which change is needed and the organizational capacity to achieve it. He refers to readiness as the “cognitive precursor to the behaviours of either resistance to or support for a change effort.” Jick (2000) asseverates that in an atmosphere of change and disturbance, organizations are finding and establishing sets of values as a way of dealing with the need to behave more appropriately in a more complex environment.⁸ Thus, readiness for change necessarily implies commitment to action and, that “appropriate behaviour” is of great significance for the capability and openness for change.

Prochaska *et al.* (1994) propose that individual change comes through phases that begin in a so called pre-contemplative phase, where the need for change is actually unknown. Then a contemplative phase comes, in which individuals see and consider change but do not initiate it yet. After a contemplative phase there is a preparatory phase in which the planning of the change actually takes place and that gives rise to a further action phase, and this is when individuals are finally engaged with change and modify their behaviour in function of it. According to Prochaska *et al.* (1994) a movement through these phases is controlled by decisional balance meaning the *anticipated risks* of change versus the *potential benefits* of change. “Readiness for change begins with an individual’s perception of the benefits of change.” Prochaska *et al.* (1994) argues that the employees’ perceptions concerning the risks of re-engineering should influence organizational readiness for change.

⁸ Jick refers to ethical behaviour rather than the concept of readiness itself, but this thought matches the idea of readiness as a positive attitude towards change.

2.3.1 The dynamics of individual readiness for change

The ability to manage change, and the need to make rapid and appropriate decisions to its implementation, has become extremely challenging for managers during the last few years. Moreover, the path towards the implementation of any organizational change is determined, in great measure, by the *disposition to change* of the individuals who are involved in the process. Whether managers or subordinates, individuals are implicated and, to a certain extent, responsible for the success of the new stage. It is important to make a distinction between *organizational* readiness for change and *individual* readiness for change. Organizational readiness for change is concerned with the climate of the organization in general, including mission and cohesion, whereas individual readiness for change deals more with staff personal attributes, behaviour and emotions as well as social and cognitive characteristics of the people. Armenakis, Harris, and Mossholder (1993) conclude that the individual need for change is linked to the opportunity to participate in the very process of change.

2.3.2 Resistance to change

Change is inevitable for both individuals and organizations simply because they must comply with the requirements of all aspects of human advancement, whether economic, technological, social, political, scientific etc., yet, it is just as natural and human to resist changing as the change itself. Resistance to change is therefore also, to a certain extent, inevitable. Mullins (1999) defines resistance to change as “the forces against change in work organizations” and according to Kim (2008) “each experience of adaptive change accompanies stress in the individual psyche—a kind of identity conflict rooted in resistance to change.” Kim argues that individuals tend to have “a desire to retain old customs in keeping with the original identity,” but at the same time “a desire to change behavior in seeking harmony.” Change exists in many ways and affects people and organization in a variety of manners as well. Whether the change is evolutionary (a partial change in the *status quo*); or revolutionary, where the *status quo*

changes completely at once; or systematic, where status quo changes completely but gradually; resistance to change will necessarily appear as a natural reaction. Based on Kim's definition it is possible to deduce that resistance to change is a set of factors which occur in order to preserve the same conditions of any given situation (*status quo*), and the challenge for managers and organizations would then rest in the capacity of preserving the stability of the system when change is imminent.

Conceivably, the importance of paying attention to resistance to change lies in the fact that it directly affects performance, therefore efficiency, therefore productivity, therefore innovation; and this is what organizations try to avoid at all costs. According to Becheikh *et al.* (2005) one of the variables of internal determinants of innovation is precisely resistance to change; and this becomes a concern since change implicitly relates to instability, unrest, hesitation, ambiguity and uncertainty. Other authors like Oreg (2003) think of resistance to change as an attribute of the personality of the individual or Blake and Cox (1991) who relate the overcoming of change resistance to certain personality attitudes towards understanding and accepting cultural diversity.

Resistance to change might be shown by individuals within the organization in different ways according to their position. Managers for instance, who are in many ways responsible for the changes affecting other people, may face the challenge totally opposite than others. But, when managers themselves ought to face organizational changes the whole picture diverges. As Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) conclude, "resistance to change has different meaning for employees and change agents based on their respective differences in identity." Łupina-Wegener and Schneider (2011) conclude in a study on socio-cultural integration, that managers should consider social identity-based change implications in order to reduce resistance to change and they make some recommendations such as allowing permeability within groups, enhancing transparent communication and help individuals keep their identities.

If we consider for a moment that resistance to change is the fear of the unknown or the fear of losing existing benefits; it is understandable from the human point of view that individuals experience such condition, thus resistance is the result of fear and fear is a basic emotion. The change process supposes going from the known to the unknown

according to Bovey and Hede (2001). However, the question is not why people resist changing, but how they can overcome resistance. In the world of managers, change reluctance takes on a crucial relevance since manager's unwillingness to change may bring larger overwhelming outcomes for the organization especially if the manager is at the top level. In some studies on resistance to change, the concept appears as a negative indicator of readiness (the opposite of resistance), it reduces readiness. Armenakis *et al.* (1993) already centered their attention on these issues by regarding readiness as "the cognitive precursor to the behaviors of either resistance to or support for a change effort." According to Deloitte and Touche (1996) resistance to change is one of the main reasons why organization initiatives and programs fail. Vakola and Nikolaouis (2005) affirm that resistance to change is associated with the development of negative attitudes to a new situation.⁹

2.3.3 Managers' readiness for organizational change

As expressed in the introduction of this chapter, globalization is demanding rapid change in strategies, innovation processes, decision-making,¹⁰ and action planning procedures; and so, international organizations are medullar contributors to that global dynamic progression because they are currently the major drivers of economic policy. Change is an unavoidable reality in the workplace as new people, processes, and products constantly come and go. Multinational corporations move offshore in search of cheaper labour and use technology to minimize costs and increment profits (Suter, 2006). Corporate power is also a fundamental driving force towards organizational change, and an organization alone does not think, people in it think so whether they are top managers, middle level managers, administrative or low labour employees, they all make the daily transformations within the organization through their decisions and

⁹ Vakola and Nikolaouis (2005) conclude in a discussion that good training as well as effective communication may reduce resistance to change because it decreases fear and uncertainty.

¹⁰ Decision-making is a central principle in organizational change literature and it is often referred as organizational restructuring. (Hoebeker, 2004).

actions. The increasing pace of change is challenging conventional approaches to management and the construction of organizations. Individual members' time and promptness to respond, as well as their flexibility, are yet crucial to ensure survival and this has to be conveyed directly from the organizational structure and strategy.

Change affects both interpersonal and organizational relations and, the individuals who manage the organizations play a fundamental role in the inception, process and implementation of changes of any nature. Technological changes for instance represent a major aspect in today's managers' activity around the globe. McKenna (2006) refers to Robertson, Roberts and Porras (1993) by saying that changes in technology alter not only the structure, jobs of physical settings, but also modify employee attitudes, expectations and skills. They predict that a change carried out successfully can lead to a competitive advantage for the organization.¹¹ The managers, as the decision makers of the organization, are the ones who ultimately give the instructions and orders to change something. They are the executors. In other words, the most powerful change agents.¹²

Managers are, in many ways, in charge of organizational behaviour through the course of their performance and, that behaviour is determined greatly by the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction resulting from the fulfilment of their own needs. The latter has already been demonstrated in numerous studies, where factors such as job satisfaction, promotion, payment, rewards and sense of belonging determine in great measure the readiness for change. However, those might not be the only factors to contribute for that readiness. Such is the case of intercultural capabilities. In many cases, the outcome of a change will depend on how it was introduced, who was involved in the process, but most importantly, what kind of abilities the manager or promoter of a change has.

¹¹ Competitive advantage is a driving force for any organization that is determined by a sort of "instinct" of survival and it is usually supported and nourished by the market share strategies implemented by the organization.

¹² Wagner and Hollenbeck (1998) define a change agent as an individual who serves both as a catalyst for change and as a source of information about the organizational development process.

Organizational change leads to the need for individual change, in other words, organizational change actually means people's change. And that makes it a very complex and multifaceted process that must consider how people respond culturally and even emotionally, when they are requested to perform major changes at work.

According to Armenakis and Fredenberger (1997), the study of organizational change can be carried out in terms of *what* is changed —referring to the contents— but also in terms of *how* changes will be implemented —referring to the employed processes—. Nevertheless, coping with change, whether it concerns its contents or its implementation process requires the human factor as the doer; an active person or people who conduct the change from its initiation to its execution. Lewin (1951) embraces the human factor in his conceptualization of organizational change by saying that: “successful organizational change should be understood as phases that people go through in modifying the way they perform their jobs.” Armenakis and Fredenberger (1997) establish that it is imperative that individuals embrace the idea of changing their behaviours in advance. They mention two phases: *adoption* —where the employees change temporarily the way they perform their jobs— and the second phase *institutionalization* —where, after some time performing the new way, employees perform differently in a more permanent way—. Managers' readiness includes several components (Armenakis and Fredenberger, 1997): (a) The employees' confidence that the change agent has the expertise to manage the change; (b) a belief that change is, actually, necessary; (c) a shared sense of urgency (i.e. knowledge of the financial condition of the company and an estimate of the time-frame to improve company performance); and, (d) the extent to which the employees feel they are capable of turning around the company (efficacy).

It is undeniable that organizations are complex systems for making decisions, and most decisions are made in a reactive way as a response to everyday problems and circumstances. Change is normally implemented to counteract such problems, to solve conflict and resolve divergences derived from a number of different causes which can be both internal and external to the organization. Moreover, organizational judgments and choices are permanently constrained by the actions of managers; by their reliability

and capacity to provide solutions according to the organizational objectives and to previous situations. Managers are decision-makers and that is translated in accountability and responsibility towards the whole organizational environment. Manager's readiness for organizational change requires a change effort that be related to a total organization change including eventually a change in the culture or the total managerial strategy. Montana and Charnov (2008) suggest that managers readiness for organizational change supposes the ability to transform the way in which an individual or organization acts from one set of behaviours to another; it may be systematic or planned, or it may be implemented in a random manner. For Morgan (1998), managers' organizational readiness for change involves the ability to create new contexts that can break the hold of dominant patterns in favour of new ones. "Managers have to become skilled in helping to shape the *minimum specs* that can define an appropriate context, while allowing the details to unfold." Morgan further warns that manager's often acting on the insights of chaos and complexity cannot be in control of the change. Hence the importance of having the necessary competencies that not only relate to job satisfaction or payment and compensation benefits, but also to a range of abilities that involve essential soft skills in order to be ready, conduct and implement change.

Managers' readiness for change implies the need to move toward a norm of the authority of knowledge as well as the authority of role (Gallos, 2006). "It does not only mean that decisions should be moved down in the organization; it means that the organization manager should determine which is the best source of information (or combination of sources of information) to work a particular problem and it is there that the decision-making should be located." Manager's readiness should suppose the ability to "propose change"; be able to collect all necessary data and information related; be able to analyze and project past and present conditions so to "anticipate" the future. Mead (1998) proposes the notion of change planning in a classic model that stresses the design of plans for change, implementation and monitoring but without forgetting to make all necessary adjustments during the process. Managers are supposed to propose solutions to a given problem; this means, managers have to be ready to make decisions

that lead to the solution of problems; decisions that lead to successful change implementation and functioning.

Organizations evolve continuously and such evolution should not be controlled subjectively, arbitrarily or without reason. Organizational change depends on certain stable processes (March, 1991). Unprepared managers of an organisation (Stacey, 2000) oftentimes experience unpredictability and instability as anxiety-provoking and stressful. Creating readiness can be accomplished through three strategies proposed by Armenakis and Fredenberger (1997); the first strategy consists of persuasive communication methods —as to prevail on a person or group of people to do something; a way of inducing or influencing certain behaviour—. The second strategy is the use of external sources of information; and, the third strategy would be active participation —this is getting employees involved in the changes of the organization. Fredenberger (1997) uses the term *readiness speech* as such way of persuasive communication from person to person and it basically consists of a message delivered by any official media within the organization and through which the employees become aware of the upcoming change. The strategies are used to prepare the terrain of change and explore perhaps the levels of possible reluctance.

Managers seek to organize, coordinate and control the elements of organization (Jaffee, 2008) and people behave differently because they come from different *backgrounds*, have had different *experiences*, *perceptions* and *expectations*. According to Armenakis *et al.* (1993), structuring a change project in terms of readiness appears more harmonious with the idea of having proactive managers who somewhat play coaching roles, than those managers whose style is more reactive. Armenakis argues that this second type of manager would eventually be more on the side of resistance to change. For the purpose of explaining and enriching the concept of readiness for change and the role of the manager in creating or promoting such readiness, they have developed a readiness model shown below:

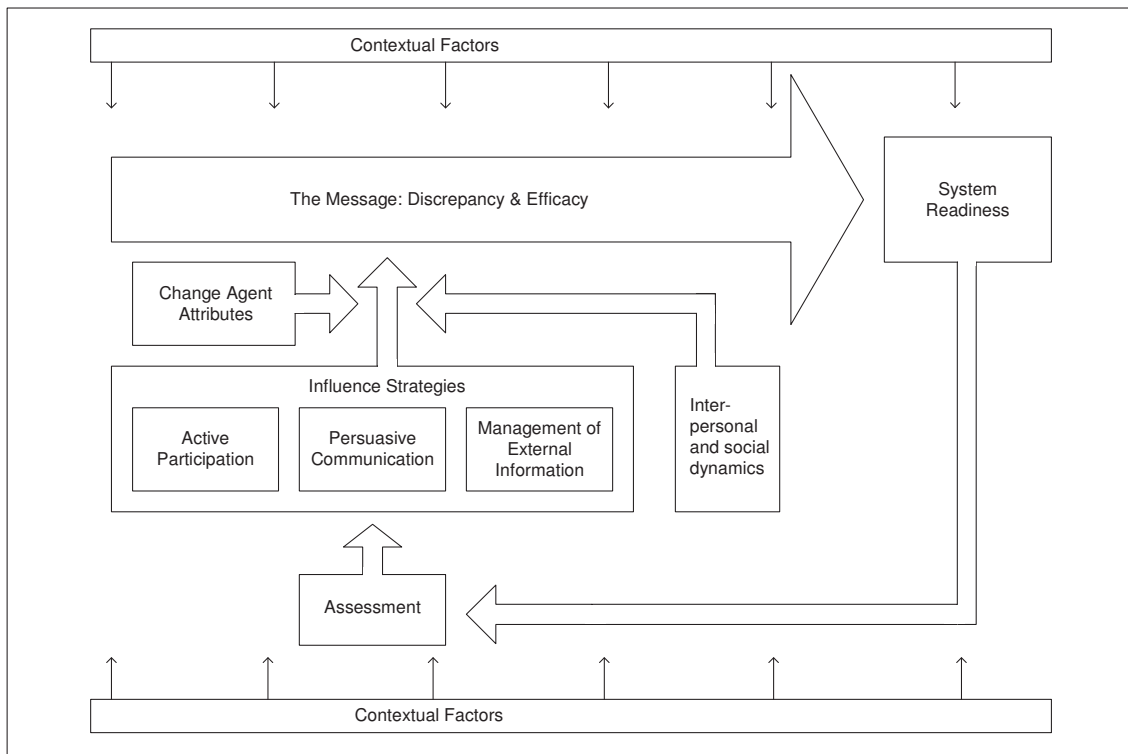


Figure 2.4 Armenakis' change readiness model

Source: Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993). "Creating readiness for organizational change." *Human Relations*. Vol. 46. Num. 6 p. 684

The purpose of using this model is to help illustrate the process of generating readiness for organizational change and, at the same time, to serve as a framework in order to approach readiness for change from a logical and systematic perspective. The influence strategies affecting the *message* —active participation, persuasive communication and management of external information— along with the change agent attributes and the inter-personal/ social dynamics, present a clear basis behind the *system readiness* which will be defined as the dependent variable of the study. This model is not planned to be tested but just to provide a sound starting point on the conceptualization of readiness for change. As can be observed in the diagrammatic representation, the creation of readiness for change is ultimately influenced by *contextual factors*; and such *contextual factors* are deliberately associated with certain intercultural competencies in an attempt to establish a link between the two notions which is the purpose of this study. Quinn (1980) recalls that successful multinational

organizations that carry out important strategic changes are rather not associated with the rational planning. This opens the door again to an incrementalist approach as the appropriate paradigm upon which this conceptual framework has been built. Quinn, through his notion of incremental logic, asseverates that “the processes used to arrive at the total strategy are typically fragmented, evolutionary and largely intuitive.” The latter clears the path for a coherent connection between intercultural competence as part of the contextual factors and managers’ readiness for organizational change.

Propitiating readiness necessarily implies managerial abilities that not everyone has. Jaffee, (2008) sustains that an important distinction between managers and other employees lies in the fact that managers are employed as a “whole person” (Davis, 1981) meaning that they are devoted to the work using every aspect of their intellect to make decisions according to the organization’s goals. Whereas other employees use only certain skills or abilities required to perform a specific function or task. Hence the suggestion of considering managers as crucial change agents, over those employees with lower administrative functions.

2.3.4 Previous findings on factors affecting readiness for change

Despite the relative newness of the topic, numerous studies on readiness for change have been already conducted in the field of management and social sciences. Armenakis (1993) as presumably the precursor of this concept found that organization-committed change agents are crucial in the preparation for change and later on he proclaimed that the generation of readiness is determined by appropriateness; personal capacity to think or react; and efficacy. Cinite *et al.* (2009) concluded that readiness for change is the result of managers’ competence, support and commitment to change. Miller (2006) in a study tailored to aspects like manager-employee relationship and job skills and knowledge reported that such factors have a direct impact on readiness for change being manager-employee rapport the main predictor. Madsen (2003) found through a study on wellness in the workplace that managers’ efficiency is connected with emotional, social and cognitive-intellectual attributes; though later on Holt *et al.*

(2007) determined as the influencing factors of readiness for change managers' self-efficacy and personal valence —meaning the ability of the manager influence others. Another interesting contribution is the one by Eby *et al.* (2000) who found that teamwork and managers' attitudes towards work also positively influence readiness for change.¹³ An interesting study conducted by Shah (2009) reveals the following aspects as determinant factors of readiness for change: feeling of pride; emotional attachment; wages and rewards; internal promotion; job satisfaction and involvement; and social relationships.

¹³ The fact of the matter is that managers are actually a crucial factor of success in readiness for change (Smith, 2005).

2.4 Intercultural competence revisited

2.4.1 The theory of intercultural competence

The term *intercultural competence* is also relatively new and it has only been well incorporated into the management literature during the past twenty years. The concept refers to the condition that an individual holds as a capacity to successfully interact with people from different cultures. Furthermore, an intercultural competency is a required skill or qualification that managers need to acquire-develop in order to handle different cultural situations within the organization. Many definitions of intercultural competence though have been offered in recent years, but as it happens with such multi-edged concepts, it is not easy to reach agreement on one single definition. This notion has to do with the term *culture*, and any interpretation or attempt to define it might result in discrepancy because of its very nature. Therefore, a selection of the most “trusted” definitions, or at least the most referred to, is presented as an effort to provide a clearer idea of the term for the purposes of this study.

Within the context of multinational organizations, numerous authors (Hofstede, 1994; Iles, 1995; Dirks, 1995; Barmeyer, 2004; Ting-Toomey, 1999; Gertsen, 1992; Fox, 2003) have contributed to the field with vast material to provide a sound understanding of the topic. Hofstede for instance, formulates that intercultural competence “constitutes a third level of learning and is the result of the awareness of the fact that we *have received a certain mental programming and that others (...) have a different mental program, of the acquisition of knowledge on the other culture and of the practice. Competence is to be able to manage in this new environment, to be able to solve problems.*” On the other hand, Iles (1995) makes a distinction of intercultural competence by inserting the managers’ intercultural abilities (competence) in three main levels: affective, communicative and cognitive. Cui and Van den Berg (1991) perceive intercultural efficacy as a “three-dimensional concept which includes communication competence, cultural empathy and communicative behaviour.” They emphasize cultural empathy as a factor including tolerance, empathy for the other’s culture, empathy

towards dissimilar ways of working and the awareness of cultural differences. Furthermore, Intercultural competence occurs, according to Bittner and Reisch (1994), when the “employee is capable of properly managing the intercultural aspects of his work, along with the preferment of profiting also from the intercultural synergies.” Knapp (1995) visualizes intercultural competence as the “adaptation of a perceived behaviour with the pre-existent expectations within a specific context, and the efficacy of such behaviour to reach the pursued objectives.”

Fantini (1996) however, defines intercultural competence as “the abilities to perform effectively and appropriately with members of another language-culture background on their terms.” This idea of being able to “effectively perform” with members of different cultures, is supported by the UBC-Centre for Intercultural Communication (2005), which states that “intercultural competence essentially means having the ease and comfort in other cultures that you have in your own.” According to them, pretty much everyone is unconsciously competent in his/her own culture in that they do not think consciously of the interactions each time they act. Nevertheless, while Fantini refers to the concept as *abilities*, Deardorff (2004) refers to it as *knowledge* or more precisely, “knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or to interact; valuing others' values, beliefs, and behaviours; and relativizing one's self.” Moreover, Deardorff (2006) summarizes “intercultural competence is the ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, based on specific attitudes, intercultural knowledge, skills and reflection.” The INCA Project, on the other hand, approaches the notion rather as a *capability for effectiveness*; “intercultural competence enables you to interact both effectively and in a way that is acceptable to others when you are working in a group whose members have different cultural backgrounds.” For Collier and Thomas (n.d.), “Intercultural competence is defined as the demonstrated ability to negotiate mutual meanings, rules, and positive outcomes. Ulijn *et al.* (2000), cite a few authors who provide valuable clarity in the explanation of the concept. They mention Cooley and Roach (1984) who conceive intercultural competence as a “communicative behaviour that is the reflection of an individual's competence, culturally specific and, bound by the culture in which

they are acted out.” The next reference (Beamer, 1992), describes intercultural competence in five levels: the first level has to do with “acknowledging diversity”, the second level implies “organizing the information according to the stereotypes”, the third level is about “posing questions to challenge those stereotypes”, the fourth level requires “analyzing communication episodes” and the fifth level suggests “generating ‘other culture’ messages.” Jacobson *et al.* (1999), warn though that intercultural competence is “not simply a personal trait or a learned skill, but a social phenomenon.”¹⁴ Hammer *et al.* (2003) resemble Cooley and Roach’s description in the sense of being a communicative capability, by saying that intercultural competence is the “ability to communicate effectively in a cross-cultural situation and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts.” Complementarily, Fox (2003) describes intercultural competence as a “transformative process whereby the stranger develops an adaptive capacity, altering his or her perspective to effectively understand and accommodate the demands of the host culture.” And Milagros and Reese —cited by Hoff (2008) define intercultural competence as “the ability to relate and communicate effectively when individuals involved in the interaction do not share the same culture, ethnicity, language, or other salient variables.”

Bartel-Radic (2006), relates to the concept somewhat as a *learning process* or condition, whereupon she states that “intercultural competence is partially ‘inherited’ and partially ‘acquired’ through learning.” Now, while Gertsen (1992) describes intercultural competence as the capability to work with efficacy within another culture, for Barmeyer (2004) intercultural competence is “a compilation of analytical and strategic aptitudes that widen the range of interpretations and actions of an individual within his/her interpersonal interaction with members of other cultures.” Yet, continuing on the same line of analytical process, intercultural competence to Stier (2002), is developed as a multilevel learning experience through the exposure to dissimilar cultures, involving aspects such as social expectations and language requirements. Stier

¹⁴ This appreciation widens the scope of possible definitions about the nature of intercultural competence but it is necessary to keep it within the context of organizations and the traditional well-accepted definitions that have been exposed in the rest of this literature review.

(2003) additionally provides an interesting approach to intercultural competence by dividing the concept into four parts: content competencies; processual competencies; intrapersonal competencies and interpersonal competencies.

Content-competencies compile the cognitive equivalent component; it involves the knowledge discovery of both “other” and “own” culture including aspects such as knowledge of national history, language, body language, views of the world, traditions, norms, values, taboos, myths, symbols, and all other tangible and intangible elements of culture that could be listed under this line. *Processual-competencies* only bring in the international angle of the content-competencies dimension; more specifically involving the idea of the “know-how” of intercultural competence.¹⁵ So, it might not be necessary to consider this set as a main grouping of competencies since it is somewhat embedded in the previous one.

According to Stier (2003), *intrapersonal-competencies* involve both cognitive and emotional skills, as he refers to the capability to “placing oneself in the position of the other” which is basically the prerequisite to building cultural empathy. In this sense, we can contentedly relate these competencies to the emotional component if we are to follow the same pattern for competencies allocation. He also incorporates the idea of self-reflection and dealing with the understanding of others’ feelings (Gabriel, 2001) and connects to the behavioural dimension through the analysis of the implications when responding to diverse feelings.

Interpersonal-competencies then correspond to the social-behavioural component, as they refer to “interactive skills”, involving now concrete behaviours resulting from internal processes. This includes communication, actual conversations and real interactions. This is a communication competence.

¹⁵ For Stier (2003), the *processual-competencies* include both *interpersonal* and *intrapersonal* competencies, since it involves situational conditions and cultural peculiarities for the actors; but for the purposes of our descriptive structure, we separate them and associate them with both the emotional and social components respectively.

Interestingly, Chen and Starosta, (2008) also view intercultural competence as a conception encircling three main dimensions: a cognitive dimension encompassing knowledge discovery and intercultural awareness; an affective dimension involving attitudes, personality traits, motivation and developing intercultural sensitivity; and a behavioural level relating skills and communication, as well as intercultural adaptability and ability. Dinges (1983), on the other hand, structures the notion into the following dimensions: “information processing; capacity for learning and change; communication style; stress tolerance; interpersonal relations; motivation and incentive; personal development; life stage; and context situation.”

Although the concept of intercultural competence, as can be realized so far, has been extensively defined by a number of authors and scholars, and the list of definitions can continue further, it is worthwhile and useful, at this stage, to present an interesting compilation (Bartel-Radic, 2006) of well-accepted definitions of this conception captured in the following table.

Table 2-3 Definitions of intercultural competence

Author	Definition
Bender (1996)	Intercultural competence requires a critical mindset of the distinctive characteristics of a culture different than one's own.
Bittner and Reisch (1994)	Intercultural competence occurs when “the employee is able to suitably manage the intercultural aspects of his/her work, and if possible, also benefit from the intercultural synergies.”
Bolten, (1998)	(Inter-)cultural competence: Knowledge of the other's culture, knowledge of the foreign language, tolerance of ambiguity, relativization of each one's restraints, empathy, flexibility. Intercultural competence is independent from the individual or social competence which requires capability of co-operation, capability of communication, capability of innovation, motivation and resistance to stress.
Cui and Van den Berg (1991)	Intercultural effectiveness is a three-dimensional concept, including communication competence, cultural empathy and communicative behaviour. Cultural empathy is a factor which includes tolerance, empathy for the other culture, empathy for the ways of working, and cultural differences awareness.
Dirks (1995)	Intercultural competence comprises three components: - Cognitive (recognition of standards, different values and habits, comprehension of the local social relations, awareness of the differences and nuances in the verbal and non-verbal communication), - Emotional/psychological (empathy, risk-taking, willingness to learn, conscience of oneself), - Social (active listening, willingness to improve its own behaviour, networking engagement).

Author	Definition
Friedman and Berthoin-Antal (2005)	Intercultural competence implies the capability to explore one's own [cultural] repertory and to actively build an appropriate action strategy.
Funke (1995)	Smooth intercultural communication presupposes the gradual comprehension of the foreign culture. The learning object is, on the one side, the foreign culture, for the other, the process of comprehension of that foreign culture including all other factors which compose it.
Hofstede (1994)	Intercultural competence constitutes a third level of learning and is the result of the awareness of the fact that we "have received a certain mental programming and that others (...) have a different mental program", of "the acquisition of knowledge" on the other culture and of "the practice." Competence is "to be able to manage in this new environment, to be able to solve problems."
Iles (1995)	Intercultural competence comprises the affective, communicative and cognitive levels.
Kiechl (1997)	An intercultural competent person is that one who understands, through co-operating with people from another culture, their specific perceptions of feeling, thinking and acting. This understanding must be integrated in the cognition, emotion and behaviour of the person experiencing an intercultural situation.
Knapp and Knapp-Potthoff, (1990) cited by Breuer and Barmeyer (1998)	Intercultural competence is composed mainly of a "complex of analyticostrategic capabilities that widen the spectrum of interpretation and action of the individual during an interpersonal interaction with members from other cultures."
Knapp (1995)	Intercultural communication competence: The perceived behavioural appropriateness with pre-existing expectations within a specific given context, and the effectiveness of that behaviour to achieve the set objectives. Intercultural competence is thus basically a "good" impression made before other people.
Opitz (1997)	Intercultural competence is a condition for intercultural communication. It requires the know-how to manage "socio-cultural, historical and linguistic structures of prejudices, interferences and associations, and to understand them as fundamental base of both economic and administrative actions."
Ruben (1985) cited by Deresky (2006)	The effectiveness of Intercultural communication lies mainly in the following behaviours: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Respect of the other through non-verbal communication, - Non-judgemental reactions - Relativization of one's own knowledge, perceptions, beliefs..., - Empathy, - "Management" of the interaction, - Tolerance of ambiguity, - Behavioural flexibility
Thomas (1996)	Intercultural action supposes justified and planned behaviour, oriented towards a goal and directed by the expectations, which understands the regulation elements of one's own culture and that of the other.
Ting-Toomey (1999)	Trans-cultural communication competence encompasses knowledge, paying-attention, and "know-how" in communication...

Source: Translated from Bartel-Radic (2006). Intercultural Learning in Global Teams.

2.4.2 Coinciding models of Intercultural Competence

A compilation of sixteen coincident models on intercultural competence are shown in the following sections in order to exhibit and analyse similarities in both content and distribution of the respective specific competencies most of which have been included in the proposed research model. The sixteen models are shown in chronological order starting from the oldest and ending with the most recent found in the literature.

2.4.2.1 (1992) Gertsen's Dimensions of Intercultural Competence

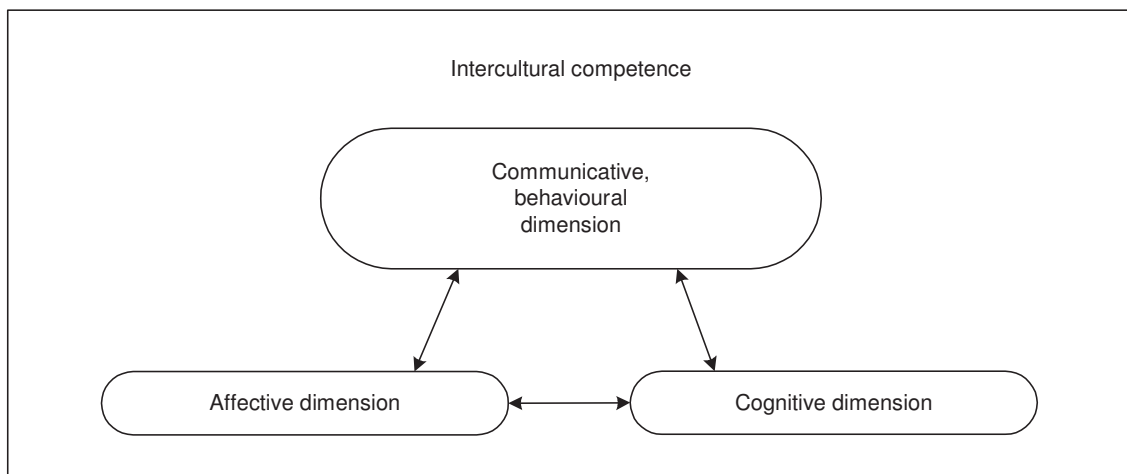


Figure 2.5 Gertsen's dimensions of intercultural competence

Source: Gertsen, M. (1992). "Intercultural Competence and Expatriates." *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Vol. 1 Issue 3, p341-362

The first model found (comprising the three pre-conceived groups) corresponds to Gertsen (1992). According to her work, intercultural competence results in the interaction between three main dimensions: (1) Communicative —everything involving verbal and non-verbal communication. (2) Cognitive —that related to knowledge and the notion of culture, one's own culture and the culture of others and (3) Affective — everything concerning sensitivity and comprehension of the other's culture. Gertsen's discussion about intercultural competence starts by evoking Geertz (1973) who defines culture as "the code of creation of meaning that lies behind a group of human beings'

interpretation of life.” Gertsen adds that the concept of culture includes furthermore values and behaviour, noticeable in several cultural institutions and systems. The affective component of this model is referred to as the *personality and attitudes approach*, and it is equivalent to the *emotional-psychological* component of the other models. This approach is interesting if we reflect on the fact that attitudes and personality exemplify “interculturally competent” individuals (Gertsen, 1992). Empathy is an interesting personality trait pointed by Gertsen that belongs to this “emotional” dimension in her model. The latter differs though from other authors who tend to present empathy as a social rather, than an emotional competency.¹⁶ According to Gertsen, some scholars lean more to the idea of other *attitudinal* variables such as “prejudice, stereotypes and ethnocentrism as obstacles to effective intercultural interaction.” (Brislin, 1981). The cognitive component or *cognition approach* is explained by Gertsen as the way humans acquire information and she evokes Detweiler’s work (1980) who examined an interesting correlation between intercultural competence and “the cognitive process by which information is grouped and organized in categories or dimensions of meaning in the human mind”, in other words, *categorization*, which is an essential element of individual readiness for change. Finally Gertsen regards to the communicative dimension as crucial in the sense of expressing other “competencies” pertaining to the both emotional and/or cognitive dimensions, such as in the case of empathy, collaborative dialogue or respect for otherness.

¹⁶ The actual competencies allocated in the three main intercultural components (embedded in each model) will be further defined and explained for the purposes of this research.

2.4.2.2 (1995) Dirks' Intercultural Competence Model

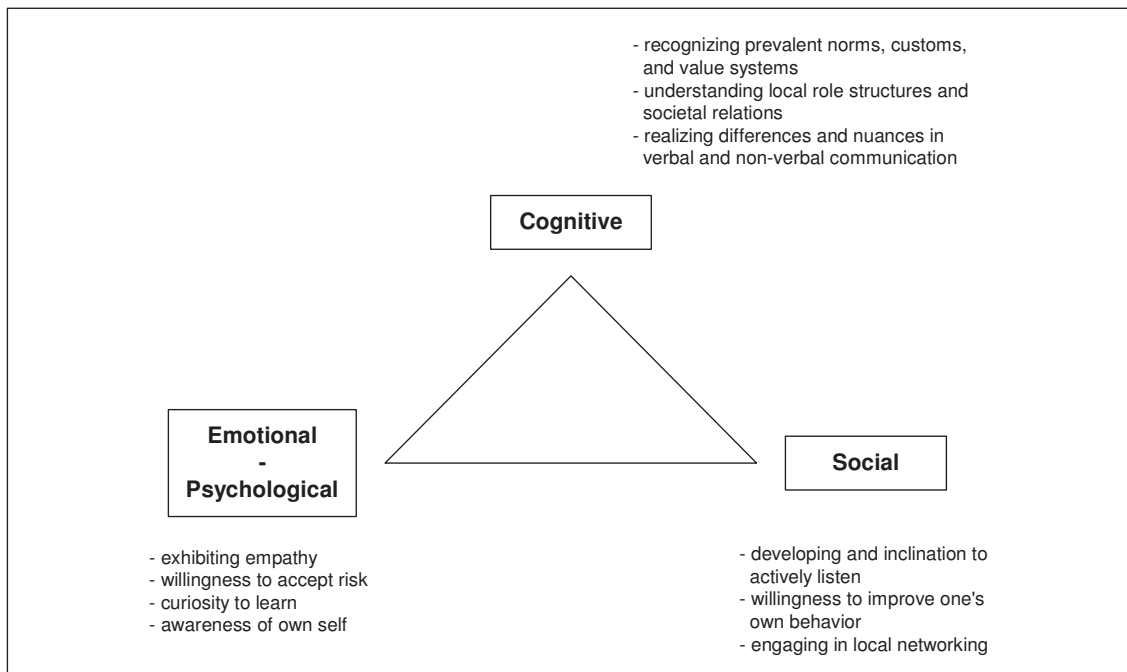


Figure 2.6 Dirks' intercultural competence for managing in diverse environments

Source: Dirks (1995). "The Quest for Organizational Competence: Japanese Management Abroad." *Management International Review*. Vol. 35, Special Issue No. 2/1995. p. 75-90

Dirks (1995), makes an interesting remark on the qualities that individual managers need in order to effectively perform in intercultural environments. Such qualities are divided into three main components: cognitive, social and psychological-emotional. This graphical representation clusters the results from intense interviews conducted among German and Japanese employees representing different management roles within their respective organizations. Dirks argues that the interactions are characterized by an adjustment process involving a collection of cognitive, emotional and social elements (intercultural abilities). As shown in the diagram, each dimension includes a list of "capabilities" or skills which refer to them. For instance, in the cognitive component the presence of norms and value systems, is observable as well as understanding of structures; those related to knowledge in the sense of realizing and making an intellectual effort to distinguish both verbal and non-verbal communication in a reflective "cognitive" sense. Then the emotional-psychological dimension including

aspects such as empathy, risk taking, awareness of own self, though here, Dirks talks about curiosity to learn, which is an ability that has predominantly been referred to as a cognitive rather than emotional competency.¹⁷ The social component in this model matches again the other constructs by including skills such as active listening, behavioural flexibility (capability to improve one’s behaviour) and engaging in local networking as an essential element of social rapport (also to be defined later as one of the hypotheses to prove).

2.4.2.3(1997) The Multicultural Competence Pyramid of an Individual

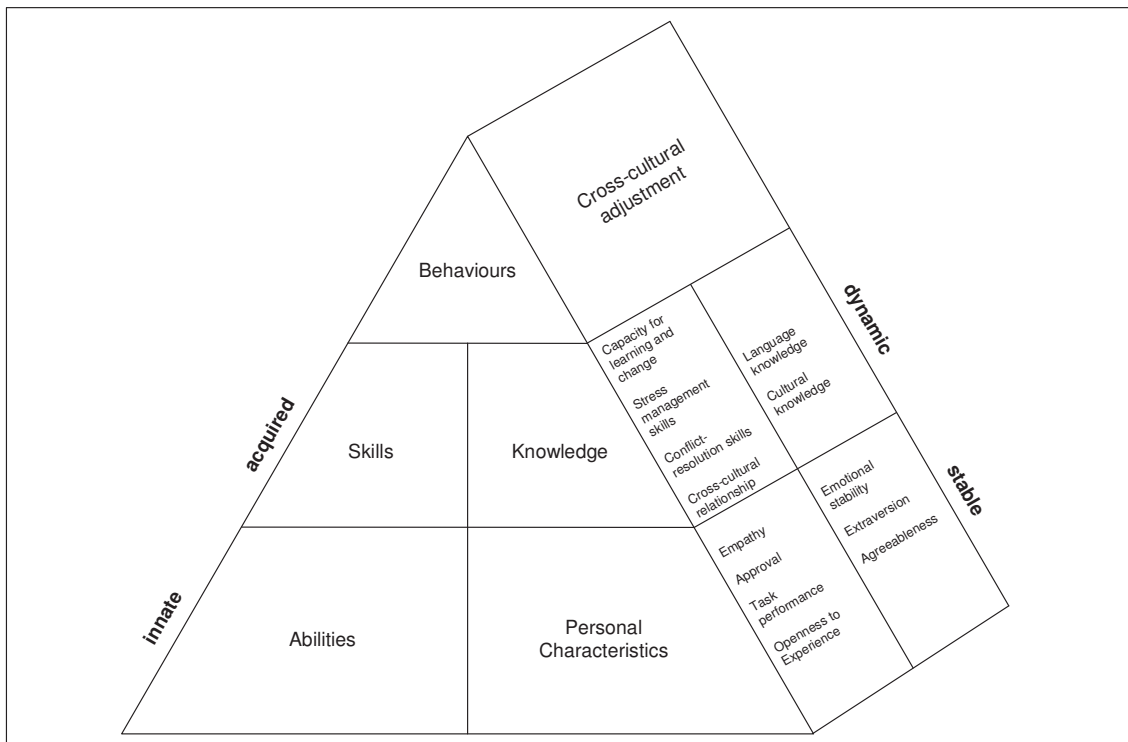


Figure 2.7 Multicultural competence pyramid of an individual based on Queeney

Source: Keršienė and Savanevičienė (2005). *Defining and Understanding Organization Multicultural Competence*. Kaunas, Lithuania. Kaunas University of Technology. Based on Queeney (1997).

¹⁷ A discussion might be opened here as it seems to be a discrepancy or contradiction, whether curiosity to learn is cognitive or emotional, however, for the purposes of this study, and taking as reference all prior and subsequent definitions, this very “skill” will be considered as cognitive, and will be tested for such purpose within the factor analysis later on.

Keršienė and Savanevičienė (2005) from Kaunas University made an interesting comparison of competences in which they referred to the work of Queeney (1997) who developed a basic model of individual intercultural competence including the three essential dimensions that have been discussed throughout the elaboration of this conceptual framework. Queeney's pyramid levels encompass, from top to bottom: first behaviours, which the authors interpret as cross-cultural adjustments and are to a certain extent chosen by the individual; the next level down corresponds to the skills and knowledge, which are acquired by the individual and they define as dynamic elements including aspects such as capability of learning, stress management, and language and culture knowledge; then the lower level is the innate plane and represents the abilities and personal characteristics with which the individual is born, involving aspects like empathy, openness and emotional stability. Keršienė and Savanevičienė define this level as stable rather than dynamic; so they complement the original pyramid of Queeney¹⁸ with a new proposed model. Furthermore they connect the new resulting model concretely with HRM functions such as selection, training, employee's appraisal and motivation as part of an organizational integration strategy since the main purpose of that paper was to create a model of multicultural competence of the organization. Some of the conclusions proposed in their work were the need to promote multicultural competence as a strategy for international competitiveness; they use the term multicultural competence when referring exclusively to the capabilities of the organizations and leave intercultural competence for individuals; the importance of making a distinction between stable and dynamic competencies in the search of cross-cultural adjustment at the behavioural level; and regard the model as an organizational strategy towards individual competence and change.

¹⁸ Queeney's original model corresponds only to the triangle perceived on the left side of the model.

2.4.2.4 (1997) Spitzberg's Diagrammatic Representation of Relational Competence

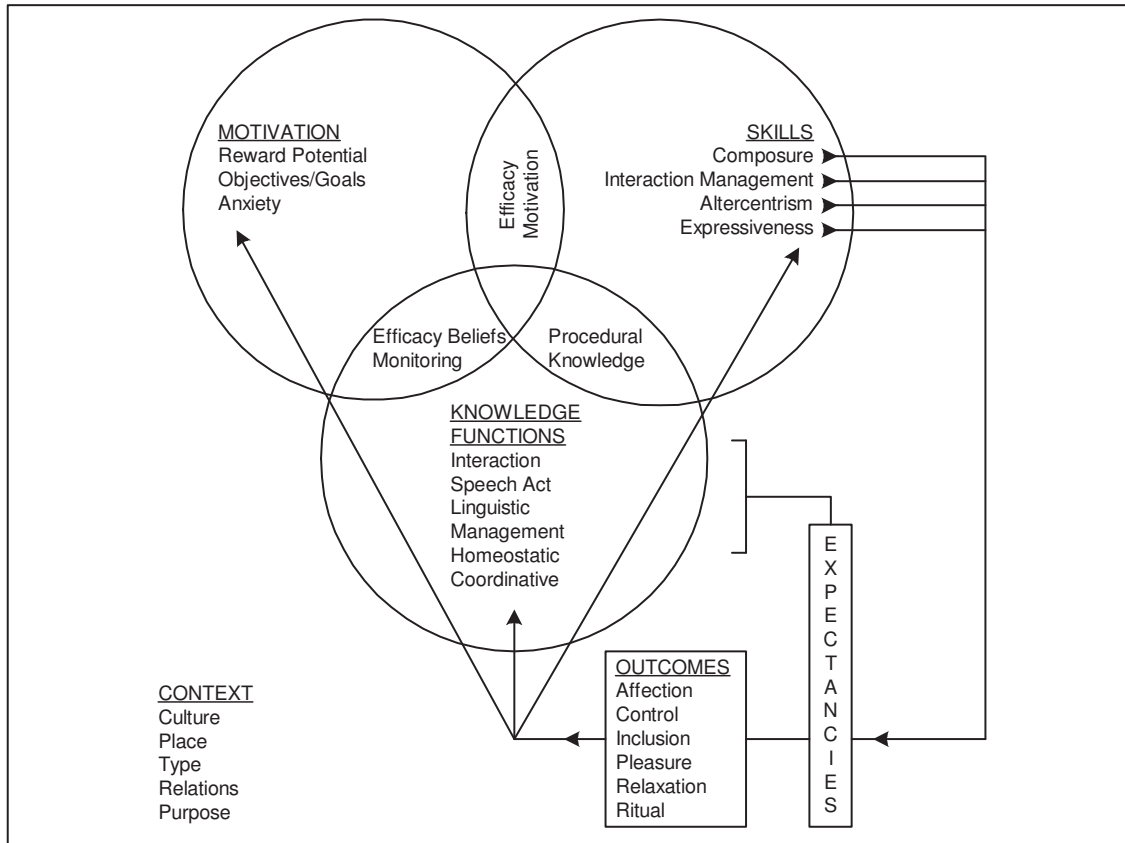


Figure 2.8 Spitzberg's diagrammatic representation of relational competence

Source: Adapted from Spitzberg (1997). "A model of intercultural communication competence." In Samovar, L. and Porter, R. (Eds.). *Intercultural communication: A reader*. Belmont, California. Wadsworth Publishing. p.382

Another valuable scheme of intercultural competence is this one developed by Brian Spitzberg which is a rather more integrative model quite reliable from the viewpoint of theoretical frameworks and the viewpoint of empirical studies (Spitzberg, 1990). The model is rather analogous with the previous ones as it shows very noticeably the three main components, in this case labelled: motivation (for the emotional-affective including aspects like reward potential objectives); skills (for the behavioural-interaction involving expressiveness and composure); and knowledge functions (for the cognitive encompassing speech act, linguistic functions, etc.). But perhaps the distinctive part of this model is that such three recognizable dimensions have

intersections, each with an embedded meaning; for instance, the intersection between the motivation dimension and the skills dimension is called efficacy motivation; the intersection between skills and knowledge functions is called procedural knowledge and the intersection between knowledge functions and motivation is referred to as efficacy beliefs monitoring. In order to explain the term efficacy beliefs Spitzberg cites Bandura (1982) who defines efficacy beliefs as “self-perceptions of ability to perform a given set of behaviours.” In addition, this model shall be interpreted within the different possible contexts suggested by Spitzberg which are, culture, place, type, relations and purpose; moreover, the outcomes resulting from the expectancies end up nourishing the model.¹⁹ The outcomes proposed by the author are affection, control, illusion, pleasure, relaxation and ritual.

¹⁹ The Spitzberg’s model presented here is only an extraction of the original model representing one of the actors of an intercultural encounter. The original model includes three sections: the actor, the coactor and the episode(s). The whole model is available under the reference provided at the bottom of the figure or also in Spitzberg and Changnon (2009). *Conceptualizing Intercultural Competence*. In Deardorff (Ed.) *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*. p. 13

2.4.2.5 (1998) Hamilton's Intercultural Competence Components Model

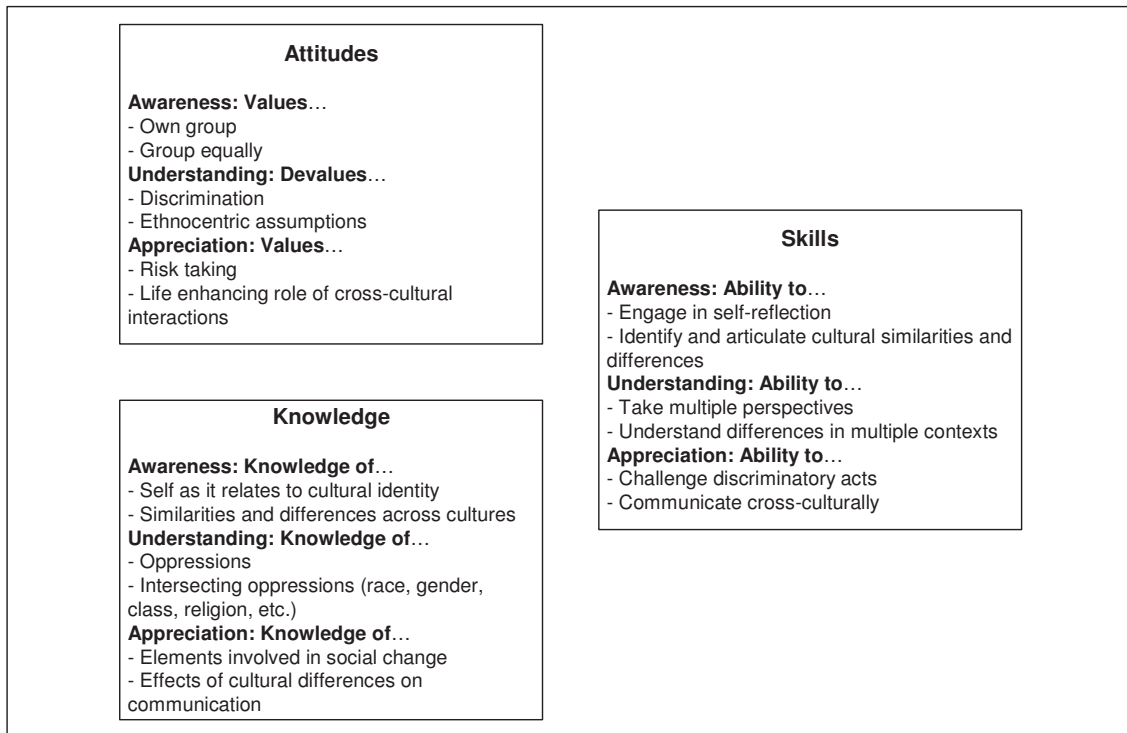


Figure 2.9 Hamilton's intercultural competence model

Source: Spitzberg and Changnon (2009). Conceptualizing Intercultural Competence. In Deardorff (Ed.) *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*. p. 11

This intercultural model is referred to by Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) and is from Hamilton *et al.* (1998) who created an interesting diagram to show the diverse components containing the different categories of intercultural competence. They divide the whole concept into three main sections: *attitudes*, *knowledge* and *skills*. These three concepts interplay and interact by means of several other specific competencies. Within attitudes, they subsequently refer and subdivide into three particular aspects such as: *awareness* —meaning values within own group of people, and group equality; then *understanding* —meaning devalues such as “discrimination and ethnocentric assumptions”; and finally *appreciation* —meaning also values but in the sense of risk-taking and life-enhancing role of the cross-cultural interaction. The second concept of the model, which is knowledge, includes the same three particular aspects like as *awareness* —but in this case meaning the knowledge of “self as it relates to cultural

identity, and similarities and differences across cultures”; then *understanding* — meaning the knowledge of “intersecting oppressions” such as race, gender, class and religion; and *appreciation* —meaning the “knowledge of elements involved in social change and the effects of cultural differences on communication.” The third concept within the model is skills, where the three particular aspects are presented as follows: *awareness* —meaning an ability to “engage in self-reflection”, to identify and articulate cultural similarities and differences; *understanding* —meaning an “ability to take multiple perspectives and understand differences in multiple contexts” and finally; *appreciation* —meaning the ability to “challenge discriminatory acts and communicate cross-culturally.” A graphical representation of the model explained above is shown in the following table.

2.4.2.6(1998) *Ting-Toomey’s Mindful Intercultural Communication Model*

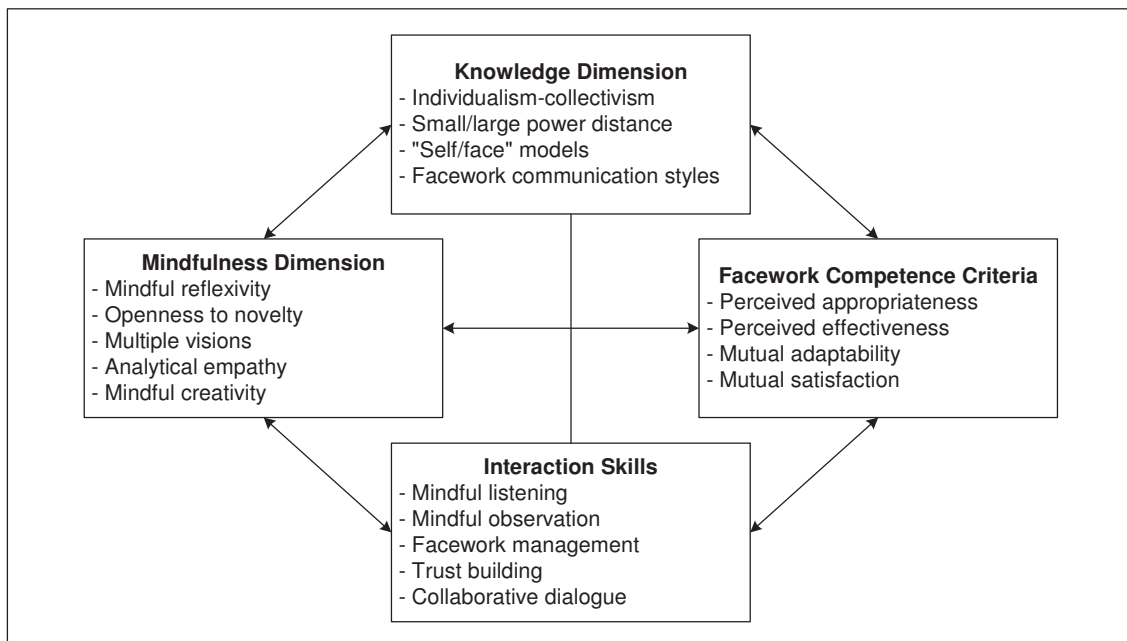


Figure 2.10 Ting-Toomey and Kurogi’s model of intercultural competence

Source: Spitzberg and Changnon (2009). Conceptualizing Intercultural Competence. In Deardorff (Ed.) *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*. p. 12

Ting-Toomey and Kurogi's Facework-Based Model of Intercultural Competence (1998), consists of four basic components: knowledge, mindfulness, facework competence criteria and interaction skills. The aspects included in each of the shown components can be considered as circumstantial cultural traits but also as concrete intercultural competencies; especially such aspects included in the mindfulness dimension as well as in interaction skills and facework competence criteria.²⁰ This visualization incorporates the notion of change since it is an active model. The interrelation among the components suggests certain dynamism where synergy is a determinant element. The model shows a clear connection between the cognitive (knowledge dimension) and the social dimension (interaction skills) but also a transversal connection between the emotional dimension (mindfulness) and the facework competence criteria which embraces the notions of mutual adaptability and mutual satisfaction as main outcomes. Ting-Toomey and Kurogi's model represents a valuable construct where different intercultural competencies are implanted as we can observe in each rectangle.²¹ Competencies such as listening, communicative observation and collaborative dialogue,²² belong to the social dimension (named interaction skills in this representation). The mindfulness dimension of this model is equivalent to the emotional component proposed by other authors as it can be corroborated in this review.

Beyond the dimensions shown in the above model, Ting-Toomey (2005) makes also an interesting analysis of the importance of learning intercultural competence skills by referring to some stages such as *unconscious incompetence*, which she defines as the "ignorance stage" where the person ignores the communication "defects" or mistakes when interacting with a cultural unfamiliar person; then *conscious incompetence*, a

²⁰ Mindfulness (cultural) and collaborative dialogue, are two of the main chosen abilities to be tested in this study as one of the cognitive and social competencies respectively hypothesized to have a significant positive impact on managers' readiness for organizational change.

²¹ Particular interest is given to the mindfulness dimension in this case, since this very term has been included as one of the independent variables of this study. Though here it is expressed as a dimension, it will be further defined as a specific intercultural competency to be tested as shown in the research model proposition.

²² Collaborative dialogue is also one of the variables defined for as one of the competencies of the social component for the purposes of this dissertation.

stage in which a person knows and recognizes that he or she is incompetent in interacting with a person’s culture, but still does not do anything to modify the behaviour;” a third stage called *conscious competence* occurs when a person is aware of his/her intercultural communication “non-fluency” but tries to acquire knowledge, change attitude, and develop the necessary skills, and finally, *unconscious competence* where the person is instinctively “practicing intercultural knowledge and skills.” Thus complementarily, Ting-Toomey (1999) presented a model on intercultural communication that resembles more the recurrent three-component construct characteristics type shown previously.²³

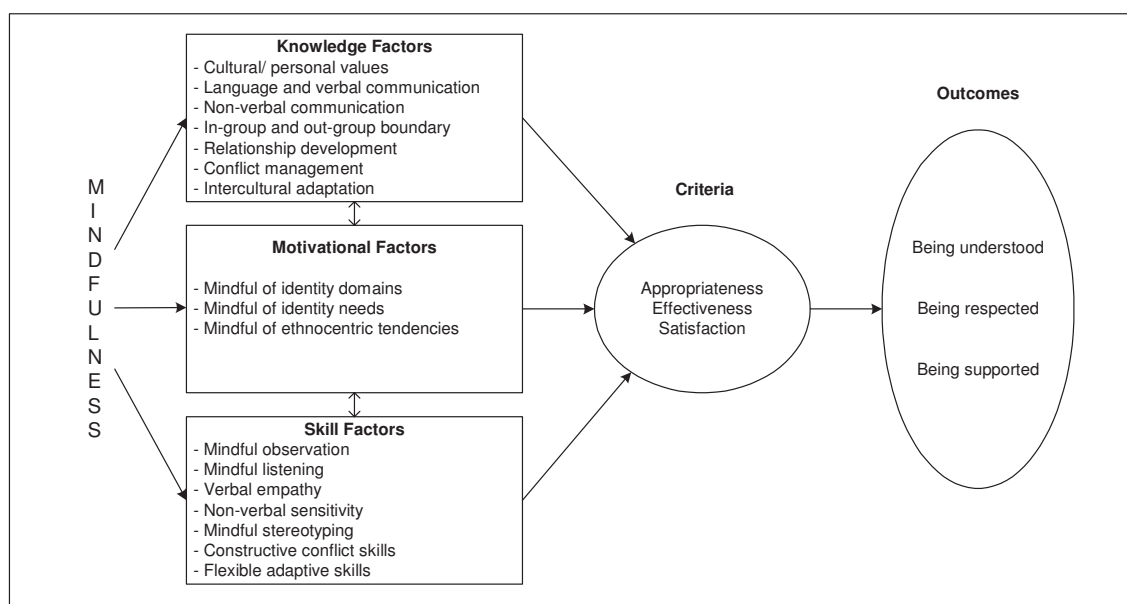


Figure 2.11 Ting-Toomey’s mindful intercultural communication model

Source: Ting-Toomey (1999). *Communication across Cultures*. New York. The Guilford Press. p. 49

In this second model Ting-Toomey visibly refers to the cognitive, emotional and social dimensions and connects them to presumed criteria and subsequently to a desired set of outcomes.

²³ Mindfulness (in the sense of cultural intelligence) is considered in this study as one of the independent variables within the proposed cognitive component, so further conceptualization will be presented concerning this concept.

2.4.2.7(2000) Barmeyer's Dimensions of Intercultural Competence

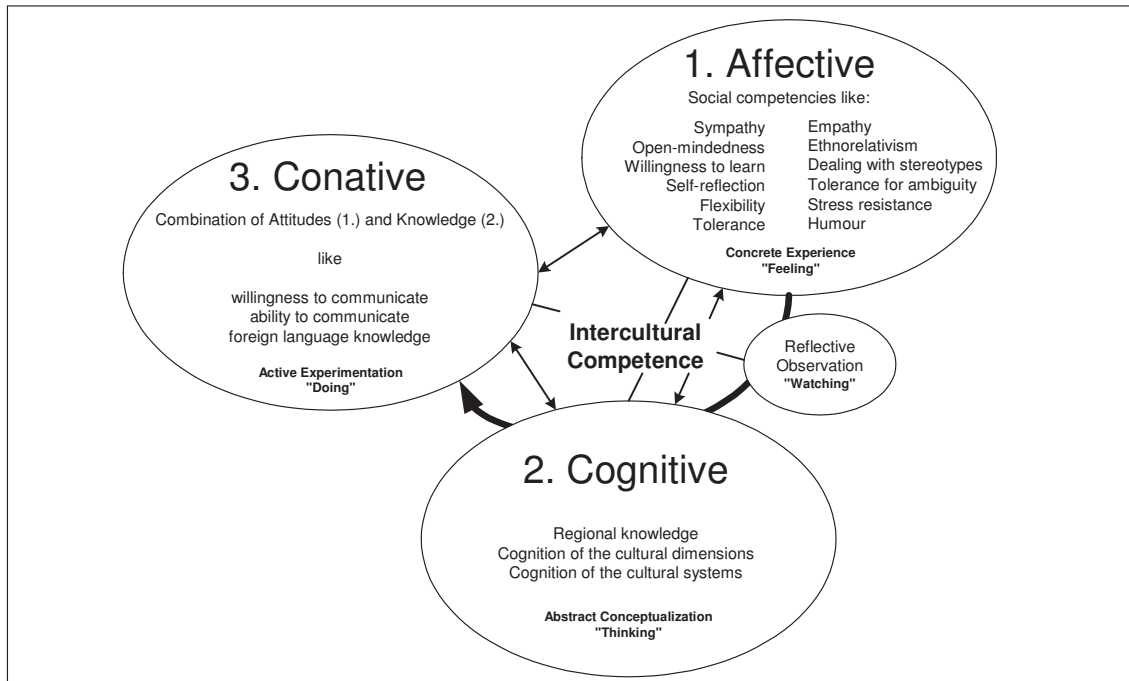


Figure 2.12 Barmeyer's intercultural competence dimensions

Source: Translated from Barmeyer (2000). *Interkulturelles Management und Lernstile: Studierende und Führungskräfte in Frankreich, Deutschland und Quebec*. Frankfurt/New York. Campus Verlag. p. 273

Barmeyer (2000) also ventures to conceptualize intercultural competence within the three main components already illustrated in the previous models, and which he pointed out as generally accepted. (1) Emotional competence —attitudes, feelings, values; (2) cognitive competence —skills, knowledge, understanding; and (3) conative competence —abilities, capabilities, action. He then describes and relates each component to a specific dimension: That is, emotional competence responds to a *feeling-dimension*, as cognitive competence responds to a *thinking-dimension* and as conative competence will to a *doing-dimension*. Furthermore, he recounts those three dimensions as follows: Emotional competence presupposes *experience* through concrete experience; cognitive competence presupposes *knowledge* through abstract conceptualization; and conative competence presupposes *behaviour* through active experimentation.

Concerning the specific intercultural competencies included in each of the dimensions, Barmeyer advocates concepts such as: sympathy, empathy, self-reflection, ethno-relativism (Bennett, 1993), tolerance of ambiguity and sense of humour. Within the notion of cognitive competence: cultural dimensions including competencies of “knowledge” about national structures, about functionality of a given cultural system, geographical conditions, specific know-how, mentalities, forms of communication; but also knowledge discovery about other aspects such as family, friends, educational structures, history, etc., in summary, orientation to knowledge finding and detection. Yet, regarding the notion of conative competence, Barmeyer evokes aspects such as personality attributes and social ability. This clearly shows the idea of behaviour, meaning action, that is, a social skill. We can at this point speak of the conative competence as the equivalent social competence referred to by other scholars. This is the communication competence that requires a certain level of context sensitivity and what Kühlmann and Stahl (1998) call meta-communicative competence. The views of conative competence shall therefore include all aspects of communication such as vocabulary, grammar, body language, but also social rapport, sympathetic networking abilities, and capacity of adaptation.

Barmeyer though, inserts a fourth component called *reflective-observation*, which suggests the idea of that considered-necessary “awareness” embedded in the process of learning intercultural competence, we can assume that this refers to the consciousness of such a construct and the complexity of the interplay among the three components. According to Barmeyer, this fourth component responds to a *watching-dimension*. That is, being aware of the whole construct, and the respective competencies rooted in each dimension.

2.4.2.8 (2001) Kim's Components of Intercultural Communication Competence

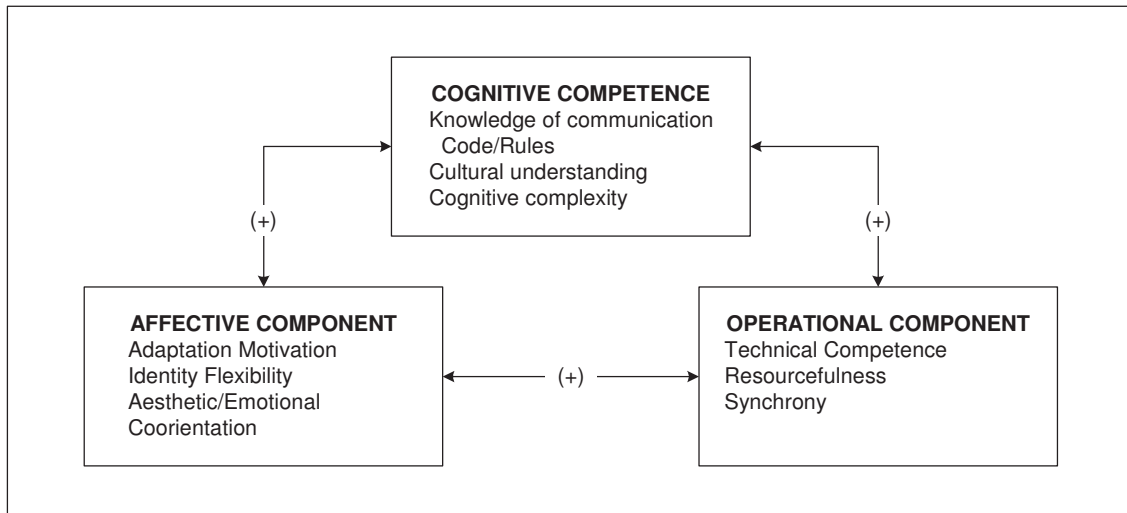


Figure 2.13 Kim's components of intercultural communication competence

Source: Kim (2001). *Becoming Intercultural: An integrative theory of communication and cross-cultural adaptation*. United Kingdom. SAGE Publications. p. 118.

Kim (2001) proposes a similar model of intercultural competence based on three basic dimensions: (1) a *cognitive competence* which includes elements such as knowledge of communication —code and rules—, cultural understanding and cognitive complexity; (2) an *affective competence* which involves adaptation, motivation, identity flexibility and aesthetic-emotional co-orientation; (3) an *operational competence* including aspects such as technical competence, resourcefulness and synchrony. Kim suggests an interrelation among the three dimensions and insinuates a direct impact where all components influence one another in a positive way. According to Kim, the cognitive component has to do with the “mental capabilities of comprehension” and “sense-making” which is basically an ability to discern the significance of different communication codes, whether they be verbal or non-verbal. Regarding the affective component, Kim remarks that the cognitive development is directly linked to the affective development, this is, “the emotional and motivational ‘drives’ or ‘reflexes’ towards successful adaptation.” The latter, feasible only with certain abilities such as flexibility in cultural identity, which is, in other words what other authors will refer to as polycentrism or mindfulness (Ting-Toomey, 1998). Another aspect addressed in this

component is that of “emotional and aesthetic sensibilities” which is related to cultural empathy and emotional strength. As for the operational competence, Kim alludes mainly to the technical skills developed (acquired) which are essential for the effective performance of everyday working and social activities. This is the social dimension. Technical abilities will include language skills among others.²⁴

2.4.2.9 (2004) Intercultural Competence Model based on Gudykunst

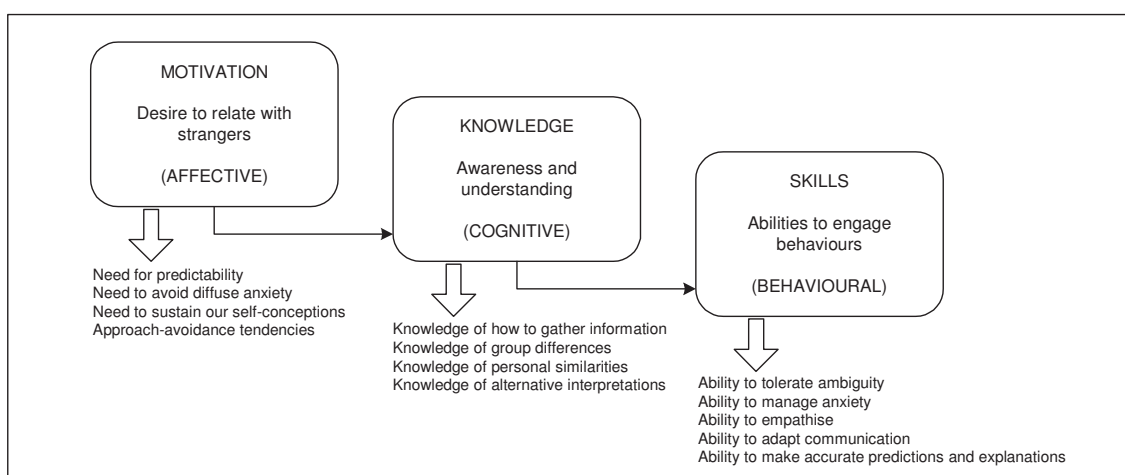


Figure 2.14 Intercultural competence model based on Gudykunst

Source: Own elaboration based on Gudykunst (2004) p. 60-61. In Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009).

This intercultural competence model was deliberately elaborated based on the work of W.B. Gudykunst (2004) and it was built intentionally in order to show again the recurrent tendency of grouping always the very same three components. In this graphical representation of Gudykunst’s reflections we can observe in the first place, the affective dimension (motivation) described as the individual’s desire to relate with strangers through the need of predictability, anxiety avoidance, self-conceptions sustainability and approach-avoidance tendencies. In the second place, the cognitive dimension (knowledge) described as the awareness and understanding of the different

²⁴ This components and their embedded competencies will be explained further in this study tailored to provide solid definition and justification for the research model.

cultural contexts involving the gathering of information, knowledge of cultural differences, individual similarities and other possible interpretations. In third place we can see the behavioural-social dimension (skills) which is described as the abilities to engage behaviours through the development of certain abilities such as tolerance for ambiguity, anxiety management, empathy and adaptive communication.

2.4.2.10 (2004) Matveev and Milter's Intercultural Competence Model

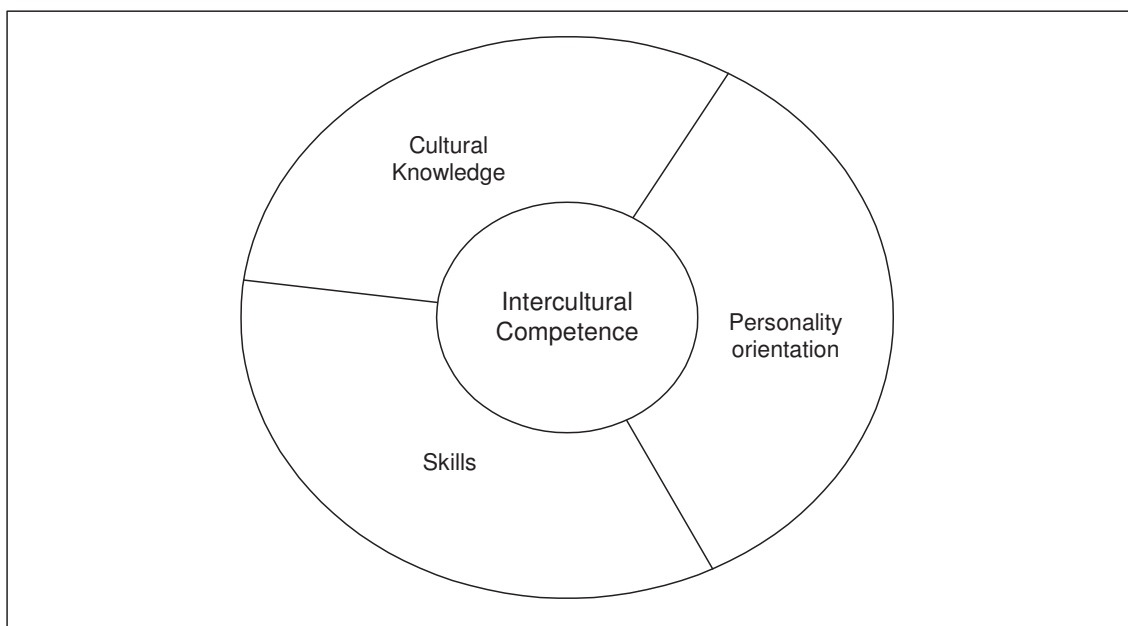


Figure 2.15 Matveev and Milter's intercultural competence model

Source: Matveev and Milter (2004). "The value of intercultural competence for performance of multicultural teams." *Team Performance Management*. Vol. 10 Num. 5/6 pp. 104-111

Cultural knowledge, orientation to personality and skills are the three components included in this model of intercultural competence proposed by Matveev and Milter. Graphically quite similar in simplicity to the basic construct of Gertsen's dimensions, this model differs in the sense that it explains the components within the notion of managerial multicultural team-work activities. The first dimension will include culture-specific information and the recognition and understanding of one's own culture as a crucial element. Cognitive-based communication abilities are empathized in this model and tailored to the resolution of potential misunderstandings resulting from multicultural

teamwork. As for the personality orientation (equivalent to the emotional-affective dimension, they highlight the importance of knowing about psychological reactions, recognition of emotions, and the cultural empathy of people related to their consequent actions when performing within multicultural teams. The skills dimension is regarded as the “correct” behaviours stressing aspects of communication according to the general norms and aligned to the common goals.

This model is the result of research conducted with the objective of comparing American and Russian perceptions of intercultural competence and one of the coinciding findings is that ninety percent of the interviewed managers acknowledged the magnitude of multicultural team work and the great complexity organizations face in order to understand and respond to intercultural differences in the work environment. Furthermore, the authors make a recommendation for possible application of the model by suggesting the proper design of strategies and the necessary place of training. They affirm that the three components of the model can be learned systematically and endorse the responsibility of such trainings to the consideration of the top executives.

2.4.2.11 (2006) Deardorff Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence

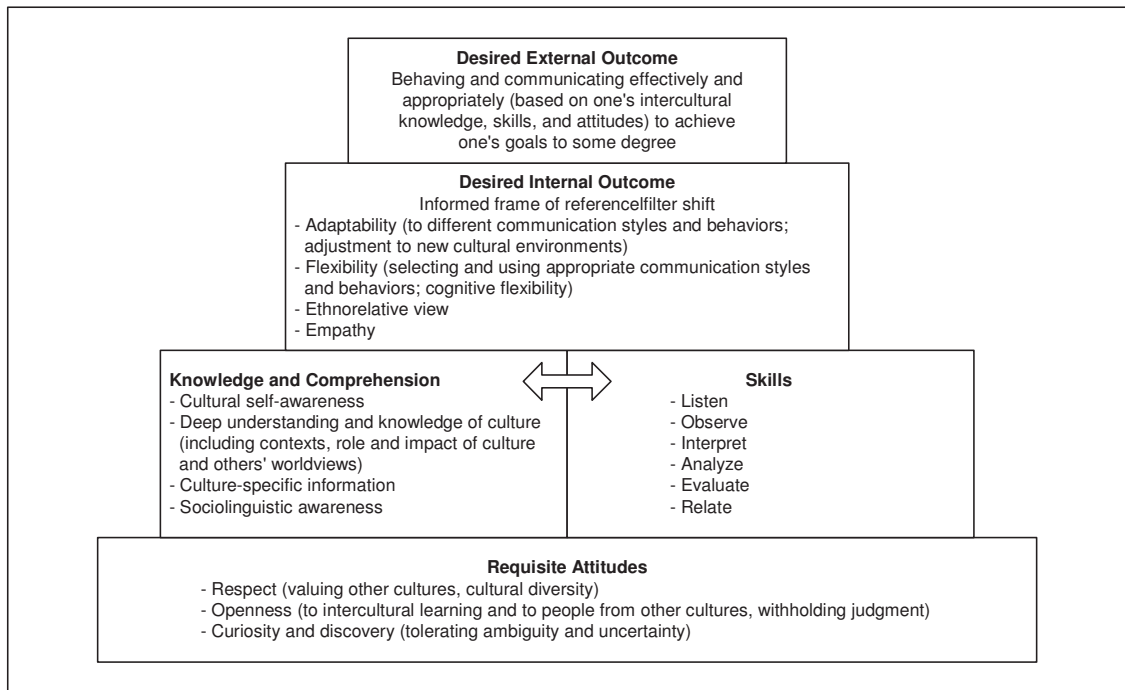


Figure 2.16 Deardorff's pyramid of intercultural competence

Source: Spitzberg and Changnon (2009). Conceptualizing Intercultural Competence. In Deardorff (Ed.) *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*. p. 13

Deardorff (2006) presents a four-tiered construct that emphasizes the following aspects: attitudes; knowledge and comprehension; skills and; internal and external outcomes. In this model we can clearly recognize—in the first two lower levels—a *cognitive* component (knowledge and comprehension); an *affective* or *emotional* component (requisite attitudes) and; a *social* component (skills). And the upper levels relate to the desired outcomes.²⁵ What results particularly interesting for the purposes of this conceptualization attempt is potted in the first two lower levels. The cognitive component is visualized in the “knowledge and comprehension” dimension which gathers the pertaining cognitive capabilities such as cultural self-awareness, understanding and knowledge of culture (referred to as cultural mindfulness by Ting-Toomey, 1999), culture specific information and socio linguistic awareness. Then, a

dimension called “skills” is the equivalent to the social component in other models since it includes listening, interpretation, behavioural evaluation and observation. This grouping recaps reliably what has been mentioned and discussed in the compendium of definitions provided earlier. Then, the emotional dimension can be identified here as the “requisite attitudes” involving respect (named respect for otherness in the research model), curiosity and discovery from the perspective of ambiguity tolerance (referred to also as emotional in most of the models); and the concept of openness, approaching again the idea of polycentrism and non-judgementalness.

Deardorff though, goes beyond these three basic components and connects, within the same construct, with certain desired outcomes both internal and external, which correspond to the two upper levels of the model. Internal outcomes include competencies that might be found in the three components indistinctively; for instance empathy, ethno-relative views, adaptability to different communication styles and behavioural-cognitive abilities. Concerning the external outcomes, similarly, some of the capabilities of the three components are summarized again; behaving and communicating effectively, knowledge, skills and attitudes to achieve the set goals.²⁶ This pyramid follows a very logical structure and goes after the majority of theoretical notions presented in this literature review.

²⁵ For the purposes of a more consistent definition of intercultural competence towards the development of this research proposition we will emphasize the two first lower levels of this model.

²⁶ This assortment of competencies that at first might seem “out of place” is just the exporting of the very same competencies logically included in the components and shown in the upper dimensions to be presented as the skills necessary for the desired outcomes according to Deardorff’s model.

2.4.2.12 (2007) Illeris' Triangle. Learning as a Competence Development

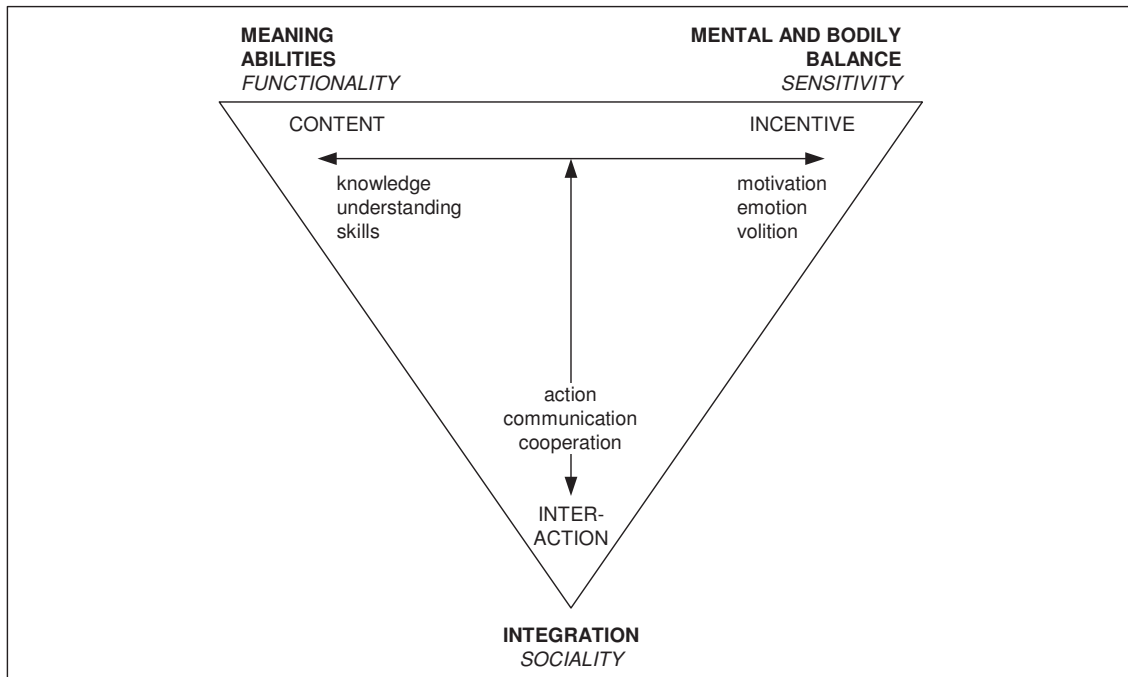


Figure 2.17 Illeris' Triangle- Learning as a competence development

Source: Illeris (2007). *How we learn: learning and non-learning in school and beyond*. Routledge. Taylor & Francis Group.

Illeris (2007) formulated a model that includes, in a similar way, the three main aspects comprised in all preceding models. He explains a relationship between functionality, sensitivity and interaction which matches relatively well to the notions of cognitive, emotional and conative dimensions. Illeris refers to the concept of functionality (content) as a set of abilities related to knowledge, understanding and skills; then sensitivity (incentive) which would include capabilities related to motivation, emotion and volition. Though volition might be confusing, since it is indeed considered conative or social by other studies, a logical interpretation and justification for this model is conceivably because volition implies attitude and sensitivity which are in the end, emotional elements. Finally, the concept of sociality (interaction) is evidently equivalent to the social component or conative dimension, including action and specific competencies such as communication and cooperation. Interaction involves as well that idea of communicative awareness and collaborative dialogue which have

been already mentioned. Illeris’ construct shows very clearly the three components of intercultural competence (cognition, emotion and sociality).

2.4.2.13 (2010) *Bücker and Poutsma’s Global Management Competencies Model*

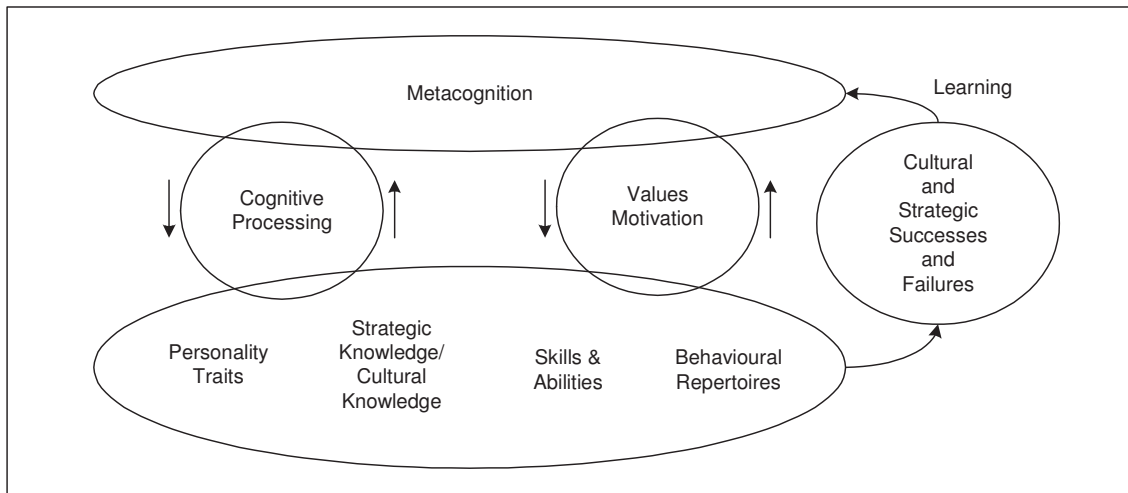


Figure 2.18 Bücker and Poutsma’s global management competencies model

Source: Bücker and Poutsma (2010). “Global management competencies: a theoretical foundation.” *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. 25 Num. 8 pp. 838

Within the framework of management competence, Bücker and Poutsma (2010) developed a global integrative model that captures some of the features that have been offered in the previous constructs. In this model it is possible to observe the cognitive component named by the authors as “metacognition” which is just another name to refer to the notion of mindfulness—in any case belonging to the cognitive dimension. According to this model, metacognition is cultivated through the learning obtained from cultural and strategic failures and successes which in turn, derive from behavioural patterns; abilities and skills; cultural knowledge and even personality traits—here can be observed the other dimensions such as behaviour or social and partially the affective and emotions with the notion of personality traits. Values and motivation are outlined in this model as canalization elements between the metacognition level and the behavioural level. Yet another canalization is referred to here as a cognitive processing.

All the constituents of this model together present a visual understanding of the process of interaction among the dimensions. Cognitive, emotional and social converge in this representation as a constant dynamic process where the cognitive process along with the values and motivation act as permanent driving forces. Bücker and Poutsma's discussion is centered on the advantages of this model by arguing that it is built upon solid scientific definitions collected from acknowledged literature in the field. They also defend that it focuses on the strategic level and provide a more realistic approach than other models. Moreover, they emphasize the idea of dynamism embedded in the model as a direct result of behaviours and learning processes.²⁷ In their conceptual paper they evoke the idea of adjustment as a way to enlarge the possibility of effective global management competence.

2.4.2.14 (2010) Klein's Model of Intercultural Competence

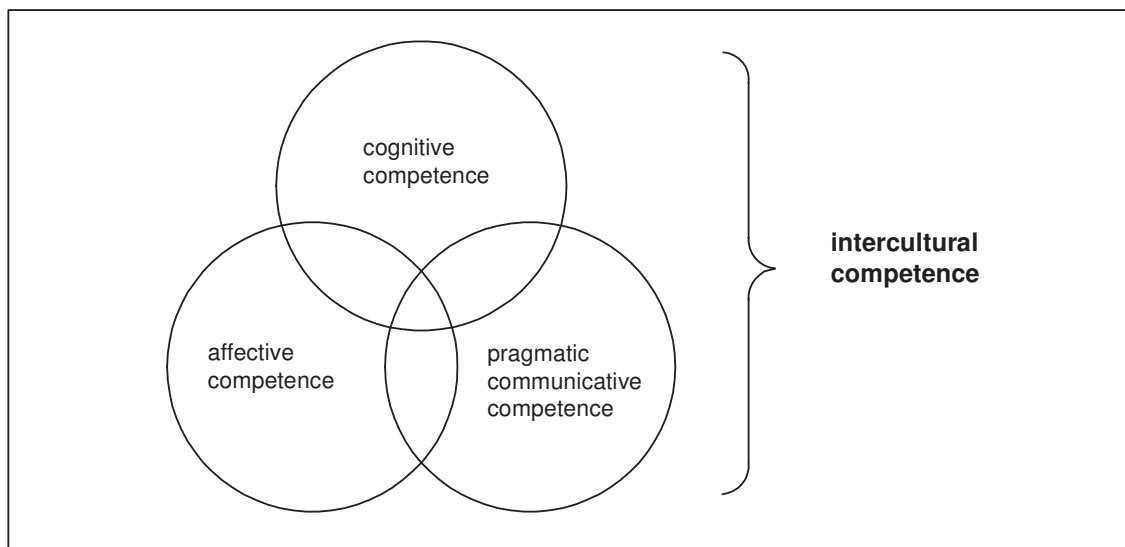


Figure 2.19 Klein's model of intercultural competence

Source: Adapted from Klein, Rieger and Schumacher (2010). The impact of intercultural competence on Franco-German business relations. *Conference on Applied Interculturality Research*. Graz, Austria. p. 2

²⁷ Bücker and Poutsma's construct establishes links with the notion of cultural intelligence, which is considered in this study as another way to name the concept of cultural mindfulness also defined by Ting-Toomey (1999).

Klein, Rieger and Schumacher (2010) propose an elementary model of intercultural competence as part of a research project on Franco-German cross-cultural relations. They emphasize the demand of intercultural training as a strategy to cope with the quality improvement of the bilateral relations and the reducing of misunderstandings between counterparts of both countries. The model itself does not differ from the majority of models in terms of the basic dimensions. Klein's model (to name it shortly), is composed of a cognitive competence referred to the individual's knowledge and understanding of the information about other cultures; an affective component aiming to warn on the individual's required intercultural awareness; and a component called pragmatic communicative competence which basically stands for the communication skills of the interlocutors of an intercultural encounter. This empirical study was carried out in over 1,300 companies through a 14-item questionnaire inquiring the needs for intercultural competence. The three components of this model interplay and intersect with each other in a dynamic structure that aims to explicate the concept of intercultural competence. The arrangement of the circles in this diagram does not seem to play a specific role, but it is recurrently observable that the cognitive dimension tends to appear in the first place followed by affective-emotional and communicative-behavioural.

2.4.2.15 (2010) Zimmermann's Notion of Intercultural Competence

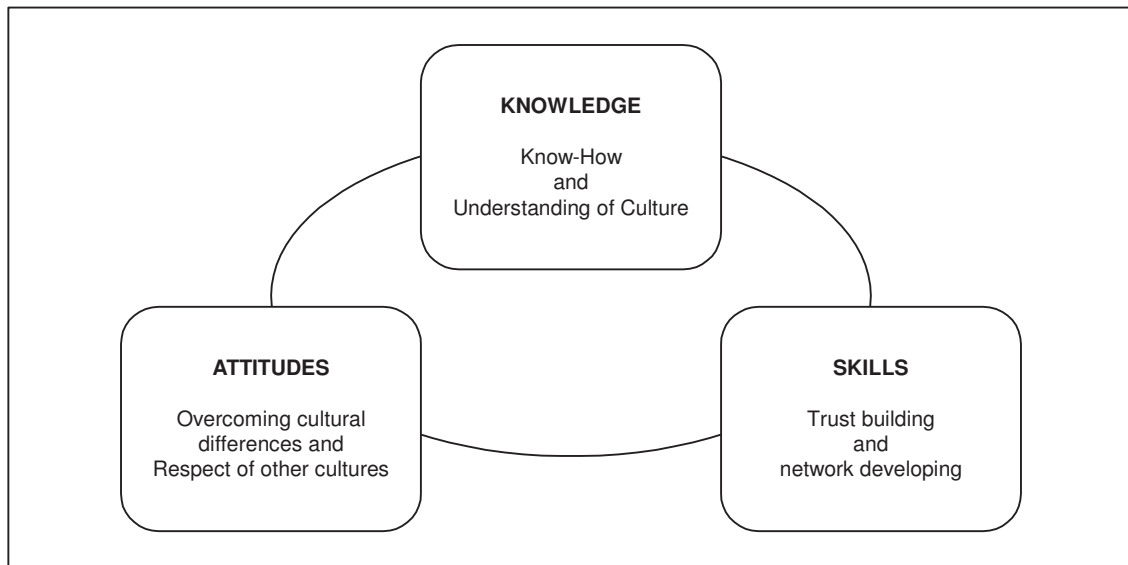


Figure 2.20 Intercultural competence in a virtual multicultural team

Source: Diagrammatic adaptation from Zimmermann (2010). *Intercultural competence as a success factor of virtual multicultural teams: A case-study on the team effectiveness of global HR teams.* University of Jyväskylä, Finland. Based on Uber-Grosse (2002).

Zimmermann (2010) collates some competencies formerly defined by Uber-Grosse (2002) on intercultural matters. Though Uber-Grosse did not develop a graphical representation nor did Zimmermann, the model shown is a construct proposed by the researcher in order to discern. Again implicit we can find three clear dimensions labelled by Zimmermann as knowledge, attitudes and skills. The knowledge dimension will be configured by the understanding and know-how of culture, meaning a conscious contextual understanding as in a learning process; the attitudes dimension will comprise the overcoming or conquer of cultural differences and the inherent respect that such other cultures deserve; and the skills dimension embraces capabilities such as building trust and networking. The three sections of this proposal are interrelated rather than intersecting as in the case of Klein's model although the general idea is similar in terms of being equivalent in content and allocation of competencies along the three dimensions.

2.4.2.16 (2011) *The ABC Model of Intercultural Competence*

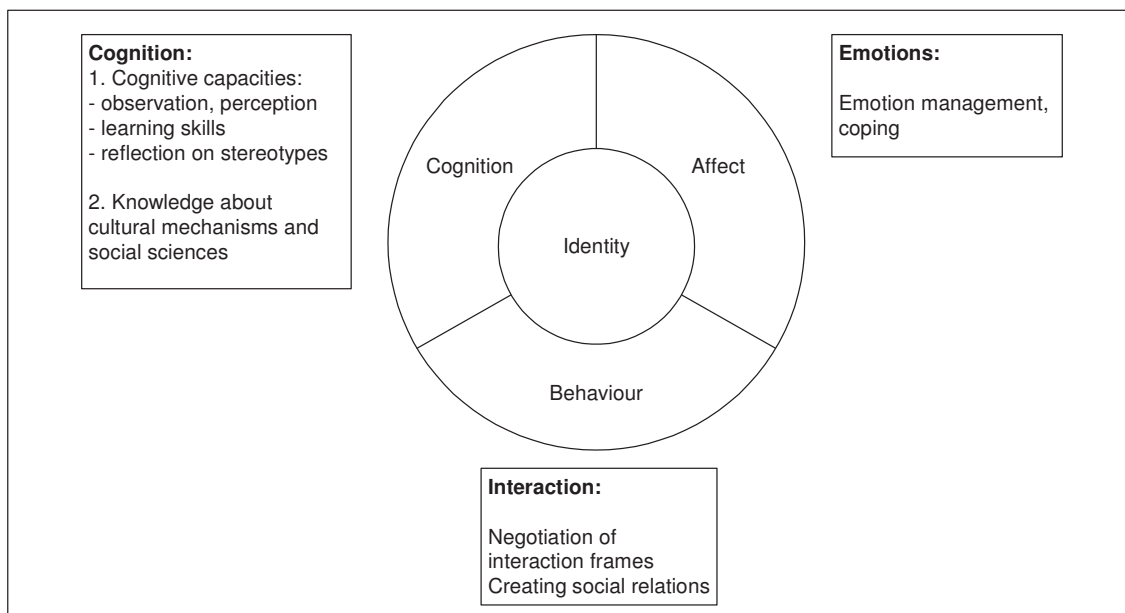


Figure 2.21 Várhegyi and Nann’s ABC model of intercultural competence

Source: Várhegyi, V. and Nann, S. (2011). Framework model for intercultural competences for the Intercultool project.

This particular construct developed by Várhegyi, V. and Nann²⁸ finds its support in several theoretical backups (Ruben, 1976; Kobl, 1984; Gudykunst, 1985; Ting-Toomey, 2000 to mention some) which offer soundness for a reliable conceptualization. The Intercultool model includes an additional element which is the idea of “identity” and it is inserted into the construct as a medullar part, being identity the center of gravitation of the three dimensions repeatedly exposed in this work. The cognitive level though is divided into two: cognition and knowledge and the only distinction made is, that cognition refers to a capacity to reflect and make sense with the use of reasoning; whereas knowledge refers to the actual understanding of the context, values and cultural manifestations. The behavioural level, labelled “interaction” concerns basically aspects of communication and social conduct and organization.

²⁸ Source: <http://www.intercultool.eu/framework.pdf> Accessed August 9th 2011

The following table gathers all sixteen models in order to have an overall comprehensive view and ease the identification of the coincident dimensions and their respective elements among them.

Table 2-4 Compendium of all coinciding intercultural competence models

<p>Gertsen (1992)</p>	<p>Dirks (1995)</p>	<p>Queeney (1997)</p>	<p>Spitzberg (1997)</p>
<p>Hamilton (2001)</p>	<p>Ting-Toomey (1998)</p>	<p>Barmeyer (2000)</p>	<p>Kim (2001)</p>
<p>Gudykunst (2004)</p>	<p>Matveev & Milner (2004)</p>	<p>Deardorff (2006)</p>	<p>Illeris (2007)</p>
<p>Bücker & Poutsma (2010)</p>	<p>Klein et al. (2010)</p>	<p>Zimmermann (2010)</p>	<p>Várhegyi & Nann (2011)</p>

A synthesis of all described coinciding models is shown in a rubric [Table 2.5] which purpose is to compare differences and similarities among the basic components of each model. This explanatory table is aimed to establish the logic and rationale behind the conceptual framework which is the very foundation of the proposed research model.

Table 2-5 Synthesis of the coinciding intercultural competence models

Author	Component 1 (COGNITIVE CAPABILITIES)	Component 2 (EMOTIONAL ABILITIES)	Component 3 (BEHAVIOURAL/SOCIAL SKILLS)
Barmeyer (2004)	<p><i>Cognitive</i></p> <p>Regional knowledge Cognition of the cultural dimensions/ Cognition of the cultural systems Abstract Conceptualization "Thinking"</p>	<p><i>Affective</i></p> <p>Social competencies like: Sympathy/ Open-mindedness/ Willingness to learn/ Self-reflection/ Flexibility/ Tolerance/ Empathy/ Ethno-relativism Dealing with stereotypes/ Tolerance for ambiguity/ Stress resistance/ Humour Concrete Experience "Feeling"</p>	<p><i>Conative</i></p> <p>Combination of Attitudes (1.) and Knowledge (2.) like willingness to communicate ability to communicate foreign language knowledge Active Experimentation "Doing"</p>
Bücker and Poutsma (2010)	<p><i>Metacognition</i></p> <p>Cognitive processing: - Strategic Knowledge - Cultural Knowledge</p>	<p><i>Personality traits</i></p> <p>- Values - Motivation</p>	<p><i>Behavioural repertoires</i></p> <p>Learning: - Skills and abilities</p>
Deardorff (2009)	<p><i>Knowledge (comprehension)</i></p> <p>- Cultural self-awareness - Deep understanding and knowledge of culture (including contexts, role and impact of culture and others' worldviews) - Culture-specific information - Sociolinguistic awareness</p>	<p><i>Requisite (attitudes)</i></p> <p>- Respect (valuing other cultures, cultural diversity) - Openness (to intercultural learning and to people from other cultures, withholding judgment) - Curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty)</p>	<p><i>Skills</i></p> <p>- Listen - Observe - Interpret - Analyze - Evaluate - Relate</p>
Dirks (1995)	<p><i>Cognitive</i></p> <p>- recognizing prevalent norms, customs, and value systems - understanding local role structures and societal relations - realizing differences and nuances in verbal and non-verbal communication</p>	<p><i>Emotional-psychological</i></p> <p>- exhibiting empathy - willingness to accept risk - curiosity to learn - awareness of own self</p>	<p><i>Social</i></p> <p>- developing and inclination to actively listen - willingness to improve one's own behaviour - engaging in local networking</p>

Author	Component 1 (COGNITIVE CAPABILITIES)	Component 2 (EMOTIONAL ABILITIES)	Component 3 (BEHAVIOURAL/SOCIAL SKILLS)
Gertsen (1992)	<p><i>Cognitive dimension</i></p> <p>Knowledge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness and understanding: - Knowledge of how to gather information - Knowledge of group differences - Knowledge of personal similarities - Knowledge of alternative interpretations 	<p><i>Affective dimension</i></p> <p>Motivation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Desire to relate with strangers: - Need for predictability - Need to avoid diffuse anxiety - Need to sustain our self-conceptions - Approach-avoidance tendencies 	<p><i>Communicative behavioural dimension</i></p> <p>Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Abilities to engage behaviours: - Ability to tolerate ambiguity - Ability to manage anxiety - Ability to empathise - Ability to adapt communication - Ability to make accurate predictions and explanations
Illeris (2007)	<p><i>Content (functionality)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Knowledge - Understanding - Skills <p>Meaning abilities</p>	<p><i>Incentive (sensitivity)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivation - Emotion - Volition <p>Mental and bodily balance</p>	<p><i>Interaction (sociality)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Action - Communication - Cooperation <p>Integration</p>
Hamilton (1979)	<p>Knowledge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness: Knowledge of: - Self as it relates to cultural identity - Similarities and differences across cultures <p>Understanding: Knowledge of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Oppressions - Intersecting oppressions (race, gender, class, religion, etc.) <p>Appreciation: Knowledge of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elements involved in social change - Effects of cultural differences on communication 	<p>Attitudes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness: Values: - Own group - Group equally <p>Understanding: Devalues:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discrimination - Ethnocentric assumptions <p>Appreciation: Values:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Risk taking - Life enhancing role of cross-cultural interactions 	<p>Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Awareness: Ability to: - Engage in self-reflection - Identify and articulate cultural similarities and differences <p>Understanding: Ability to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Take multiple perspectives - Understand differences in multiple contexts <p>Appreciation: Ability to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Challenge discriminatory acts - Communicate cross-culturally

INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND READINESS FOR CHANGE

Author	Component 1 (COGNITIVE CAPABILITIES)	Component 2 (EMOTIONAL ABILITIES)	Component 3 (BEHAVIOURAL/SOCIAL SKILLS)
Keršienė and Savanevičienė (2005) based on Queeney (1997)	<p><i>Knowledge (acquired skills)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Capacity for learning and change - Stress management skills - Conflict-resolution skills - Cross-cultural relationship - Language knowledge - Cultural knowledge 	<p><i>Personal characteristics (innate)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Empathy - Approval - Task performance - Openness to experience - Emotional stability - Extraversion - Agreeableness 	<p><i>Behaviours (dynamic)</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cross-cultural adjustment
Kim (2001)	<p><i>Cognitive competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Knowledge of communication Code/Rules - Cultural understanding - Cognitive complexity 	<p><i>Affective competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Adaptation Motivation - Identity Flexibility - Aesthetic/Emotional - Coorientation 	<p><i>Operational competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Technical Competence - Resourcefulness - Synchrony
Klein <i>et al.</i> (2010)	<p><i>Cognitive Competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual's intercultural awareness 	<p><i>Affective competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual's objective knowledge about other cultures 	<p><i>Programmatic communicative competence</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individual's communication skills
Matveev (2004)	<p><i>Cultural knowledge</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Information about cultural practices - Culture specifics - Information about one's own cultural system 	<p><i>Personality orientation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intrinsic interest towards intercultural interaction - Emotional and psychological reactions towards foreigners - Degree of empathy 	<p><i>Skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Effective behaviours perceived as competent in a variety of cultures - Ability to understand and clearly communicate goals, roles and norms
Spitzberg (1990)	<p><i>Knowledge functions</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interaction - Speech Act - Linguistic - Management - Homeostatic - Coordinative 	<p><i>Motivation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reward Potential - Objectives/Goals - Anxiety 	<p><i>Skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Composure - Interaction Management - Altercentrism - Expressiveness

Author	Component 1 (COGNITIVE CAPABILITIES)	Component 2 (EMOTIONAL ABILITIES)	Component 3 (BEHAVIOURAL/SOCIAL SKILLS)
Ting-Toomey (1998)	<p><i>Knowledge dimension</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Individualism-collectivism - Small/large power distance - "Self/face" models - Facework communication styles <p>Knowledge Factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cultural/ personal values - Language and verbal communication - Non-verbal communication - In-group and out-group boundary - Relationship development - Conflict management - Intercultural adaptation 	<p><i>Mindfulness dimension</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mindful reflexivity - Openness to novelty - Multiple visions - Analytical empathy - Mindful creativity <p>Motivational Factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mindful of identity domains - Mindful of identity needs - Mindful of ethnocentric tendencies 	<p><i>Interaction skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mindful listening - Mindful observation - Facework management - Trust building - Collaborative dialogue <p>Skill Factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Verbal empathy - Non-verbal sensitivity - Mindful stereotyping - Constructive conflict skills - Flexible adaptive skills <p><i>Facework Competence Criteria</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Perceived appropriateness - Perceived effectiveness - Mutual adaptability - Mutual satisfaction
Várhegyi and Nann, n.d.	<p><i>Cognition</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cognitive capacities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - observation, perception - learning skills - reflection on stereotypes 2. Knowledge about cultural mechanisms and social sciences 	<p><i>Affect</i></p> <p>Emotions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emotion management, coping 	<p><i>Behaviour</i></p> <p>Interaction:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Negotiation of interaction frames - Creating social relations
Zimmermann, (2010) based on Uber-Grosse, (2002)	<p><i>Knowledge</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Understand how diversity strengthens a team - Understand pros and cons of intercultural teams - Understand cultural values and beliefs, communication styles - Understand approaches to decision-making, problem-solving, and conflict resolution - Knowing how to handle communication channels (computer literacy) 	<p><i>Attitudes</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Adaptation Motivation - Be open to learning about other cultures - Show respect for other cultures and languages - Overcome cultural differences 	<p><i>Skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Build trust and understanding, - Develop intercultural sensitivity - Develop a network of good relationships - Balance distance work with face-to-face meetings (communicate appropriately) - Use appropriate communication channels - Check for understanding

2.5 Chapter summary

The clarity of the theoretical background along with the fundamental base of the scientific definitions provided, were the main objectives of the review of literature presented in this chapter. The theory behind organizational change aimed to familiarize with the main topics and discussions around the notion of change within both individual and organizational contexts. Over twenty systematic definitions of organizational change were discussed to ensure consistency and achieve a level of synchronization.

A complete section was dedicated to the topic of readiness for change as major subject of this study. In the same way, scientific definitions were offered in order to explain and clear the topic. Readiness for change is a relatively new concept and it was imperative to make sound comprehension supported by the main scholars and researchers led by the premises of Armenakis who is in many ways the precursor of the topic. This section included concrete definitions of readiness for change as its main focus since this concept has been determined as the independent variable of this dissertation. Thus, valid criteria and justification was needed in order to guarantee further measurement and analysis. Especial emphasis was placed on the role of managers within organizations and their individual capabilities for change.

Another section of this chapter was devoted to the term intercultural competence as it represents the objective of correlation with readiness for change. The theory behind intercultural competence is wide and diverse, so a rubric of selected definitions was provided in order to narrow the topic and make it manageable for subsequent interpretation. With that in mind, more than twenty coincident intercultural competence models were described as groundwork for the definition and explanation of the subject matter. As in the case of readiness for change, the notion of intercultural competence was constantly related to the managers of organizations since they are ultimately the target population of this study. Thus, both major topics were covered and tied up to be transferred into a conceptual framework for refinement and preparation before the actual empirical work defined in the methodology. The last section shows the synthesis of all the coinciding models as a base for the conceptualization in chapter three.

Chapter 3

Conceptual Framework
and Research Model

3 Conceptual framework and research model

Observation and theory get on best when they are mixed together, both helping one another in the pursuit of truth.

Sir Arthur Stanley Eddington

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the configuration of a solid theory-based framework to serve as a foundation for the definition of the independent variables; therefore, one section is dedicated to the assessment of intercultural competence by exploring and presenting some of the main instruments used for that purpose.

A general model, derived partly from essential frequently found elements from all previously analysed models is presented at the beginning of the chapter in order to setup the framework of constituents (definition of variables) that will be cleared up and tested in chapters 4 and 5 respectively.

Another section will relate to the actual dimensions of intercultural competence proposed by the researcher for the objectives of this study, that is, the composition of three components and the respective core competencies selected and distributed in each component. Then a section on the type of managers considered respondents and the rationale behind considering such types as possible variables affecting the independent variable. With the same criteria, another section of this chapter will inquire into the stance on intercultural training as a determinant variable of the model including academic and post-academic or professional training. Then, the researcher will disclose in this chapter the research model proposition as the base of this study with justification in the previous sections; and finally another section will be concerned with the formulation composition and sustainability of the respective hypotheses.

3.2 Dimensions and elements of intercultural competence

The following general model was developed in part²⁹ upon the analysis of all recurring elements extracted from the sixteen revisited models, but also from a careful examination of the literature review which exposed some other fundamental constituents considered necessary for examination.

This resulting conceptual model to represent the assortment of these competencies [Figure 3.1] only shows the distribution of elements within the three basic components. So it becomes imperative to recall at this point that for the purposes of the research model, the competencies (independent variables) will be measured and treated independently in terms of correlation with the dependent variable. This means that the components themselves will not be treated as variables in the sense of major competencies or measurable components since it is not intended to prove correlation with readiness for change by components but by independent variables included and assorted in each dimension.

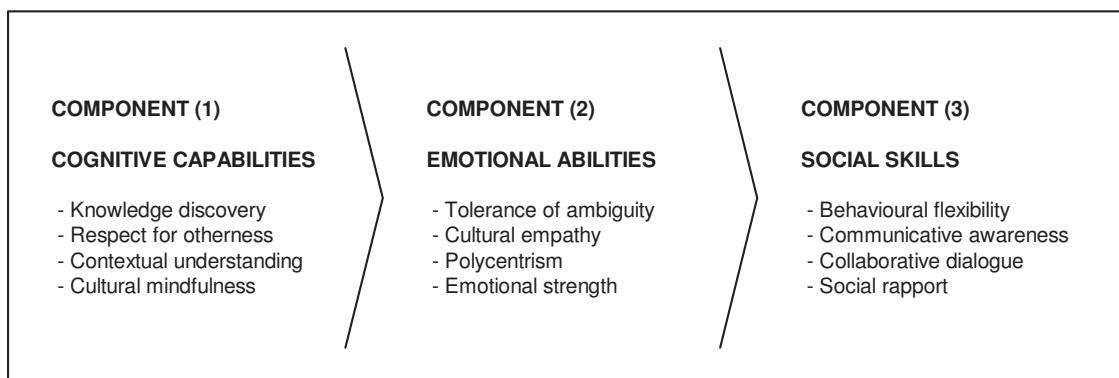


Figure 3.1 Distribution of intercultural competence elements

²⁹ The models presented in chapter two were analyzed in order to obtain valuable constituents to be included in the research model, but they were also to serve as guide for the assortment of elements (Figure 3.1) which in fact is the resulting model to be tested against readiness for change. However, it is important to mention that most of the elements were built or extracted from an in-depth review of the literature.

3.3 The assessment of intercultural competence

Measuring intercultural competence has become more common in the last few years due to the relevance that the topic is adopting on the international scene, not only in the area of management but also in governments and educational institutions. Consequently, a number of assessment tools have been developed as a response to that need and nowadays there are many interesting instruments aiming to measure cross-cultural capabilities. Among the most popular ones we can find the IDI (Intercultural Development Inventory, based on Bennett's model of intercultural sensitivity, by A. Fantini); the AIC (Assessment of Intercultural Competence); the CCAI (Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory, used to measure foreign experience); the BASIC (Behavioural Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence, designed by Ruben to assess intercultural interaction); the OAI (Overseas Assignment Inventory, to measure attitudes and attributes related to intercultural performance and adaptation); the CCAI (Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory, created by Kelley and Meyer for cross-cultural effectiveness and diversity); the INCA Project (Intercultural Competence Assessment, by the Leonardo-Project of the European Commission to diagnose intercultural competence in engineers); the ICSI (Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory, by Bhawuk and Brislin aimed to measure the individual's ability to modify behaviour) or the ISI (Intercultural Sensitivity Index, based also on Bennett's model of sensitivity) just to mention some. Those instruments are normally available at a certain cost to any organization or individual interested in assessing intercultural competence.

Now, trying to assort and classify all existing intercultural competencies referred to in both literature and developed assessment tools is not an easy task, especially if those competencies are to be allocated within certain dimensions according to their nature. However, some attempts have been made which can provide sound support for an eventual classification within the framework of this study. Moreover, since the number of different cross-cultural capabilities to be considered and assorted in one single study is rather impermanent, we will attempt to present a list of the most common

intercultural competencies described by other authors' scales as relevant to the field of intercultural competence.

3.3.1 Behavioural Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence

The first set of essential definitions we refer to are the ones developed within the Behavioural Assessment Scale for Intercultural Competence (BASIC) by Ruben (1976), who formulated a list of seven central intercultural competencies [Table 3.1] which helped significantly to the conceptualization of the terms and subsequent variables definition. The concepts defined by Ruben represent thus an important fragment in the construction of the measurement scale carried out in this study since they harmonize very well with more than a few other sources presented in the following sections: Display of respect for instance, is an equivalent of respect for otherness as it describes the individual's ability to express consideration and respect for other individuals; orientation to knowledge matches the concept of knowledge discovery as it describes the individual's ability to recognize and acknowledge that people explain the world around them in different ways with differing views of what is right and true; empathy referring to cultural empathy as it explains the individual's ability to put him or herself in another's shoes; and tolerance of ambiguity by describing the individual's ability to accept uncertainty.

Table 3-1 Intercultural dimensions according to Brent Ruben

Competencies	Description
Display of respect	The ability to show respect and positive regard for another person.
Orientation to knowledge	The terms people use to explain themselves and the world around them.
Empathy	The capacity to behave as though you understand the world as others do.
Interaction management	Skill in regulating conversations.
Task role behaviour	Behaviours that involve the initiation of ideas related to group problem-solving activities.
Relational role behaviour	Behaviours associated with interpersonal harmony and mediation.
Tolerance for ambiguity	The ability to react to new and ambiguous situations with little visible discomfort.

Competencies	Description
Interaction posture	The ability to respond to others in descriptive, non-evaluative, and non-judgmental ways.

Source: Lustig and Koester (2006 : 73)

3.3.2 Intercultural Competence Assessment

Perhaps one of the most widespread framework studies recently developed in the field of intercultural competence is the INCA Project (Intercultural Competence Assessment). The INCA Project is sponsored and funded by the Leonardo Program of the European Commission's Lifelong Learning Curricula in the United Kingdom and it is basically a set of assessment tools designed to measure intercultural competencies and abilities.³⁰ The instrument was originally tried and implemented for engineers since there was a need for proficient managers regarding intercultural issues and it finds its theoretical background mainly in the works of Kühlmann and Stahl; Byram and Bolten as well as other authors in the area of languages, intercultural communication and cultural awareness.

The assessment program itself aims to, and actually measures, predominantly six basic intercultural competencies which are: *tolerance for ambiguity*; *behavioural flexibility*; *communicative awareness*; *knowledge discovery*; *respect for otherness*; and *empathy*; all of which have been integrally included as core independent variables of this study [Table 3.2]. It is important to bear in mind that the researcher is relying on the accuracy of the definitions of such concepts; not only of the theoretical foundation provided by the INCA Project, but complementarily with other descriptions and definitions offered by different authors in other areas such as sociology and psychology.

The INCA Project structures the six core competencies into three levels according to the proficiency of the manager being assessed: basic, intermediate and full. As will also be explained in the methodology chapter, some of the statements used for the

³⁰ INCA- Intercultural Competence Assessment – <http://www.incaproject.org/>

survey questions were built upon these definitions in order to keep the rigour of the concept and the clear interpretation of the respondent manager.

In addition to the six nucleus competencies, the INCA Project also provides good partial basis for the definition of another variable used in this study which is *openness*. Though the INCA tool regards to this dimension as including respect for otherness and tolerance for ambiguity, the researcher gives it a different treatment based on other alternative definitions offered by Kühlmann and Stahl (1998). Thus openness becomes another core independent variable for the purposes of this work but it is referred to in the research model as *polycentrism*, meaning free of prejudice. The INCA test is mainly based on the six competencies and uses questionnaires and biographical information provided by the respondent and sorts them into the three-level structure for further computerized analysis depending on the proficiency of the manager in each category.

Table 3-2 Essential intercultural competencies of the INCA Project

Competency	Definition
Tolerance for ambiguity	Tolerance for ambiguity is the ability to accept ambiguity and lack of clarity and to be able to deal with this constructively.
Behavioural flexibility	Behavioural flexibility is the ability to adapt one's own behaviour to different requirements and situations.
Communicative awareness	Communicative awareness is the ability to recognise different linguistic conventions, different foreign language skills and their effects on discourse processes, and to negotiate rules appropriate for intercultural communication.
Knowledge discovery	The skill of knowledge discovery is the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to act using that knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.
Respect for otherness	Respect for otherness is manifested in curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend belief about (the 'naturalness' of) one's own culture and to believe in (the 'naturalness' of) other cultures.
Empathy	Empathy is the ability to project oneself into another person's perspective and their opinions, motives, ways of thinking and feelings. Empathic persons are able to relate and respond in appropriate ways to the feelings, preferences and ways of thinking of others.
Openness (Polycentrism)	To be open means to be open to the other and to situations in which something is done differently.

Source: <http://www.incaproject.org/>

According to Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) Byram has influenced the INCA Project with an earlier conceptualization of intercultural communicative competence (1997) which basically describes intercultural competence in five components: attitudes; knowledge; skills of interpreting and relating; skills of discovering and interacting; and critical cultural awareness/ political education. Moreover, Spencer-Oatey and Franklin refer here also to the influence of Köhlmann and Stahl —contributing with the definitions of tolerance for ambiguity, behavioural flexibility, empathy and polycentrism, among others as well as the conceptualizations of Gudykunst on motivation to communicate with strangers; awareness of the needs of proper communication; and skills to engage in effective communicative behaviours. In summary, the INCA Project collates well-sustained definitions of the concepts provided by the authors mentioned above and it represents a sound base for this conceptual framework. More in-depth definitions of the concepts are offered later on in the categorization and grouping of the actual variables.

3.3.3 Framework of International Competencies

Another important source of practical concept definitions that should not be misplaced is the one provided by the firm World-Work Ltd. based in London. The consulting company has developed a comprehensive framework of ten key competencies, each including specific component factors and descriptions [Figure 3.2] which puts forward valuable information towards the conceptualization of intercultural competence directly from the real business world. According to the firm, these ten key competencies are the result of diverse research areas and put together as one division of intercultural knowledge. Concepts defined in this construct, particularly those of openness (under the sense of polycentrism); flexibility (behavioural); emotional strength; listening orientation; cultural knowledge; and rapport have also been incorporated for the conceptualization of some of the independent variables. It is important to mention though, that such definitions included in this framework have been

corroborated and compared with other sources for conceptual heftiness reasons as will be shown later on.

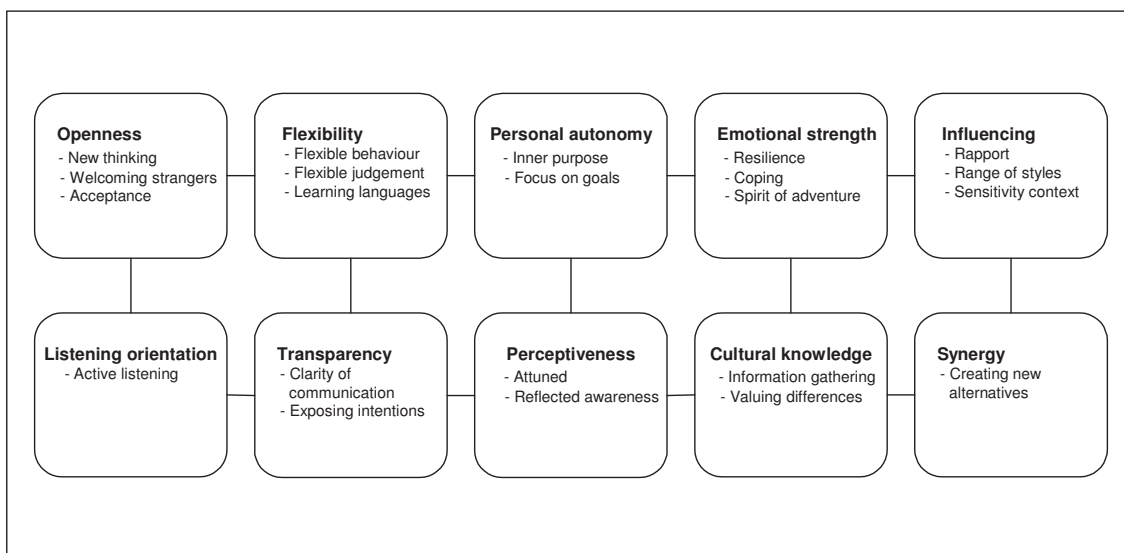


Figure 3.2 The WorldWork's framework of international competencies

Source: Diagrammatically adapted from Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009)

3.3.4 Assessment Tool of Intercultural Competences- Intercultool

The notions defined by this framework of intercultural competence appear also very useful and valuable for the purposes of conceptualizing and classifying specific competencies. This model offers also three clear categories [Table 3.3] that perfectly correspond to all the models revisited in the literature review. This categorization follows the same patterns of the previous models in the sense of using the three basic psychological functioning (Várhegyi and Nann) such as cognitive, affective and behavioural, referred to in this model as *cognition-knowledge*, *emotions* and *interaction*. This category grouping is the result of a research conducted on a sample population from diverse areas such as business, non-profit, public sector and education where the respondents were interviewed with three main notions in mind: exposure to diverse cultures at their workplace, sensitivity to ethno-cultural diversity and personal multicultural experiences. This synopsis compiles some elements that have not been

very explicit in other models and which help define the affective level such as discomfort, confusion, loneliness, etc.; that level of detail is also observed in the interaction (behavioural) level with elements such as rituals and body language.

Table 3-3 Conceptual framework of the Intercultool

Critical areas	Competence definition
AFFECTIVE LEVEL	
EMOTIONS - Discomfort - Confusion - Loneliness - Stress - Frustration - Fear	Emotion management: - Capacity to cope with stress, anxiety and other negative emotions - Capacity to relativize from one's emotions to become able to observe, analyse, interact in a more emotionally neutral state (not acting on the impulse of emotions)
BEHAVIOURAL LEVEL	
INTERACTION - Communication efficiency - Communication style - Rituals - Body language - Creating new relations	Being able to communicate in a situation where the expected styles of communication, codes / rules / rituals of communication may differ between interaction patterns. Capacity to establish social relation with new people. Developing trust, creating a new social network in the new environment.
COGNITIVE LEVEL	
COGNITION - Making sense - Dissonance - Stereotypes	Capacity to make sense of the situation with an awareness of the built-in psychological biases such as categorization, stereotypes, etc. Being able to build up alternative explanations to the first evaluation often based on attribution mistakes. Mobilising previous knowledge and relying on observation.
KNOWLEDGE About worldviews: - Values - Context (legal, technical) - Social organization (gender, hierarchy, community, family)	Awareness of the manifestations, dynamics and varieties of "cultures." Being prepared to observe and decode the new context, relying on previous knowledge and information on history, geography, politics, sociology, cultural anthropology, etc.
IDENTITY	
IDENTITY - Threats to collective, personal id, self doubt - Physical basics	Negotiating between different needs attached to identity: - recognition of personal identity - recognition of group identity - handling threats to group identity (racism, discrimination) - relational function - ontological function Being able to handle unusual physical sensations, exposure to different foods, smells, climates. Handling differences in appearance (one's appearance not fitting to others' etc.

Source: <http://www.intercultool.eu/framework.pdf/> Accessed August 10ht, 2011

3.4 *Dimensions of intercultural competence*

As we have seen throughout this document and particularly based on the literature review and discussion of all presented models, it is possible to observe that there is an evident tendency to group the notion of intercultural competence into three essential dimensions, and those dimensions show a strong relationship and interdependence among each other. Under this vision and as a complementary objective of this study, it has been considered appropriate to sort all the hypostatized competencies into cognitive, emotional and social levels, however; only four explicit competencies are allocated in each component and those have been selected as the ones to be tested as will be indicated later on in the presentation of the research model.

Through the description and analysis of the previous models, we can clearly detect some similarities, for example with Dirks and Hamilton's diagrams in which the constant elements such as cognitive-knowledge; emotional-affective and social-behavioural are quite evident. The simplicity of Gertsen's graphical representation is contrasted with the complexity presented by Barmeyer and both in more or less detail shape a sort of axiom for the conceptualization of intercultural competence.

The following sections describe in detail each of the constituents obtained from both the models and literature review. This in-depth inspection aims to provide insight and intuitive understanding because it is the base of the subsequent examination and testing. Each dimension of intercultural competence includes four elements (see figure 3.1 at the beginning of the chapter), so a total of twelve elements are being scrutinized and refined in order to be included as the core variables of the research model.

3.4.1 Cognitive capabilities

Within the field of psychology the term cognitive refers to the “internal mental states and processes of an individual” (McKenna, 2006) and it is widely used to explain the mechanisms related to knowledge or the storage of information that is used by an individual to acquire knowledge. The cognitive level presupposes learning through a conscious reflection process.³¹ It is a capability that can be planned, evaluated and therefore developed as a competence.³² In other words, the cognitive level is the capability of an individual to understand, emit a judgement, memorize and rationalize. This concept has been adopted by the majority of the authors cited in this study to explain those capabilities that have to do with conscious manifestations involving knowledge and comprehension; moreover, some have likened this level to the strategic and operational conducts of managers (Bücker and Poutsma, 2000). The fact is that the cognitive level is normally related to a particular objective and the resulting observable behaviour generally corresponds to an initial intention in mind. The process of acquiring knowledge involves attention, retention and mental transformation over which the individual (in this case the manager) has the control. The cognitive level allows individuals to grant sense to everything around them that is processed in the mind using symbols, sounds, or images.

The cognitive competencies then shall be those related to the conscious mental processes of the individual, this is, the capabilities to logically conceptualize and categorize idea and thoughts. Under this notion, the researcher has determined as cognitive competencies the following four variables as the most influential capabilities within this dimension.

³¹ The cognitive level involves the conception of ideas, the expression of opinions, set of beliefs, perceptions and the processing of external information through a learning experience. Gallegos and Gorostegui (n.d.) refer to the notion of cognition as anything we know about reality which can be measured not only through the senses but with a complex system that involves sensation, imagination and memory (Neisser, 1976).

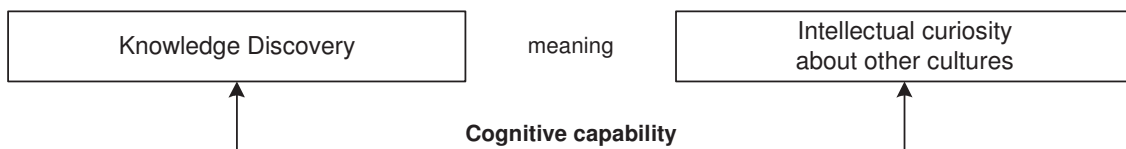
³² According to Deresky (2010) every time more and more organizations require cognitive capabilities such as knowledge of foreign cultures or languages as basic prerequisites for international management assignments.

3.4.1.1 Knowledge Discovery

Intellectual curiosity is the essence of human progress and it implies the development of cognitive capabilities. Our conceptualization of knowledge discovery is primarily based on the definitions provided by the INCA Project but intensely supported by scholars who have drilled into the topic of intercultural adaptation.³³ Knowledge discovery is a term that infers people's *orientation to knowledge* or *intellectual curiosity*. Kim (2001) cites Schroder (1967) who literally affirms that "individuals with cognitive complex structures tend to differentiate or particularize their perceptions and are adept at consolidating different information pieces into a coherent and meaningful whole." According to Precht and Davidson-Lund (2007), knowledge discovery implies the seeking of information to discover cultural-related knowledge; "curiosity about other culture in themselves" and in order to be able to interact better with people. They define this term as the "skill of ethnographic discovery for situation-relevant cultural knowledge (including technical knowledge) before, during and after intercultural encounters." For the WorldWork Consulting Group (2010), this ability requires openness; welcoming strangers; this is, "particular interest in strangers from different and unfamiliar cultural backgrounds." Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) complement the idea of knowledge discovery as the "ability to gather information about the cultural context by asking relevant others or by careful observation." Byram (1997) defines it as the "skills of discovering and interacting;" ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices as well as the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real time communication and interaction. More precisely, the term refers to cultural knowledge (information gathering) which presupposes "willingness to take time and interest to learn about unfamiliar cultures." "Knowledge discovery abilities employ various information-gathering strategies for the specific required knowledge." It involves valuing differences and the tendency to enjoy working

³³ Knowledge discovery is a term usually found within the field of computer sciences; more specifically in the area of data mining (searching valuable data in large complex databases in order to obtain meaningful information) though the term has been adopted in the field of intercultural competence in the sense of intellectual curiosity using mental, rational and conscious thinking processes.

with colleagues and partners from diverse backgrounds and the sensitivity to people who see the world differently (WorldWork, n.d. in Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). Kim (2001) refers to the term cognitive complexity³⁴ as the result of knowing and understanding other cultures' communication system which implies certain curiosity or intrinsic interest which mainly involves the cognitive competency of “informational base of cognition.” Knowledge discovery presupposes acquiring new knowledge about other cultural systems and use that knowledge for effective intercultural interaction (Dorn and Cavalieri-Koch, 2005).



3.4.1.2 *Respect for Otherness*

Respect for otherness is basically the ability to *display respect* (Ruben, 1976) in all given circumstances of diversity.³⁵ Precht and Davidson-Lund (2007) will here refer to readiness for change as treating equally different behaviour, value and convention systems experienced in intellectual encounters. It implies the conscious willingness to respect the diversity and coherence of behaviour, value and belief systems. Respect for otherness supposes acquiring the critical knowledge of such systems (including one's own when making judgements). As well as in knowledge discovery, this ability assumes openness— acceptance— the tendency to positively accept behaviour that is very different from one's own. Respect for otherness means showing respect for new ideas. The WorldWork Consulting Group (2010) defines it as the particular interest in

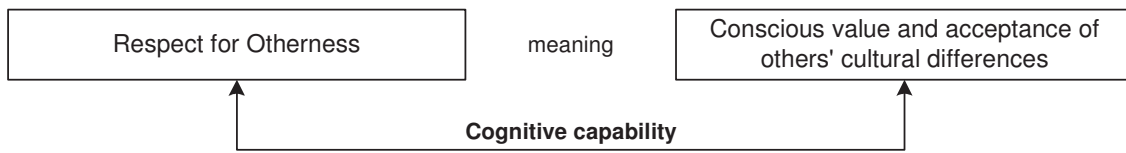
³⁴ Regarding cognition as the mental machinery behind any behaviour, therefore an act of acquiring knowledge through a thinking process that derives in a certain action upon which an individual can be judged or interpreted accordingly.

³⁵ Respect refers (Barrett, 2008) to a “positive attitude”, where a person shows to have positive value about the other and appreciates cultural differences.

strangers from different and unfamiliar cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, the ability to react neutrally to a set of cultural differences, rather than just hastily categorizing them as good or bad. In summary (Prechtel and Davidson-Lund, 2007, INCA Project- The Intercultural Competence Assessment), it is the capability to fully respect the rights of those from other cultures to have different values from one's own and see how these values make sense as part of a way of thinking. Barrett (2008) argues that intercultural competence necessarily requires "a willingness to suspend your own values and behaviours" and emphasizes that this cognitive capability is primarily attitudinal and incorporates here the idea of curiosity expressed in knowledge discovery. Byram had already a similar view defining respect for otherness as the "readiness to suspend belief about the naturalness of one's own culture and to believe in the naturalness of others from other cultures." Respect for otherness means to accept what is different in other people.³⁶ This concept is also illustrated in Bennett's (1993) developmental model of intercultural sensitivity within the acceptance phase (ethno-relativism) where he exposes that the person "accepts and respects" the cultural differences of others. Respect for otherness is respect for the diversity that "others" entail and the sensitivity to the dynamics intrinsic when two or more cultures clash (Reich, 2006). It is the individual's consent that the "other" has a value by him/herself and requires to some extent a certain level of reciprocity and the mutual recognition that the dissimilar other has the right of self-determination and expression.³⁷ Based on the latter, and for the purposes of this research, the notion of respect for otherness is conceptualized by the premise that respect presupposes value and acceptance of others' differences, as well as compliance and consideration of their dignity.

³⁶ Respecting others implies treating them with dignity and certain tact to ensure the others' feelings or vulnerability will not be harmed. It is primarily an attitude derived in a congruent behaviour of acceptance and natural deference.

³⁷ According to a publication of the SEIP-Guadalajara (Spanish Society of Parapsychology Research), respect is one of the pillars of moral and ethical behaviour in any culture and it takes as fact the acceptance of the way of being and thinking of others.

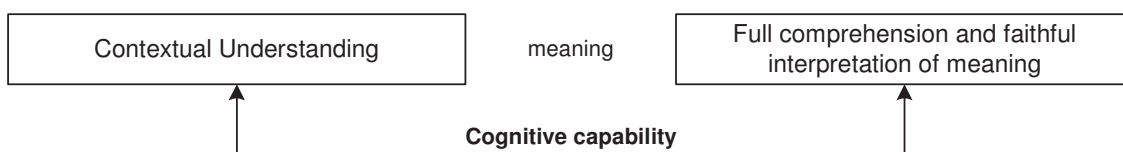


3.4.1.3 Contextual Understanding

The term has been mainly used in the field of language instruction as it normally refers to the ability to understand the real meaning of either written or verbal communication. According to the dictionary of the Royal Academy of the Spanish Language, apart from the capacity of cultural comprehension embedded in the concept, contextual understanding is an actual competence, a cognitive capability and insight to understand and penetrate in the real order of ideas of a subject. However, contextual understanding in the area of cultural competence espouses the concept and definition of *intercultural sensitivity*. It refers to the understanding through acquiring the knowledge of what needs to be done in order to communicate appropriately and effectively with people from other cultures (Gudykunst, 2004). The term is also referred to as knowledge blocks —the capability to become aware of the implicit “ethnocentric lenses” used to evaluate behaviours in an intercultural situation—. In other words, contextual understanding is the ability to accurately reframe interpretation from the other’s cultural standpoint. Ting-Toomey (1999) defines it as the process of in-depth understanding of important intercultural communication concepts that “really make a difference.” Described also as openness to new thinking and tendency to extend understanding into new and unfamiliar fields (WorldWork, n.d.); it suggests the building of shared knowledge; the ability to disclose and obtain substantial information, including the intentions and broader context as to why something is said or requested, in order to help build trust and mutual understanding and to reduce uncertainty (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). This ability brings in the element of synergy —creating new alternatives— sensitivity to the need for a careful and systematic approach to facilitating group and team work to ensure that different cultural perspectives are not suppressed,

but are properly understood and used in the problem-solving process (WorldWork, n.d.).

Contextual understanding implies the coherent integration of information into pre-existing schemes of previously acquired knowledge.³⁸ It presupposes a thorough reflection and assimilation of the cultural context of a given situation. The composition of an intercultural event is determined by many nuances and hidden symbols and messages that should be decoded. Having the capability of contextual understanding is having the ability to decode such information. Contextual understanding requires a comprehensive and tolerant attitude as it represents the genuine gathering of qualities of an idea or concept. As for the meaning adopted to support this study, the definition of contextual understanding will be anchored in the notion as a cognitive capability of faithful interpretation of all symbols and artefacts involved in an intercultural encounter.



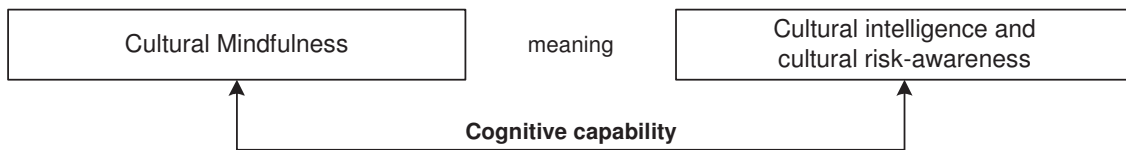
3.4.1.4 Cultural Mindfulness

Cultural mindfulness is another name for *cultural intelligence*; a feeling of constantly being alert to culture and the impact of culture on human behaviour. It is the capability of contextual awareness and sensitivity to key features of the interaction, including individual relations (equality-inequality and distance-closeness), the rights and obligations of people's roles, and the nature of the communicative activity (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). For Ting-Toomey (1999) mindfulness means attending to one's internal assumptions, cognitions, and emotions, and simultaneously attuning to the other's assumptions, cognitions, and emotions. Mindful reflexivity

³⁸ It is said that just few thoughts and ideas are original or unique, meaning that every time new information is generated, most of the times this is done upon previous data or knowledge.

requires us to tune in to our cultural and personal habitual assumptions in viewing and interaction scene. Langer (2000) defines the concept as “a flexible state of mind in which we are actively engaged in the present, noticing new things and sensitive to context.” According to Langer, empirical research has demonstrated that mindfulness enhances competence, memory, creativity and positive affect; at the same time it reduces potential mistakes and the entailed stress. This conceptualization drives us to the idea that cultural mindfulness as a cognitive capability is attached to the notion of cultural intelligence since it is an interpersonal capability of negotiating and intercultural listening. According to Maznevski (2000) cultural mindfulness is the ability to understand the relationship between cultural issues. It implies cognitive awareness—a tendency to interpret a stranger’s behaviour based on one’s own frames of reference and mindfulness—ability to make conscious choices as to what one needs to do in a particular situation in order to communicate effectively (Gudykunst, 2004) and it has also been regarded as the openness to new experiences and ideas and the ability to keep learning. Cultural mindfulness is a mental statement of individuals (Langer, 2000) but the term has been also introduced by other authors into the organizational view with the term collective mindfulness (Weick *et al.* 2001) which originates a debate to discern whether collective mindfulness produces mindful individuals in the organization. Mindfulness is necessarily an intellectual exercise since it is conceived (according to Weick and Langer’s definitions) as what people do with that of which they are aware and with the fact itself of being aware. Hopkins (2002) compares individual mindfulness with risk-awareness as equal.³⁹ Consequently, and for the purpose of our conceptualization, individual mindfulness here is considered the cultural risk-awareness of managers towards possible instability derived from the convergence of different cultures in the work place.

³⁹ It is important to recall that according to Hopkins, the term organizational (collective) mindfulness found in most literature is related to the organization’s physical safety and shall not be confused with individual mindfulness which has been defined as an individual mental statement of cultural awareness.



3.4.2 Emotional abilities

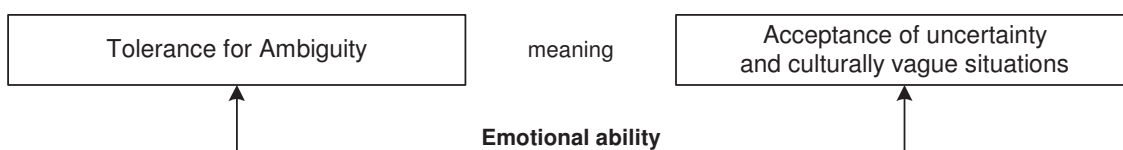
Cunningham *et al.* (2002) conceive and suggest that emotional collapse and consequent depression would reduce readiness for organizational change and the associated participation in the change actions and procedures. This concluding statement was crucial for the consideration of an emotional level as an influencing factor of managers' readiness for change. The emotional (affective) level is expressed by individuals from the human nature perspective and is characterized by short duration and often high intensity. Emotional reactions produce physiological modifications that inevitably have an impact on behaviour and are perceivable by others.⁴⁰ Moreover, the emotional level is concerned mainly with those responses individuals have to certain events or situations, therefore this level is related to instinctive complexity. This dimension deductively implies a certain level of subjectivity since it is exclusive to the individual who experiments it and therefore the type of abilities included in this component should correspond to those variables associated with the individual's inner aspects such as cultural empathy, emotional strength and intrinsic sense of openness and tolerance for the unknown. Thus, for the delimitation of this dimension the following four concepts have been selected to serve as independent variables of the model.

⁴⁰ There is a debate about whether emotional reactions are entities located in the organism (Grossmann, 1967) or just casual imaginative agents (Skinner, 1981). But in any case, the central issue here is the actual expression of emotions as the aspect to be considered an intercultural ability.

3.4.2.1 *Tolerance for Ambiguity*

Tolerance for ambiguity is the *acceptance of uncertainty*. This is an ability to manage ambiguous situations. Prechtel and Davidson-Lund (2007) describe it as the readiness to embrace and work with ambiguity, in other words, the ability to handle stress consequent to ambiguity. Kühlmann and Stahl (1998) refer to the concept as the “tendency to feel comfortable in uncertain, ambiguous and complex situations or at least not to feel impeded.” They argue that accepting uncertainty implies a capability to deal with multiple meanings, vagueness, incompleteness, inconsistencies or contradictions. Tolerance for ambiguity is thus, an emotional ability to manage the complexity of conditions that require several prompts for consideration. Owen and Sweeney (n.d.) cite Budner (1962) who refers to the term as the ability to deal with the insolvability of the circumstance because of the varying, on occasion contradictory cues. They also quote Frenkel-Brunswick (1949) who describes tolerance for ambiguity as the ability to manage doubtful, uncertain and/or inexplicable situations, this is, the ability to avoid black-and-white solutions that lead to premature closure. Webster’s Dictionary defines the term as the capability to satisfactorily categorize or structure insufficient cues; a tendency to keep a fair and objective attitude toward those whose opinions, practices, race, religion, nationality, etc., differ from one’s own. For Norton (1975) accepting uncertainty means having the ability to handle situations whereas intolerance may entail considering uncertainties and unclear meanings as potential sources of discomfort and treat. Essentially, it is the ability to accept ambiguity and lack of clarity and to be able to deal with this constructively. Thompson, Austin and Walters (2010) mean that tolerance for ambiguity is any “situation that cannot be satisfactorily categorized or structured by a person due to insufficient cues.” Furthermore, they refer to Lysonski and Durvasula (1990) who affirm that tolerance for ambiguity is related to job tension among employees, which is an important aspect to consider if the purpose here is to explore abilities that help reduce potential of conflict and increase efficiency. Ambiguity is associated to the lack of context due to the lack of information (McLain, 1993) and it is considered within the frame of emotional-affective dimension since it has been

repeatedly referred to as a reflection of one’s own personality (Ehrman, 1993). Some studies⁴¹ that consider the term a personality trait have demonstrated a positive correlation between tolerance for ambiguity and creativity based on the premise that people who are more tolerant for ambiguity can better deal with uncertainty and therefore optimize creative potential by minimizing obstacles.



3.4.2.2 Cultural Empathy

Cultural empathy can also be described as the *emotional cultural understanding* that implies certain sensitivity towards cultural diversity. Empathy in a general sense is the capacity to recognize or understand another’s state of mind or emotion (Frans de Waal, 2009). According to the INCA Project –Prechtl and Davidson-Lund (2007) empathy, in terms of behaviour, refers to “making explicit and relating, culture-specific perspectives to each other.” It evokes the willingness to take the other’s perspectives. Decety and Ickes (2009) offer a helpful compilation of definitions about the term: empathy means “knowing another person’s internal state, including thoughts and feelings; adopting the posture or matching the neural responses of an observed other; coming to feel as another person feels; intuiting or projecting oneself into another’s situation; imagining how another is thinking and feeling; imagining how one would think and feel in the other’s place; feeling distress at witnessing another person’s suffering; feeling for another person who is suffering empathic concern.

In terms of motivation and knowledge, empathy encloses skills of role-taking de-centring awareness of different perspectives. “The ability to recognize the needs and

⁴¹ Creativity and Tolerance of Ambiguity: An Empirical Study. Franck Zenasni, Maud Besançon and Todd Lubart. Université René Descartes – Paris 5. Laboratoire Cognition et Comportement (FRE 2987).

intentions of interactants and to react to them in a situational appropriate fashion” as defined by Kühlmann and Stahl (1998).⁴²

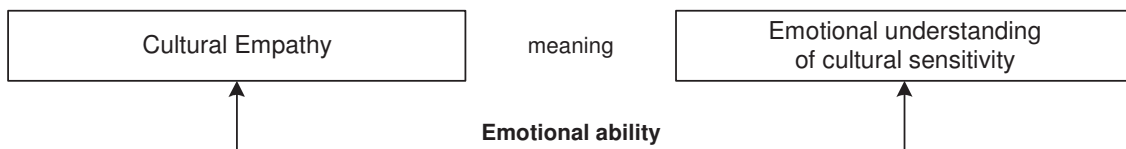
Cultural empathy entails an ability to argue from the position of the other. Tesoriero (2006) defines empathy as the “ability to modify cultural frames and structures when communicating so that general meaning can be obtained;” Tesoriero adds also that the core rationale of empathy lies on the prevailing efficiency and ethical behaviour while working with those who are different, for both fair and just results. “It is achieved if one can imagine or comprehend the perspective of the other and imaginatively participate in it.” Bartel-Radic (2006) refers again from literature about empathy to an intercultural competence inherited as a personality trait, along with open-mindedness and emotional stability (Black 1990, Clarke and Hammer, 1995). Empathy then supposes also interpersonal attentiveness— the tendency to pay focused attention to people’s face sensitivities (e.g., status, competence, and social identity), behavioural expectations and interactional goals, and manage them effectively (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). Bennett’s model of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1993) allocates empathy at the *ethnorelative* stage of adaptation along with pluralism, giving thus the idea of acceptance. Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) asseverate that empathy as the caring, respecting, and understanding of people of dissimilar cultures represents an essential factor of intercultural competence.⁴³ They regard to empathy as a significant skill and ability for successful cultural adaptation; and make an interesting association between empathy, flexibility and tolerance. Lewis (2004) contributes by saying that empathy is “based on accepting differences and building on these in a positive manner; in other words, the ability to “imagine oneself in the position of another person and so to share and understand that person's feelings.” Empathy entails understanding the other person from his or her point of view (Rogers, 1975). Matveev (2004) cites Koester and Olebe

⁴² For Stahl (2002), cultural empathy is a capability to show proper discretion and pick up the counterpart’s contribution sympathetically.

⁴³ Yamazaki (2004) makes a vast reference of this concept as being defined in other forms such as sense of humour (Stoner *et al.*, 1972); courtesy (Harris, 1973); interpersonal respect (Hawes and Kealey, 1979); intercultural sensitivity (Hawes & Kealey, 1979); caring (Kealey, 1989); extracultural openness (Bennett, 1995); and sensitivity to needs of others (Tung, 1998).

(1988) who affirm that cultural empathy is concerned with the ability to behave in the same ways others would by just trying to understand the world as the others do. This definition is also supported by Kim (1986).

It can be assumed from previous definitions that empathy starts with consciousness and acknowledgement of somebody else’s emotions and feelings; it is an intercultural competency that emphasizes both understanding and effective communication. This ability to interpret the emotional signals of others, to listen, and to take the standpoint of others is an intercultural competence that requires special attention.



3.4.2.3 *Polycentrism*

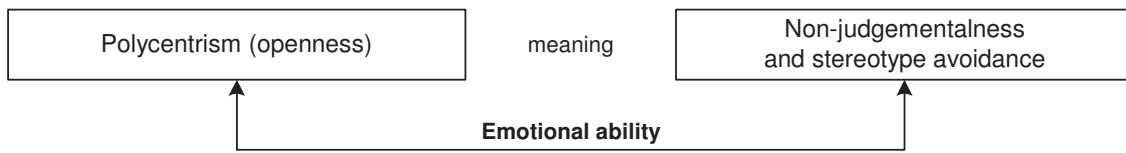
Polycentrism is a term normally found referring to political sciences⁴⁴ to describe the fact or advocacy of the existence of more than one predominant ideological or political center in a system or alliance (Collins English Dictionary). For the purposes of intercultural management, the term means the mental state of being free of prejudice concerning other opinions, attitudes and behavioural patterns, in particular those typical of other cultures (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998). According to the authors, the idea of polycentrism suggests the concept of non-judgementalness. For Stahl (2002) polycentrism is the “ability to express approval of another culture avoiding stereotypes and jokes.” It implies flexibility —flexible judgement— capability to avoid coming to quick and definitive conclusions about new people and situations. It is the ability to

⁴⁴ The polycentric approach of international business starts with the notion that a universal strategy is not possible and international enterprises should accommodate to the local situation, so exactly in the same way international organizations adopt a polycentric approach, managers can also adjust (Harris and Moran, 1987).

modify stereotypes about how people operate (WorldWork, n.d.). It implies “new thinking— synergistic creation— tendency to find creative solutions that can reconcile different opinions and procedures.” In the sense of goal management it is the willingness to accommodate to local ways and priorities. It entails valuing of difference as the “ability to look beyond stereotypes and explore what contrasting people have to offer” (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009). Polycentrism is an “attitude of curiosity, openness and readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own” (Byram, 1997). Hence the term polycentric, within the area of cross-cultural management, has been often defined as the mindset of openness towards different cultures, values, judgments and norms; and it implies the relativization of cultural standards in order to view values from a global perspective.

Polycentrism within the context of intercultural competence is “the ability to interact with people from different cultures in a genuinely constructive manner which is free of negative attitude⁴⁵ (e.g. prejudice, defensiveness, apathy, aggression etc.)” The term has been associated with the idea of openness in the sense that it implies a certain level of flexibility rather than rigidity. Within the context of organizations though it stands for the notion of decentralization as a managerial practice and it is closely associated to the very organizational culture (Griffith and Harvey, 2001). Polycentrism involves also the idea of *cultural coexistence* (Rozkwitalska, 2009) which supposes an attitude that enables managers to perceive cultural differences and ease local adaptation. According to Rozkwitalska (2007) polycentric attitudes are identifiable mindsets in international management and they are a determinant factor of intercultural effectiveness; they imply welcoming of strangers and acceptance avoiding prejudices and stereotyping.

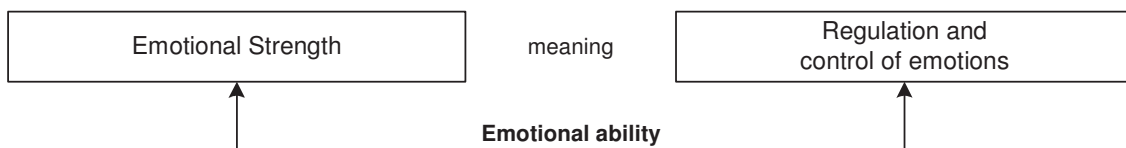
⁴⁵ Source: <http://www.kwintessential.co.uk/articles/info/definition-intercultural-competence.html> on behalf of Anna Schmid from UBS AG, Financial Services Group, Zurich.



3.4.2.4 *Emotional Strength*

Emotional strength is the ability to take control over and manage one’s own individual emotions; according to psychologists it is related to the self-esteem of an individual. For the purposes of this study, the notion of emotional strength is conceptualized as a personality trait sometimes characterized by an enthusiastic stance and a trust-building attitude of an individual, but most importantly, as an ability to face adversity and to overcome emotional discomfort by being able to regulate and control emotional reactions. In Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) emotional strength is defined as the “ability to handle criticism or embarrassment when things go wrong.” It is regarded as the “capability to accept and feel at ease with people who are different.” Emotional strength presupposes resilience and the ability to overcome negative feedback. “It means having an optimistic approach to life and tendency to recover when things are wrong.” Emotional strength is coping with emotional difficulty and implies a capability to deal with change and high levels of pressure even in unfamiliar situations. “Ability to remain calm under pressure and have well-developed means of coping effectively with stress and culture shock.” Emotional strength according to WorldWork entails *spirit of adventure* and readiness to seek out variety and stimulation as if avoiding predictable environments. Emotional strength has been also associated with the ability to deal with uncertainty, especially in managerial decision-making processes where managers are forced to remain calm and at rest in crucial situations of risk in the course of action. Emotionality then can be seen as a predisposition towards action that determines in many ways managers’ performance, so behaviour is conditioned to the

emotional strength as a vital capability to recognize and manage one's own emotions.⁴⁶ Lack of emotional strength oftentimes may result in emotional dissonance if we understand emotional dissonance as the incapacity to comply with the other's emotions (Abraham, 1999); included here are the organizational expectations in compliance with the management objectives. In summary, emotional strength implies restraint, moderation, self-control and discipline in order to manage instability and uneasiness derived from intercultural encounters. Managers dealing with cultural diversity in their organizations are subject to any type of disquiet and need to expand their ability to remain calm and still be able to provide advice and direction despite any critical incident or conflictive situations concerning their own emotions. Thus, the central aspect of this concept focuses on how managers cope with their own emotional states and how they channel such emotions in order to keep a positive attitude towards the solution of everyday intercultural issues.



3.4.3 Behavioural skills

The social dimension is to a certain extent a result of the prior two dimensions (cognitive and emotional) due to the fact that it involves actual behaviour while the first two remain somewhat at the internal level of the individual, in other words, at the attitudinal level; whereas behaviour implies an act, a performed action, something that

⁴⁶ Emotional strength implies that managers are emotionally conscious of what they feel and why; and develop the ability of emotional self-control in order to intervene in their own mindset when facing an intensively emotional situation.

happens for real and for which a person can be liable and be held accountable for.⁴⁷ So the social-behavioural skills are necessarily of a different type. Social skills have to do with communication; the way people express their thoughts and feelings —cognitive and affective constructs; and the way people adjust according to different situations. As can be corroborated in the recapitalized comparison among intercultural competence models [Table 3.4] the social component refers to “doing” as an active experimentation (Barmeyer, 2002) whereas cognitive and emotional refer to “thinking” and “feeling”, respectively. This dimension involves interaction, careful listening, enthusiasm for collaboration, integration, networking engagement, verbal and non-verbal communication abilities, mutual adaptability, checking for understanding, etc.

Attending to the underlying principles of social interaction exposed throughout the discussed models and based on the theoretical conceptualizations of the authors included as references; another four well-defined notions have been selected as independent variables of this socio-behavioural dimension.

3.4.3.1 *Behavioural Flexibility*

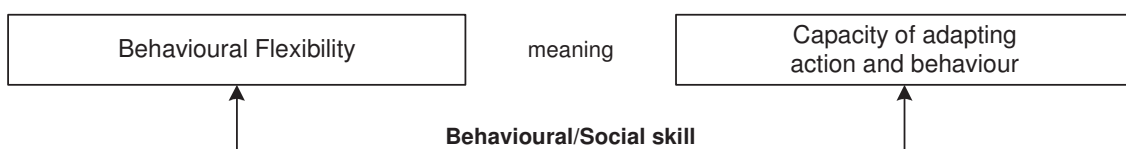
Flexible behaviour means capacity of adaptation; adapting one’s own behaviour to a specific situation. The conceptualization of this term will centre on the notion of “readiness to apply and augment the full range of one’s existing collection of behaviour.” Prechtel and Davidson Lund⁴⁸ (2007) define behavioural flexibility as “having a broad repertoire and the knowledge of one’s repertoire.” It is the “ability to adjust very quickly to changed situations and in those situations to fall back on a broad repertoire of behaviours” (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998). Flexible behaviour entails the capability to adapt easily to a range of different social and cultural situations. “Have a willingness to learn a wider range of behaviour patterns” (WorldWork, n.d.). The ability

⁴⁷ Arendt and Canovan (1998) referred already to social competencies somewhat as the set of abilities that allow individuals to coexist and interact including intercultural aspects.

⁴⁸ Based on the framework of intercultural competence developed by the INCA Project.

to adapt behaviour in new situations, taking account of lessons learned in previous intercultural situations; according to Precht and Davidson Lund, the “capacity to adopt behaviour that minimizes the risk of offending or hurting other’s feelings.”

Thus, the behavioural flexibility of a manager within the organization is determined by his/her level of adaptability and the capacity they have to adjust conduct behaviour according to the context and circumstances. According to March (1999), behavioural flexibility involves “tolerance for non-routine behaviour” and the role of the organizational culture is decisive. Lepine *et al.*, (2000) affirm that the manager’s capability to undertake different situations adds value to the firm and saves costs since possible losses due to the lack of change are reduced. They also state that flexible behaviour is important because it helps the organization to implement change. Gibson and Doty (2005) conducted interesting research on the effects of flexibility on employees’ skills and behaviour and provide evidence of the contribution of behavioural flexibility by quoting Kotter and Heskett (1992) who found that “cultures that emphasize adaptation to changing environmental forces are more likely to be high performing.” For Jandt (2010) behavioural flexibility is a social-communicative competence and literally defines it as “the ability to select an appropriate behaviour in diverse contexts.” Wiemann (1977) for instance has more or less suggested that managers possessing behavioural flexibility show clear skills for the consensus of specific communicative choices when interacting with others. Flexible behaviour presupposes the ability to change the image according to the incoming information relevant for a change but also to keep an image or representation when changes are not relevant and developing behavioural flexibility implies an appropriate activation of previously ignored representations (Chevalier and Blaye, 2008).



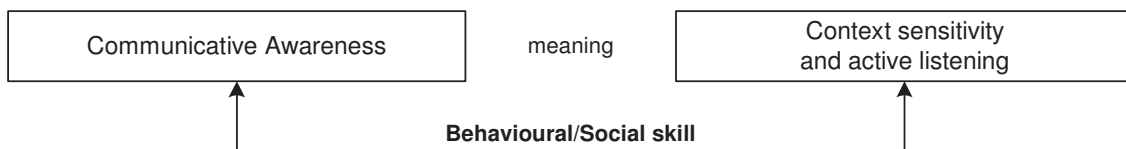
3.4.3.2 *Communicative Awareness*

Communicative awareness —also described as *context sensitivity* has been included as a social competency as it implies actual social interaction. This term was also taken from the WorldWork Ltd definition as one of the core concepts to be measured and as it is actually defined in that framework it is the ability of “appropriately negotiating communication conventions for intercultural communication and coping with different foreign language skills.”⁴⁹ It is also literally regarded as the “willingness to identify and modify existing communicative conventions, levels of foreign language competences and their impact on intercultural communication” (Prechtel and Davidson Lund, 2007 based on INCA Project). Communicative awareness implies, according to the WorldWork definition, an “orientation to active listening along with the tendency to check and clarify, rather than assume understanding of others, by paraphrasing and exploring-hearing the words that they use and the meaning that they attach to them.” An essential element of communicative awareness is transparency and clarity of communication, moreover, “consciousness of the need for a “low-risk” style that minimized the potential for misunderstandings in an international context.” It is the ability to “adapt to how message is delivered rather than just (what is said) to be more clearly understood” (WorldWork, n.d.). Being communicative aware means being alert and having the condition of perceptiveness, harmony and accord with the message; it requires linguistic accommodation (Comfort and Franklin, 2008). Knowing how to listen is one of the most important aspects of this skill. Communicative awareness requires a greater effort than just automatic listening. In the organizational context, this skill requires that the manager be able interpret his/her interlocutors effectively.⁵⁰ Communicative awareness leads to communicative effectiveness and therefore it

⁴⁹ Sensitivity to context has also been studied as an influencing competence regarding social rapport and range of communicative styles. The International Profiler (TIP) dimensions of intercultural competence in Spencer-Oatey, and Franklin (2009: p.186)

⁵⁰ Having the ability of interpretation involves: avoiding distraction, (concentration), non-interrupting attitude, non-judgmentalness and avoiding giving premature answers.

requires active listening, which means to be able to perceive not only verbal communication, but also pay attention to body language, gestures and expressions, intervals, volume, intonation and voice modulation. According to Barrett (2008) communication awareness involves the ability to recognize the different associations of meanings that others give to specific words, moreover, to be able to identify the intentions and diverse linguistic forms in given particular contexts. Barrett regards to the concept as a determinant factor of successful intercultural dialogue and hence the call to include and conceptualize this competency as a medullar variable within the social component. Communicative awareness as a social skill within the organization implies that the manager is ready to deal with forthcoming interacting difficulties when communicating with others.



3.4.3.3 Collaborative Dialogue

Collaborative dialogue, referred to also as the *meta-communicative competency* (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998) was considered a relevant social skill for this study; it differs from communicative awareness in the sense that collaborative dialogue presupposes a more incisive or active behaviour, rather than the “alertive” role of communicative awareness where listening and perception is the central part. In collaborative dialogue the medullar point requires actual intervention ability (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998). This meta-communicative competence⁵¹ is aimed to restore possible disturbances in the communication process. Collaborative dialogue is “the capability to

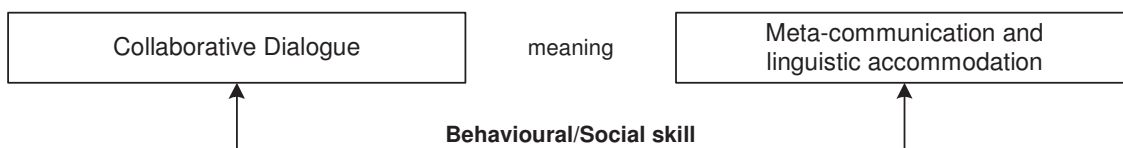
⁵¹ Some of the most relevant elements of collaborative dialogue as a meta-communicative competence may include: expressing thought and feelings in a clear way; assertiveness (as a tool of communication adaptable to the context); and request for feedback.

dissolve ambiguity and misunderstandings providing appropriate feedback.” According to Stahl (2002) it is also the “ability to negotiate rules of play for the conversation and summarize contributions” or as Chen and Starosta (2005) describe it: “the ability to use verbal and non-verbal behaviours that enable interaction effectiveness.” it implies certain level of language learning flexibility and motivation to use alternative languages.

Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) conceptualize communication competencies in a very concise manner which helps understand the essence of this particular social competence referred to by them as message attuning:

“It entails the ability to pick-up meaning from indirect signals such as paralanguage (e.g., intonation, speaking volume and speed, pausing) and non-verbal communication (e.g., eye contact and other elements of body language), and the ability to draw inferences from these indirect signals. These include inferences about the other person’s preferences and intentions and how the other person is feeling (e.g., offended, annoyed, anxious), and how one’s own behaviour is being evaluated.”

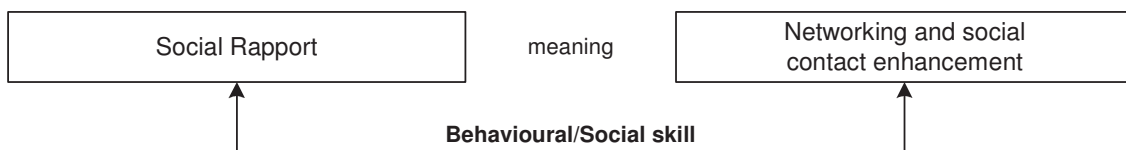
According to the WorldWork Ltd. collaborative dialogue stands for “readiness to draw on key expressions and words from the counterpart’s language in order to build trust and show respect;” and as well as communicative awareness it implies the skill of linguistic accommodation —adaptation to the use of language, clarity of pronunciation, use of colloquial expressions) to the proficiency level of the recipient (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009).



3.4.3.4 *Social Rapport*

The last core competency of the model is social rapport —understood as the ability to achieve a relation of harmony and concordance. It has been defined as “the ability to exhibit warmth and attentiveness when building relationships in a variety of contexts” or “the ability to meet the required criteria for trust by the other’s culture” (WorldWork, n.d.). It entails the idea of sociability, this is, the “tendency to actively establish social contacts and to maintain existing relationships” (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998). According to Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) social rapport is described as the “people’s subjective perception of disharmony, smoothness-turbulence and warmth-antagonism in interpersonal relations” or “the tendency to show interest about the counterpart’s personal background, talkative and smiley” in the view of Stahl (2002). Social rapport is also espoused with the term “networking” since it is based on a particular skill of building relationships. It implies therefore “openness and keenness to initiate contact and build relationships with new people, including those who have different experiences, perceptions, and values to themselves” (WorldWork, n.d.). Moreover, it is not just creating contacts but cultivating them, so the relation becomes actually a plain identification between the counterparts. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin would also define it as “the ability to use a range of strategies flexibly so that they are congruent with people’s rapport sensitivities.” According to Byram (1997) social rapport presupposes “knowledge of social groups and their practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s culture, and of the general process of societal and individual interaction.” The idea of interconnection sustains the concept of networking as the construction of professional social networks and this is sometimes an unusual skill in some cultures. Thus managers from non-networking oriented cultures are banned in this regard unless they develop the necessary skills of harmonization coordination. Miles *et al.* (2009) conclude in a study on social psychology that rapport and coordination are positively correlated. They refer further to the work of Berneiri (1988) who affirms that when behaviour is synchronized or coordinated, judgements of social rapport are enhanced so behaviour coordination is an essential element of this competency.

The notions of social rapport and networking are vast and present in many disciplines of science so it is not quite easy to conceptualize. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, we are based on the provided definitions and on the premise that social rapport within the context of intercultural competence is the ability to build and establish harmonic relationships with people from different cultures and most importantly, to keep and to cultivate them.



As already anticipated throughout this document, the twelve concepts exposed in this section constitute the core competencies and independent variables of this research which are the base for the central hypothesis which stipulates that there is a *significant positive correlation between intercultural competence and manager's readiness for organizational change*.

3.5 Individual multicultural experience

Managers of organizations as individuals, have their own personal multicultural experience in life prior to joining any organization. This aspect was considered relevant as a possible additional factor affecting readiness for change. Personal multicultural experience determines in many ways the predisposition of people to act or react in certain ways towards an intercultural situation. For instance, coming from a bicultural-bilingual family, might determine some behavioural aspects that could have not been developed through intercultural training or simple personality traits of an individual. To what extent then, could multicultural experience serve as an independent condition for readiness, or what is the relation between the multicultural aspect and the cognitive, emotional or social capabilities are some of the associated questions that came to mind

in the mapping of this research. Narvaez and Hill (2008) developed an interesting survey instrument for measuring multicultural experience and some of the questions were taken for this study. Narvaez and Hill contrasted multicultural experience with intercultural development in reference to previous findings on the subject and even though the instrument was originally designed for college students, it went beyond and its application has served as well for other audiences.

For the purposes of this research and conceptualization framework, the term multicultural experience will be defined by its very contents which are: type of family within which the manager was reared; travelling experience throughout his/her life; having close friends from diverse cultural backgrounds; languages spoken; type of education (international oriented); previous working experience with people of other nationalities; intrinsic interest in media and news from other parts of the world; academic exchange experience at university; and living abroad experience other than work related. Multicultural experience is highly valued by organizations and to a certain extent is becoming a fundamental prerequisite towards job market demands. The internationalization of firms is going beyond commercial boundaries and organizations clearly must recruit and hire professionals from diverse cultural backgrounds. A study by Leung *et al.* (2008) published in the *American Psychologist* hypothesized that multicultural experience, meaning the exposure to multiple cultures, can itself increase creativity, which in one way or another, is an intrinsic condition of readiness for change. Moreover, they found a positive correlation between multicultural experience and the cognitive processes associated with learning and integration of new ideas which presupposes the notion of openness and flexibility.

Multicultural experience is then here conceptualized as the personal exposure to multicultural environments or cultures, which the manager had had even before working in the current managing position; meaning any unique individual intercultural experience that might have a clear impact on their behaviour and attitudes.

3.6 Management levels and types of managers

3.6.1 Management level as a significant factor

One of the aspects considered in the conception of this study idea as a possible determinant variable was the relevance of the manager's "management level" and whether or not this could have an impact on the predisposition for change.

Most corporate organizations perform under similar management structures in terms of management levels, basically three: top-level, middle-level and lower-level (also referred to as first level). It is imperative to pay attention to such different *stratums* of management within organizations so that it is possible to get a clearer idea of the role that management, and managers —according to their respective levels— play in the decision making processes which directly impact the capability to change. Bleicher (2004) proposes an interesting model towards corporate development that shows very clearly the three main levels of management. He defines the upper level as Normative Management, which involves the core of the organizational culture as well as the corporate constitution, including goals and policies. The middle level corresponds to Strategic Management, connecting personnel concepts and strategic behavioural implications but as well as other management systems. In this level, goals and policies give place to corporate planning and long-term programmes. Strategic Management is dependent on the corporate mission which emanates from the Normative Level in compliance with the corporate culture. The third level described is Operative Management, which deals more with organizational processes and performance (cooperative behaviours and leadership). This level is concerned with operational programmes. Dyer *et al.* (1990) propose another model called the planning pyramid [Figure 3.3] in which top, middle and lower management levels are illustrated to explain or respond to some crucial questions like, what is to be done, when, where, by whom and how is it to be done. The planning pyramid is a basic conceptualization of management levels since the inception of the field. For Dyer, top management deals with strategic planning, while middle management determines objectives and courses of

action and lower management performs the commanded operation. Simmering (2003) provides a very comprehensive explanation of the different management levels and more specifically, the tasks they perform within each level. For instance, top-level managers, also referred to by Simmering as senior managers or executives, have titles like: CEO, President, Vice president or Corporate Head and normally do not “manage” day-to-day activities. They rather concentrate on corporate strategies and goal setting. At this level, managers are liable for the performance of the whole organization — including the lower levels of management—. Quite often, people in this managerial stage have passed through all levels before so they have a clear understanding of ongoing situations at every stratum. Simmering then perceives middle-level management through that where managers hold titles such as: General Manager, Plan Manager, or Divisional Manager. People at this level communicate in both ascending and descending ways, building an interesting link between the normative and the operational levels.

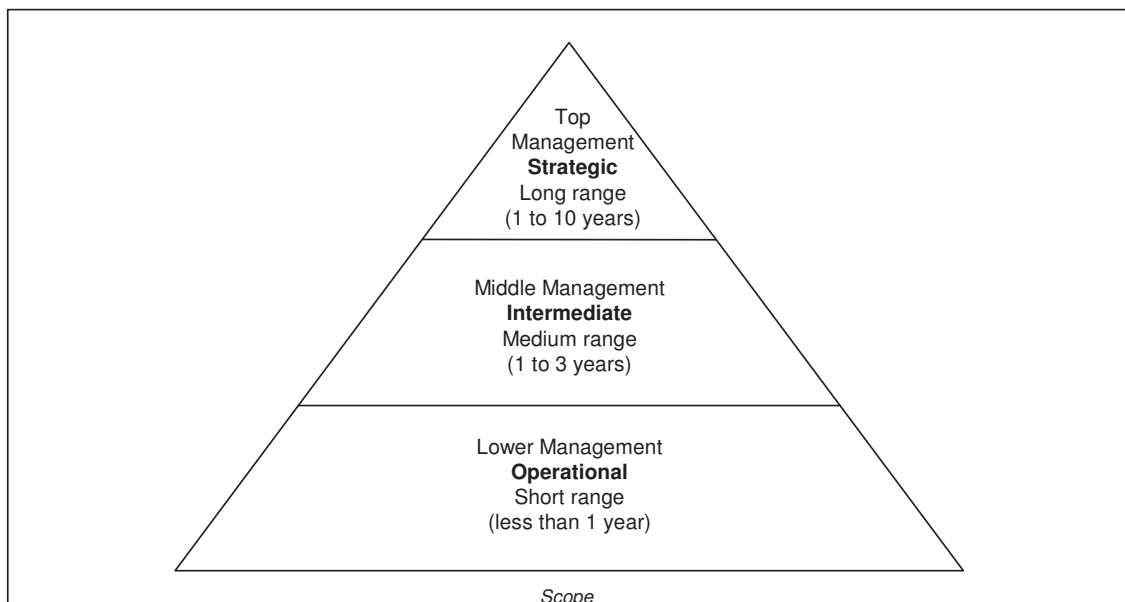


Figure 3.3 The Planning Pyramid

Source: Adapted from Dyer, Daines and Giauque (1990). *The Challenge of Management*. Orlando, Florida. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. p. 129

A summary developed by the Management Study Guide Network⁵² (MSGN) represents the three types of management levels with the following criteria: Top-level is defined as Administrative Level; middle-level is referred to as Executory and low-level is equivalent to Supervisory and Operative. Yet again in this representation we can observe the consistency of explanations when categorising the levels of management into three main blocks. Moreover, the MSGN suggests the following distribution of functions according to each stage: Top-level managers will be occupied with duties such as; design of general policies; budget groundwork; making strategic policies and plans; appointing middle-level managers for specific assignments; coordinating and controlling; as well as the general performance of the whole organization. Managers at this level are a vital factor in the successful implementation of policies and strategies (Rugman *et al.* 1985).

In consequence, middle-level managers will be in that order, concerned with the actual execution of plans according to those matching the goals and policies dictated by top-level managers; participating in training and assisting lower level managers; reading and spreading the policies developed by top management; coordinating all sort of activities related to their respective departments; elaborating formal reports; and evaluating performance.

Subsequently, low-level managers will be engaged in tasks such as: instructing workers about day-to-day activities; helping solve minor conflicts; ensuring discipline; and motivating staff.

3.6.2 Type of manager as a significant factor

Another aspect considered in the conception of this study was the significance of the type of employee (manager) and whether or not this could have an impact in their

⁵² Management Study Guide Network. *Management Levels*.
http://www.managementstudyguide.com/management_levels.htm Accessed February 12th, 2011

readiness for change —type of manager meaning the level of internationalization in terms of either expatriates or non-expatriates.

Multinational organizations have generally three main types of managers:⁵³ Those who work in overseas locations —outside the headquarters facilities— but are originally citizens from that country where the head office is based. These are the so called the Parent-Country Nationals (PCNs) and are managers who have gained certain expertise in the headquarters and who are afterwards sent to occupy managing positions in overseas facilities. PCN managers are nationals of the country of the Multinational Corporation's (MNC) headquarters (Harzing and Van Ruysseveldt, 1999). The reason to send this kind of executive employees to a foreign country may depend on the organization's global strategy; whether it is ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric or geocentric (Heenan and Perlmutter, 1979); it may also depend on the type of assignment or even the individual's intrinsic interest to go abroad. PCN's international assignments presuppose key positions in the overseas subsidiaries often because of the lack of qualified people in the destination place. This strategic approach is common in organizations at the early stages of internationalization and/or in industries which involve a high level of control due to a specific type of product. PCN managers are typically expatriates who manage out-the-country subsidiaries. Another example of this type could be a manager who is appointed to seek new markets abroad (Dowling, Welch and Shuler, 1999). PCN managers are also referred to by some scholars as "Headquarters nationals" (Hodgetts and Luthans, 2003). An example of this would be an American manager working in Mexico for an American company. In this case the American manager is a citizen of the country where the company is headquartered but works in a different country. Daniels and Radebaugh (1989) state that PCN managers in subsidiaries usually have broader functions than managers with same size operation at the headquarters. They argue that this particular situation makes the manager more a generalist than a specialist and therefore with more responsibilities than managers at

⁵³ Literature uses the term *employee* in general, though we will refer here as *manager* due to the nature of this study which concerns primarily employees at the managerial level.

home. They usually spend more hours at work and often have to deal with external relations such as government and bureaucratic institutions of the subsidiary. "Overseas managers must sell themselves, their companies, and their countries in which their firms are headquartered." (Daniels and Radebaugh, 1989).

The second type of manager is the Host-Country National (HCN). These are citizens of the host nation who are recruited by a multinational corporation to fill managing positions. HCNs are nationals of the country of the MNC's subsidiary (Harzing and Van Ruysseveldt, 1999). Having HCN managers offers several advantages to the organization because it reduces language barriers, avoids the adjustment troubles of PCN managers and their families, and eliminates high costs associated with transferring managers from headquarters. According to Dowling (1999), hiring HCN managers is less expensive and gives continuity to the management of foreign subsidiaries. However, promotional opportunities for HCN managers to top level positions are limited and even compensation packages are not equal in most cases. An example of this type would be a Mexican manager working in Mexico for an American company. In this case the Mexican manager is a citizen of the country where the foreign company is hosted.

For Black *et al.* (1999) host-country managers "often become liabilities rather than assets when they do not understand the parent firm, its global strategy, or how other foreign subsidiaries are related to one another." For that reason, argues Black, it might not be convenient to just move a local manager into an expatriate's position to simply reduce costs or to only arrange "localization pressures." HCN managers usually stay longer in a position than PCN managers because they are more attached to their place of origin and also because sometimes Government policies may limit the number of foreign managers within an organization. Mendenhall *et al.* (1987) propose that "the most successful expatriates are those who tend to be non-judgmental and non-evaluative in interpreting the behaviour of host-country nationals, which leads to clearer information exchange and better interpersonal relationships between expatriates and host-country nationals."

The third type of manager is the Third-Country National (TCN). A TCN manager is the one whose citizenship is neither that from the headquarters office, nor from the host country, but from a “third” country. These are usually high qualified individuals who are recruited and hired to cover very sophisticated or specialized positions due to their level of expertise regardless of where they come from. This particular case is quite popular in polycentric strategic approaches where the level of qualification plays a relevant role over the advantages offered by hiring a HCN manager. It is important to remark that TCN managers and PCN managers have some common aspects that differ from HCN managers. The first two might share the fact of being expatriates and therefore all that this implies in terms of cultural adaptation. It is often overlooked that HCN managers and TCN managers are treated the same way as PCN managers when they clearly have a completely different nature in terms of cultural background. An example of this would be a German manager working in Mexico for an American company. In this case the German manager is not a citizen from either the country where the company is from nor where the company is being hosted.

TCN managers are more commonly working in organizations that have moved ahead from the very the initial phases of internationalization and are now in more advanced phases. (Hodgetts and Luthans, 2003). According to Thomas (2008) when international managers prevail in top managerial jobs in the early phases of internationalization, TCN managers predominate disseminated among nations. Konopaske and Ivancevich (2004) presume some evidence that organizations are providing TCN managers with more opportunities to take global assignments, the latter following the global strategies and relate to this trend the increased use of TCN managers who more and more are being placed in many strategic positions.

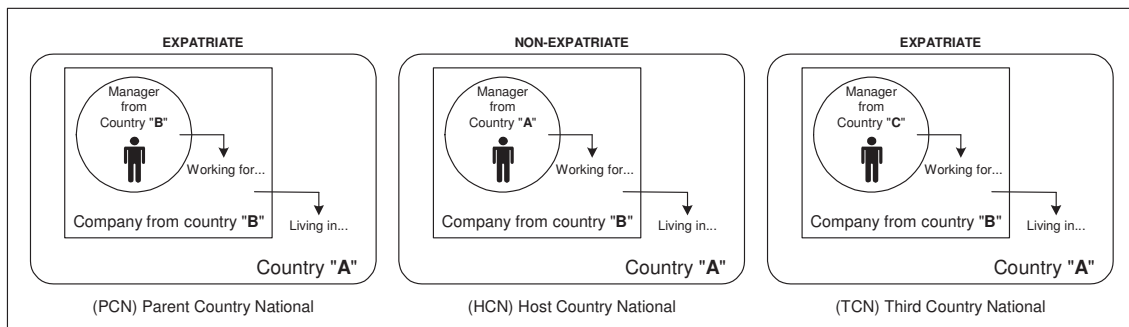


Figure 3.4 Types of managers- classic definition

For the purpose of this study, especially regarding the measurement of this variable, two more types of employees (managers) have been inserted in the model: LCN (Local-Country-National) and FCN (Foreign-Country National). These two types do not appear in the literature as such, but the researcher considered them relevant in order to establish a wider parameter. These new types differ from the others in the following way: a FCN manager is essentially an expatriate, a manager who works in a country different from his own but not necessarily is a PCN manager working for a company whose headquarters are based in his/her country of origin; moreover, a FCN manager is not necessarily a TCN manager either since the position can be held pretty much everywhere regardless of where the headquarters are located. In a broad sense, a FCN would be just any manager working for a company in a different country where the origin of the company does not play a role. A LCN (Local-Country National) is a manager who works in his/her own country and for a local company, essentially a non-expatriate, this supposes an inexistent level of internationalization or at least so low that does not represent major relevance beyond the possible eventual contacts with foreign people. Normally a LCN manager has no multicultural experience in the work environment and exposure to international encounters is minor.

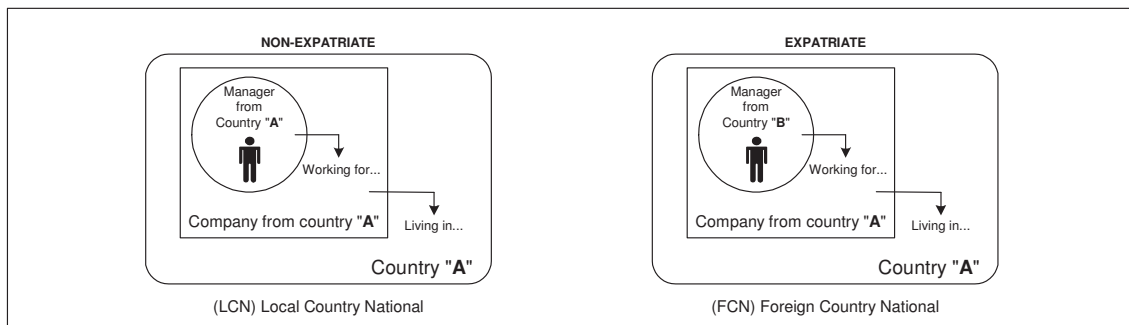


Figure 3.5 Types of managers- complementary conceptualization

Consequently there are in total five types of managers defined for this model and they can be classified into two basic categories as mentioned previously: expatriates and non-expatriates [Figure 3.6]. Expatriate managers would be FCNs, PCNs and TCNs due to their implicit international exposure, and non-expatriates would be LCNs and HCNs since they are based in their country of origin and do not have much international exposure abroad. According to Harzing (2004) the term *expatriation* is frequently used to explain the process of international transfer of managers, but an expatriate could also be an immigrant working for a firm in a different country without an actual transfer process. As a result of this classification there is a five-levelled configuration for the types of managers founded on their international exposure and this will be used as the base for the measurement of this concept as one of the extra variables included along with level of management and intercultural training exposure.

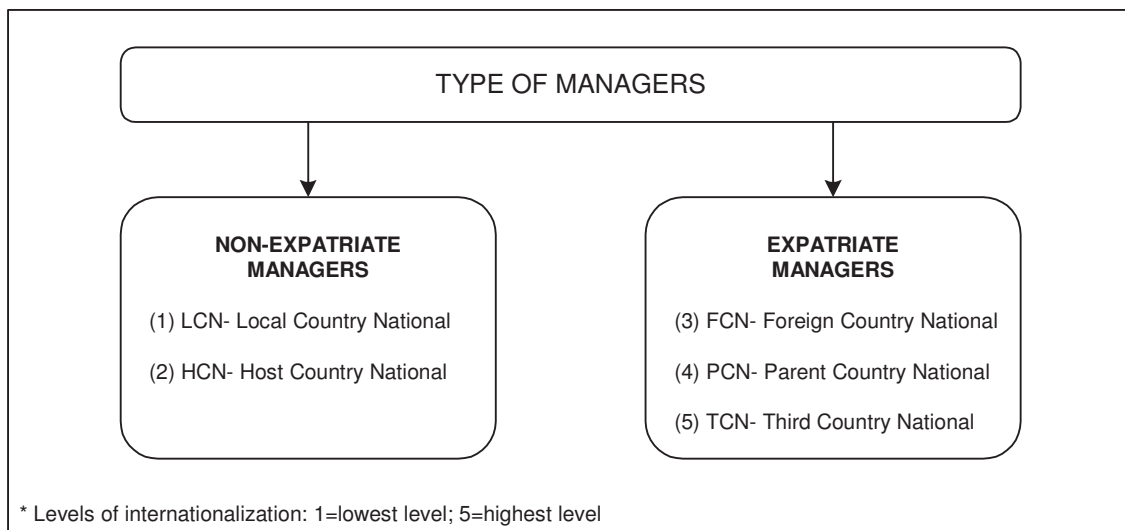


Figure 3.6 Type of managers based on level of internationalization

3.7 Intercultural training

The insertion of intercultural training as a factor of managers’ readiness for organizational change was another preconceived idea since the beginning of this project, although it was originally planned as a central focus of study, it passed to a second place after the classification and establishment of the twelve core variables defined upon the recurrent three-tiered construct (cognitive, emotional, social). However, training has been determined as an extra independent variable to be measured against the dependent variable in order to verify whether or not it has a direct effect on change readiness. Therefore, a conceptualization of the term is necessary. There are many definitions of intercultural training depending on the field; teachers for instance would have a different interpretation than consultants; and or researchers or diplomats may come up with different explanations of the concept. But if we rely in some of the broad descriptions of the notion we could cite Hofstede (2009) for instance who defined the purpose of intercultural training as “how to reach well functioning operational cultures when differences in basic values exist.” Earley (1987) would contribute by saying that “a major objective of intercultural training is to help people cope with unexpected events in a new culture.” The latter can be recapped with a definition provided by Pusch

et al. cited by Hoff (2008) “the purpose of a cross-cultural training program is to provide *functional awareness* of the cultural dynamic present in intercultural relations and assist trainees in becoming more effective in cross-cultural situations.”

For Dyer (1986) training programmes are “important change activities” for both the organization and the managers as change agents. According to him, training refers to any sort of education programme tailored for the improvement of performance of the people involved in any organization. Training is conducive to development and development supposes overcoming the process of change, so training helps change if carried out properly by the trainer and if contents are adapted according to the capabilities of the trainee. All programmes imply the transfer of knowledge and newly acquired knowledge necessarily modifies the manager’s intellectual competencies to a certain extent. Organizations providing training for managers should guarantee the insertion of new activities so that the trainee can apply and practice the newly learned skills. Thus managers who undergo any type of intercultural training *should* be intellectually better equipped, adapted and ready for change.⁵⁴

Intercultural training varies in method and contents according to the different approaches adopted by trainers and consultants, but the basic objective remains to the preparation of the individual to act and perform efficiently in diverse intercultural contexts. Graf and Mertesacker (2009) developed an interesting scheme that shows a selected number of intercultural competencies taken from the extensive literature with the purpose of testing relevance for training. The areas included in this diagrammatic description [Figure 3.7] show the main competencies that an intercultural training program would aim to develop in their attendees in order to build enough proficiency to minimize the risk of conflict and thus increase efficiency and productivity in any given multicultural environment. The illustration also shows the type of competency in terms of the so alluded dimensions.

⁵⁴ The hypothesis of intercultural training exposure as an influencing factor of readiness for change departs from this assumption and it is included in the model as an additional variable.

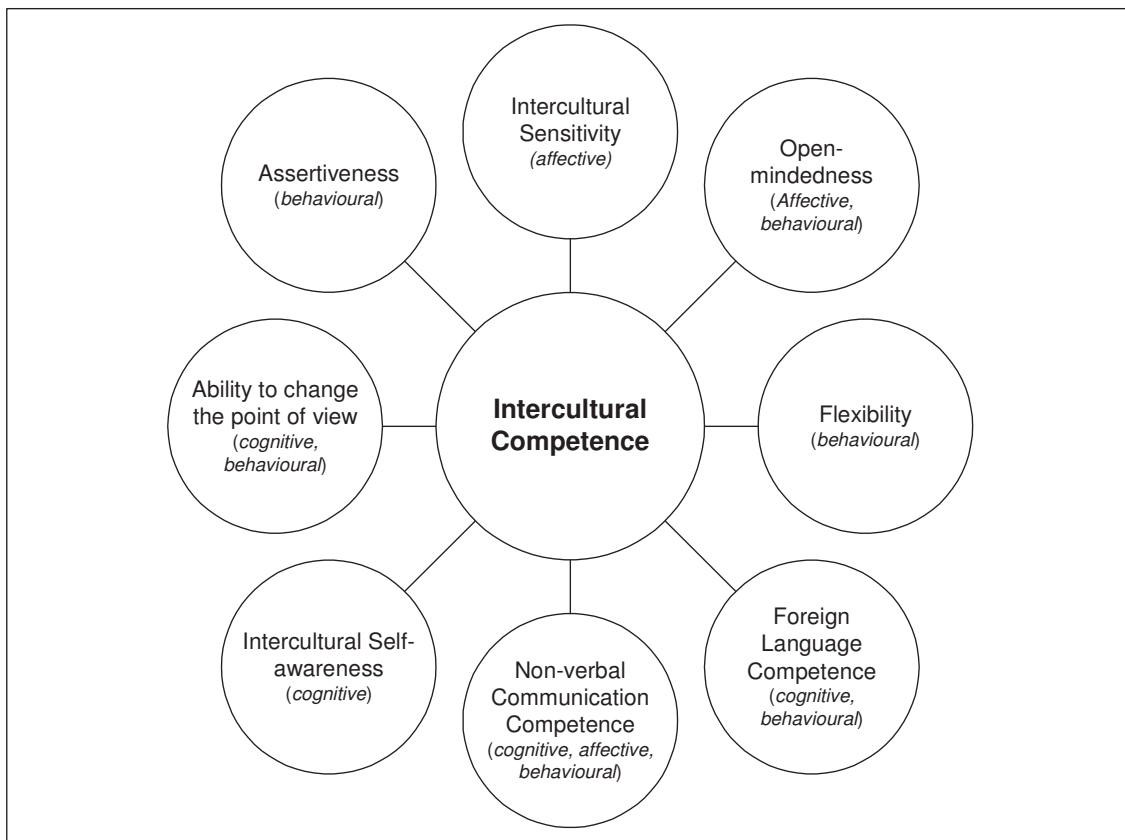


Figure 3.7 Relevant IC-Dimensions for intercultural training

Source: Graf and Mertesacker (2009). "Intercultural training: six measures assessing training needs." *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Vol. 33 Num. 6. p. 542

Mumford Fowler (2006) also makes an interesting distinction between diversity training and intercultural training and states that trainers of intercultural competence provide basically four components which are: culture, behaviour, perception and communication. Mumford Fowler talks about intercultural training being directly connected with the organization goals and cites several authors in her paper. Brislin and Yoshida (1994) for instance, who say that the objectives of intercultural training are “to prepare people for more effective interpersonal relations when they interact with individuals from cultures other than their own”; and Triandis (1986) who states that intercultural competence training is associated with “increasing the ability to communicate with culturally diverse people and monitoring and adjusting behaviour to deal effectively with those of different cultures.” According to Earley and Peterson (2004) intercultural training has recently become equivalent to understanding and

becoming aware of different cultural values as intended in classical cultural models of the most prominent authors such as Hofstede just to mention the most cited one. It is necessary though to go beyond that point and consider the real challenge of intercultural training as a crucial discipline tailored for corporate managers who seek not only to acquire, solidly based intercultural knowledge, but also to develop the necessary skills to face the challenges of an increasing demand of intercultural competence.

3.7.1 Academic intercultural training

Universities are privileged places for intercultural encounters in today's world due to the vast and constant increase of academic mobility across nations. Teaching intercultural competence—or academic intercultural training as referred to in this study—has been well-integrated as part of the curricula of higher education institutions especially during the last decade. International exchange programs such as *Erasmus* in Europe and *Erasmus Mundus* as well as other consortiums around the world are nowadays available to students of almost all disciplines. These international alliances for faculty and student mobility have flourished as a response to that need of internationalization of education. To mention the most important ones, associations such as NAFSA (National Association of Foreign Student Advisers) founded in 1948 to promote the development of intercultural competence of North American students; or the EAIE (European Association for International Education) which is the equivalent for European countries; and the APAIE (Asia-Pacific Association for International Education) as the Asian counterpart. All of them are international non-profit organizations devoted to enhancing mobility and academic exchange. These associations have, in many ways become the precursors of intercultural experience in the academic world ever since their creation. It is not surprising then that this interaction among institutions from all over the world results in the design of intercultural instruction in the classrooms. Yet, the standardization of such programs has spread through the exchange of information and both students and faculty can benefit from that. Universities around the world are including courses of intercultural management,

cross-cultural communication and multicultural competence, but of course the question about quality and approach of the subject has become an essential part of the discussions held in such international forums. What to teach and how to teach it is the matter of the debate of many scholars dedicated to the topic of intercultural training. Milhouse (1996) affirms that in order to generate the best possible effective models of academic intercultural training, the main learning goals and methods should be founded in steady research. She literally predicts: “the biggest challenges trainers will face will be how to address the needs of learners, which will be as much a factor in success of programs as are diverse learning styles.” Gudykunst and Hammer (1984) also examine the subject of intercultural competence instruction and propose some phases to bear in mind within the learning process: the first phase regards a psychological frame, most probably related to the mental-cognitive capabilities; the second phase deals with the actual interaction of the individuals with people from different cultures, which presupposes real exposure to intercultural interaction; and the third phase corresponds to the context-specific training in a different country. On the other hand, according to Storti (2009) there are four fundamentals of an intercultural training program to consider: first, to define the term culture; second, to recognize the core values and assumptions of the cultures of participants; third, to identify the core values and assumptions of the *target* culture; and fourth, to identify the essential differences amongst the cultures of the participants comparing their own culture with one another’s.

The reality is that intercultural competence requires from both the trainer and the trainee, a constructive valorization towards communication amongst cultures and towards the proper understanding of the differences as something valuable and important for individuals and organizations. Moreover, regardless of whether readiness for change is a personality trait or a learned skill, it is essential to reflect how intercultural training at school can contribute to the configuration of a change readiness identity and behaviour. The purpose of this section then is —rather than to discuss or propose new content design for intercultural competence courses— to address the issue of academic instruction and its effects the students as future managers of international corporations. To what extent the intercultural instruction provided at university can

actually contribute to the readiness for change is the subject matter. Is there a correlation between academic intercultural training and readiness for change? This is part of the assumption that led to the additional variable concerning the impact of training. It is not only academic training, but also professional training that is considered part of the integrative variable.

3.7.2 Professional intercultural training

Just as higher education institutions, organizations are also privileged places for intercultural exposure, but in this case related to international dialogue, specifically for business negotiations. As a result of an increasing demand, the use of intercultural training has experienced exponential growth during the past few years as organizations expand for markets around the world opening to new products and services. Consulting companies specialized in intercultural competence training have rapidly emerged offering a range of different programs in terms of contents and methodology and some of them have worked closely with researchers in diverse disciplines such as management, psychology, sociology and anthropology, in the search for support for theoretical foundation and solid bases. Professional intercultural trainers defend the argument that professional intercultural training is fundamental to succeed in the international arena and intercultural competence is an ability which can be learned. Accordingly, the main objective of a professional intercultural training program should be firstly, to define the very purpose of the training, and then specific needs of the competencies required by the learner. Some items presented in a study conducted by Klinge *et al.* (2009) provide insight on the configuration of learning intercultural competence under the following concepts: Acceptance of the program design and its practical relevance; learning process- cognitive, motivational and emotional aspects as well as the associated level of difficulty; learning success through intercultural awareness and the actual improvement of intercultural competence.

Earley and Peterson (2004) remark the fact that some programs rely too much on theoretical and analogical learning; in other words pure cognitive information about

other cultures, and tend to underestimate the incorporation of the skills associated with such type of knowledge. Some statistics show that during the past thirty years the use of professional intercultural trainers has increased from 33% to 69% and it continues to gain popularity not only among multinational corporations but also among governments and higher educational institutions.⁵⁵ Earley and Peterson illustrate [Figure 3.8] the contrast between the needs of the cultural intelligence facet and the demands of intercultural setting.

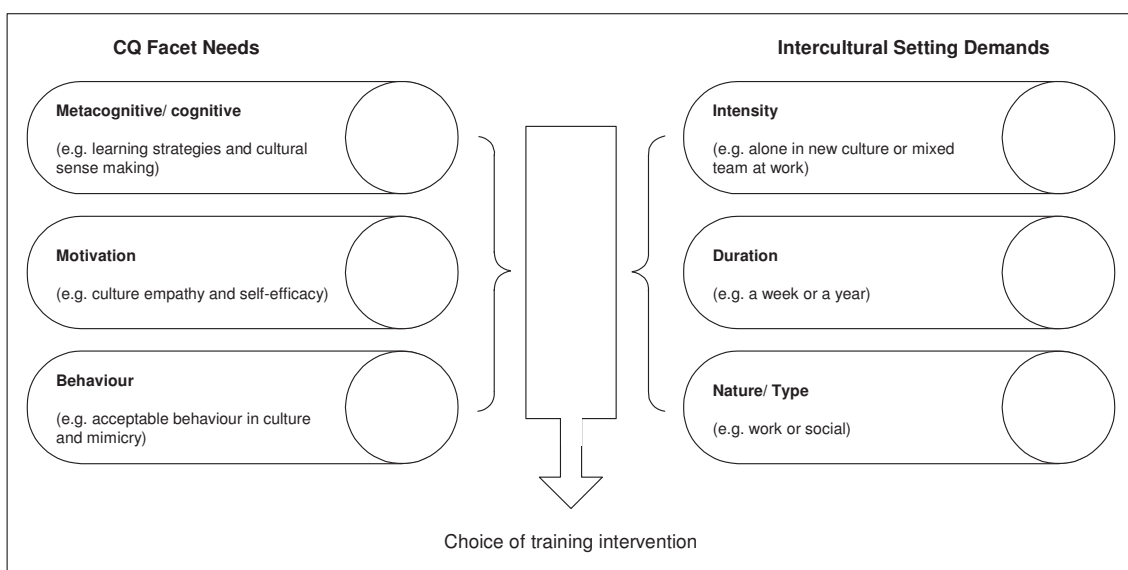


Figure 3.8 Designing an intercultural training

Source: Adapted from Earley and Peterson (2004). "The Elusive Cultural Chameleon: Cultural Intelligence as a New Approach to Intercultural Training for the Global Manager." *Academy of Management Learning and Education*. Vol. 3 Num. 1 pp. 100–115.

Professional intercultural training has been traditionally focused on minimizing risk of conflict and therefore potential of failure, and at the same time, on maximizing competitive advantage to obtain as much profit as possible from an international negotiation. But again here, the issue is to detect whether professional (meaning non-academic) intercultural training has direct impact on the capability of a manager to embrace change readiness. Professional intercultural training, along with academic

⁵⁵ <http://blogicebergconsulting.com/2011/07/24/5-argumentos-a-favor-de-la-formacion-intercultural/>
 Accessed on August 15th 2011.

intercultural training will constitute then a variable called intercultural training exposure which will be included in the research model for pertinent analysis.

3.7.3 Intercultural training and readiness for organizational change

Traditionally, intercultural training is engaged with increasing the *intercultural competence* of individuals to efficiently work in culturally diverse environments, and based on that definition training programs (whether in the form of academic courses, conferences, corporate seminars or workshops, etc.) are designed and customized according to the requirements of the attendee. The majority of programs then are mainly focused on aspects such as general cultural awareness, ethno-culture specific information, analysis of values and norms, do's and don'ts in certain cultures, and so on, perhaps the most sophisticated venture to explore emotional attachments, true understanding, contextual meaning sensitivity and what not. But the truth is that intercultural training programs never or almost never explicitly address the issue of readiness for change as a crucial outcome of the training. In Mumford (2006) it is possible to see the emphasis given to the purposes of intercultural training from the organizational perspective, meaning that it is perfectly evident that intercultural training is also “designed to meet organizational objectives” since there is a real interest in improving business efficiency which in the end is obviously linked with profitability. It is known that providing managers with intercultural training helps reduce the anxiety, apprehension and concern associated with the stress as part of the challenges to integrate well into a culturally dissimilar society. But to what extent intercultural training is actually related to the readiness for change of a corporate manager is a question that arose as part of the research inquiries since the inception of this study. According to Woodman and Dewett (2004) individual change is created by the organization's socialization process in great measure by the training programs used in the organization. Woodman and Dewett claim that training influences managers' behaviour and the resulting alterations —defined as individual change, respond to four main sources: socialization, training, managerial behaviour and organizational change

programmes. Figure 3.9 shows an appealing model of the organizational influences on individual change where each of the four sources of individual change are intersected by dimensions such as changeability, depth and time and result, interestingly enough in the three conceptualized dimensions of intercultural competence such as cognitive, affective and behavioural (conative). One reasonable interpretation of this linkage is that training has an actual effect on the three components though it is not possible to know in what magnitude.

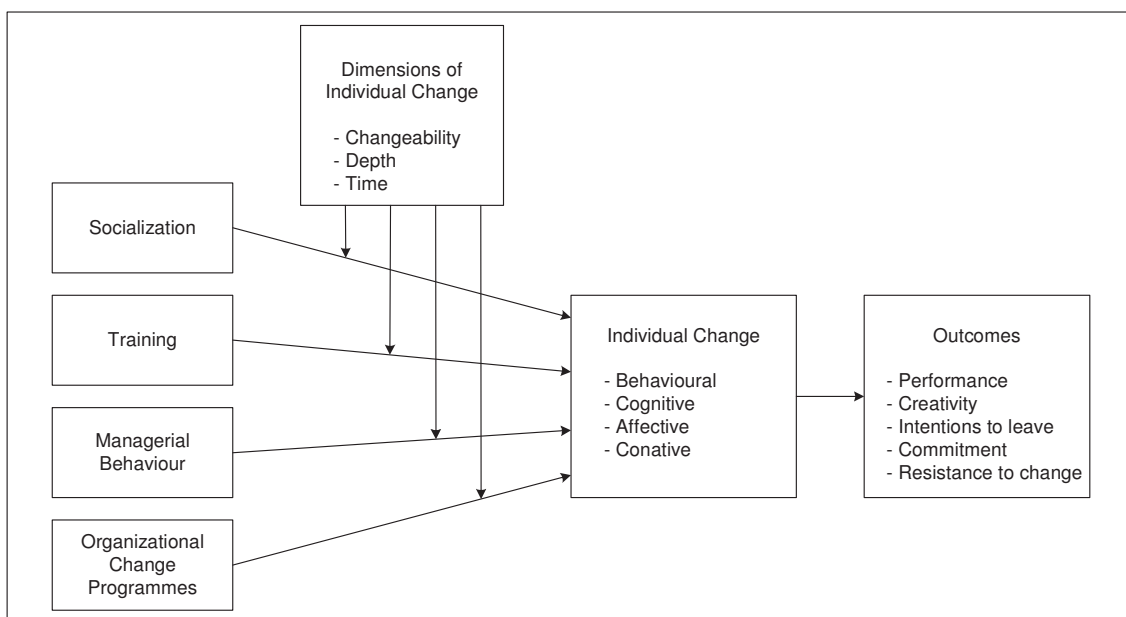


Figure 3.9 Organizational influences on individual change

Source: Woodman and Dewett (2004). "Organizationally Relevant Journeys in Individual Change." in Van de Ven and Poole. *Handbook of Organizational Change and Innovation*. New York. Oxford University Press.

Through the assortment of competencies into the dimensions of our research model, it is intended to at least provide an overview of what would be the effects of intercultural training on each of the factorial components, although it is imperative to mention that this is not the main objective. According to the above model training impacts individual change and partially produces certain desired outcomes as actual benefits from the training; such outcomes are related to performance, creativity, commitment, intentions to leave and resistance to change.

3.8 Hypotheses formulation

Based on the conceptualization framework presented in this chapter, it was considered pertinent to disclose at this point the actual hypotheses of this study attending to the following assumptions of managers' intercultural behaviour towards their individual readiness for change in the organization.

The cognitive dimension of intercultural competence would encompass those capabilities associated with acquiring knowledge and obtain conscious understanding of a given cultural context. According to the conceptualizations formulated in this regard, the competencies which best correspond to those definitions and using the criteria supported by the observed models would be: *knowledge discovery* in the sense of a cognitive orientation of the manager in a genuine interest of learning and understanding cultural differences; *respect for otherness*, meaning the display of respect towards individuals from different cultural backgrounds; *contextual understanding*, as the intercultural sensitivity shown by the manager in relation with certain willingness to comprehend and value the complexity of cultural understanding; and *cultural mindfulness*, meaning the “cultural intelligence” held by a manager based on rational and objective assumptions about dissimilar others. Subsequently the first four-set of hypotheses are:

- Hypothesis 1:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “knowledge discovery” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 2:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “respect for otherness” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 3:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “contextual understanding” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 4:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “cultural mindfulness” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

The emotional dimension of intercultural competence for the purposes of this research comprises the next lot of competencies denominated emotional abilities:

tolerance for ambiguity, as the manager's natural acceptance of uncertainty derived from intercultural encounters and capacity to handle the associated stress; *cultural empathy* in the sense of that emotional understanding and the ability to perceive others' feelings and be able to feel emotionally involved and show honest concern about a given situation; *polycentrism*, also referred to as openness and the ability to be non-judgemental with people from other cultures even if it might imply certain discomfort or anxiety; and *emotional strength*, meaning the capacity to regulate emotions derived from uneasy situations and be able to recognize and overcome critical incidents involving others' susceptibilities. Therefore, in accordance to these interpretations, the next group of hypotheses is conformed as follows:

- Hypothesis 5:** *There is a significant positive correlation between "tolerance of ambiguity" and managers' readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 6:** *There is a significant positive correlation between "cultural empathy" and managers' readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 7:** *There is a significant positive correlation between "polycentrism" and managers' readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 8:** *There is a significant positive correlation between "emotional strength" and managers' readiness for organizational change*

The social dimension as established throughout the conceptual framework is concerned mainly with behaviour and communication skills. The selected competencies to be included in this component respond to: *behavioural flexibility*, which refers to that capacity of the manager to adapt behaviour and adjust conduct according to the situation and eventual level of tension in an interrelation; *communicative awareness*, as the skill of context-acquiring sensitivity, including foreign language notions and the ability to recognize different communication standards, styles, as well as being able to pick up meaning resulting from vague messages or verbal statements; *collaborative dialogue*, in reference to the so called meta-communicative competency (Kühlmann and Stahl, 1998) and the ability to contribute and pursue positive outcome from a conversation, also in the sense of helping the communication process by reinforcing crucial statements and

seeking correct interpretation from both sides; and finally *social rapport*, or which is also indicated by the networking skills of the manager to build friendly relationships in accordance to people's different sensitivities and bearing in mind the cultural background of the counterpart at all times. Consequently, the four-set formulated hypotheses for the social construct are listed as:

- Hypothesis 9:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “behavioural flexibility” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 10:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “communicative awareness” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 11:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “collaborative dialogue” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*
- Hypothesis 12:** *There is a significant positive correlation between “social rapport” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

Complementarily, and based on the original conception of this study, four additional hypotheses have been considered in the search for other factors related to intercultural exposure which might have a direct effect on managers’ readiness for organizational change. The first additional variable is called *multicultural experience*, which is formulated upon the manager’s personal experience within multicultural environments both at work and outside work, for instance, family background (monocultural, bicultural, etc.) and other aspects such as traveling abroad, time spent in other countries, having close friends from diverse cultural backgrounds as explained in the conceptual framework. The second additional variable is *type of manager* based on the level of *internationalization* of the manager within the organization which can be of several types: local-country national, host-country national, foreign-country national, parent-country national or third-country national as described in section 3.6 of this chapter. The third variable corresponds to the *level of management* meaning hierarchy and which can be top-level manager, a middle-level manager or a first-level manager. And the third variable on intercultural training exposure, this is, the amount of direct intercultural instruction provided either by educational background or professional

specialized training. The fourth variable concerns *intercultural training exposure* and it basically refers to the amount of intercultural training (academic or professional) that the manager has received throughout the years. This variable is endorsed by the number of hours in both university and corporate, depending on the case; and its measurement criteria are addressed in the methodology chapter. As an outcome the following four concrete hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 13: *There is a significant positive correlation between “multicultural experience” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

Hypothesis 14: *There is a significant positive correlation between the “level of management” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

Hypothesis 15: *There is a significant positive correlation between the “type of manager” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

Hypothesis 16: *There is a significant positive correlation between “intercultural training” and managers’ readiness for organizational change*

3.9 Research model proposition

In consistence with the hypotheses formulation and the nature of this research, the resulting model will be primarily composed of twelve core variables assorted into three main pre-defined dimensions —exclusively related to the measurement of intercultural competence— and each of them equivalent to a specific competency previously defined and conceptualized in the respective sections; and additionally, four variables related to other factors related to intercultural exposure. Both sets of variables conform thus the complete research model which is graphically represented in the following figure.

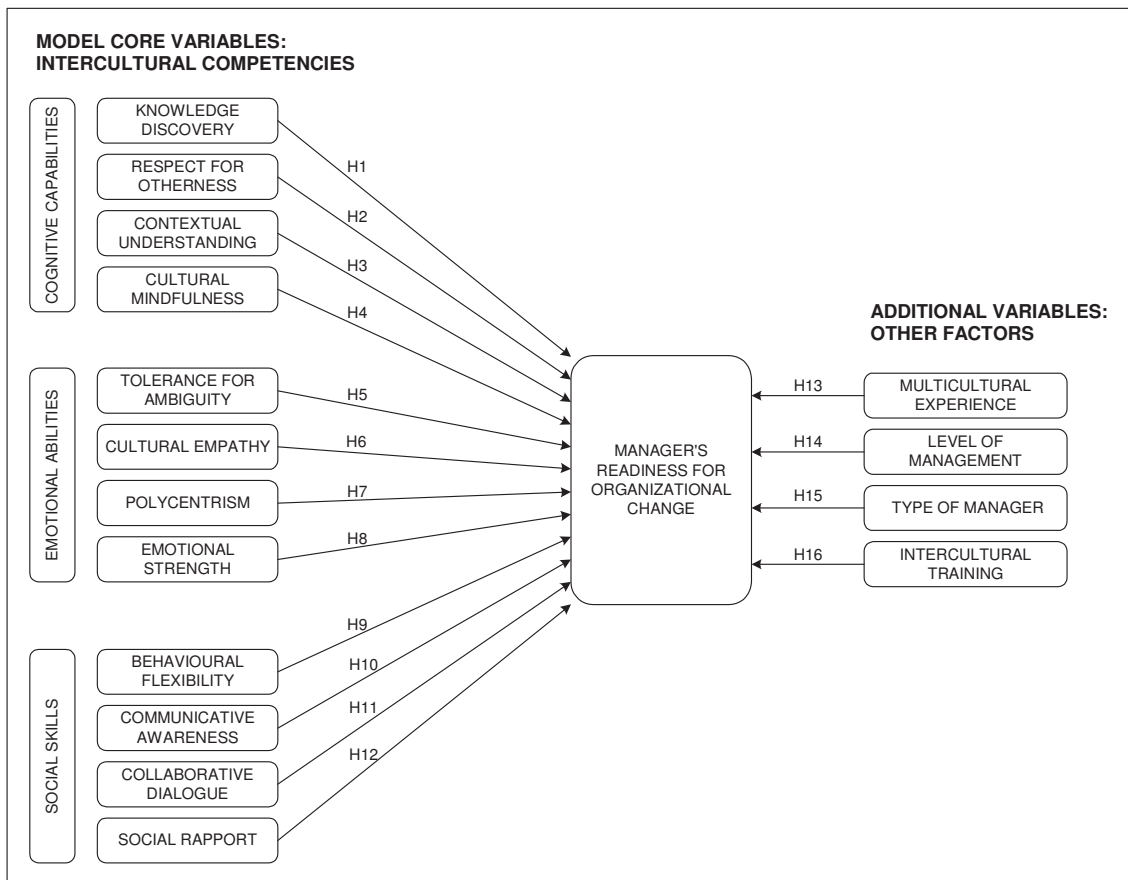


Figure 3.10 Proposed research model

3.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has outlined the conceptual framework in preparation for the empirical research. The first section provides a brief introduction of the chapter and its main purpose. Subsequent sections addressed the core intercultural competences as well as additional considered variables in order to build sound foundation over the concepts, some of them already supported in the literature review. Thus a section on the assessment of intercultural competence was considered imperative in order to explore and find the scientific foundation of most of the concepts included in this study. The mechanisms of measurement and the final shaping of the main terms were aimed to be exposed. Four well-known measurement tools were used to illustrate this part. Another section consisted of the conceptualization of the actual dimensions deeply described

through the theoretical models, including the basis and rationale of the assortment of twelve selected competencies within the components. Those twelve core competencies were also reinforced in this chapter using definitions found in a systematic review. Then, another section was dedicated to the conceptualization of manager's multicultural experience as an influential factor followed by a section concerned with management levels and types of manager as to be considered possible relevant factors for the focus of this study. Also an exclusive section was planned to address the concept of intercultural training exposure both academic and professional as part of a four-set of additional variables along with type of manager, level of management and manager's multicultural experience. After the conceptualization progression the hypotheses formulation was presented in this chapter in order to structure and sort all variables and components and express them in actual individual hypotheses. Finally, a diagrammatical representation of the whole research model was proposed in order to visualize the complete idea and proceed with the explanation of methodology and carry out the data collection for analysis in accordance to the purpose of the present study.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

4 Research Methodology

All research is a practical activity requiring the exercise of judgement in context; it is not a matter of simply following methodological rules.

Hammersley and Atkinson

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is intended to provide sound justification of the selected method as the appropriate approach according to the research idea; attending furthermore, to the nature of the research question and the specific characteristics of the study. The chapter is divided into several sections to explain the logic adopted: firstly it aims to summarize the differences between the two main types of research approaches: quantitative versus qualitative and give foundation towards the selection of the right method for this project. The rationale for a quantitative approach is then provided including the design of the research; the justification of the measurement instrument; the design of the questionnaire as the selected tool and its consequent validity and reliability. Another aspect considered in this chapter is designated to the target population followed by a section on sample configuration where the sample size, as well as a brief explanation between convenience sampling and accidental sampling, is provided. Then data collection and its related process are also addressed particularly concerning classification and codification tactics. It is also intended to offer hereby a definition of the variables of the research model considering aspects such as measurement parameters and variance analysis. The following pages also deal with the statistical software packages selected for this study and a pertinent justification of those. Additionally it refers to factor analysis which tackles the issue of variable consistency and reliability assessment. And finally, there is a section about the reliability of the study including aspects such as ethical considerations and researcher's credibility.

4.2 Approaches to scientific research

Broadly speaking, scientific research is sustained by three main approaches on how it is conducted depending on the nature of the research and the research question itself. Those three general approaches are qualitative, quantitative and a mixture of both (Hernández *et al.*, 2003). Qualitative research presupposes an inductive perspective that implies initial immersion in the field; contextual interpretation; certain level of flexibility; and formulating of questions tailored to the data collection. On the other hand, in quantitative research, the perspective is rather deductive and involves surveys; experimentation; variable patterns; questions and hypotheses; and the respective data collection. The combination of the two methods is called mixed. Both methods of research use similar stages (Grinnell, 1997): (1) they carry out observation and evaluation of events or phenomenon; (2) they create assumptions or ideas as a consequence of the observation; (3) they demonstrate the degree of foundation derived from such assumptions; (4) they revise such assumptions or ideas through the testing and analysis of data and; (5) they propose new observations and evaluations in order to clarify, modify and consolidate the assumptions or engender new ones.

A qualitative approach is generally used to first find and refine research questions (Hernández *et al.*, 2003). And, sometimes, but not necessarily, it is aimed to confirm or demonstrate hypotheses (Grinnell, 1997). In this type of research, often times, the research question appears during the process itself from pure observations and descriptions. There is room for interpretation at all times and the process is rather flexible or at least, more flexible if compared with the rigor or accuracy of quantitative methods. According to Hernández the purpose of qualitative research is to “rebuild reality exactly as it is observed by the actors of a system.” In other words, there is a reality to be discovered and such reality (at least in social-management sciences) is built by the individuals who give significance to a particular phenomenon. It is intended to search and understand not only the case or event observed but also the context in which it is included. Relatively often, a qualitative approach is referred to as naturalist, phenomenological or interpretative base in non-quantitative studies. For Colby (1996),

there is a common denominator within the variety of qualitative approaches, and that is the cultural pattern whose foundation is that every culture has a different way to understand things and events. However, a qualitative study aims to understand a phenomenon in its usual environment by asking, how and why type of questions, which requires more explanation and contextual background concerning attitudes and behaviours (Patton, 1990). Qualitative studies normally do not intend to generalize intrinsically the results nor obtain representative samples under the probability norms.

In a quantitative study one initial idea might, quite often, result in several questions (hypotheses) that together aim to contribute to the answer. There can be as many hypotheses as variables in the research model and all have to be enfolded within the same analysis structure or tool. Then the variables are contextualized, tested and measured to determine the relevance or significance in order to make reliable conclusions through statistical methods. The main purpose of this methodology is to delimit information and measure the variables accurately focusing always on the main objective which is finding out a direct close correlation between the variables. The starting point in a quantitative approach is “a reality to be discovered” (Hernández *et al.*, 2003) with the premise that such reality of a given social phenomenon can be understood and interpreted using measurements and quantifications; the aim is to report what is happening, facts which can provide specific information of that reality that can be predicted and explained. Quantitative research gathers objective empirical information of features that can be quantified, measured or weighted and normally shows numbers as a result. The design of a quantitative research implies the formulation of assumptions (hypotheses) that are translated into variables which then represent quantifiable indicators for final interpretation. Numeric data is the main characteristic and it is subject or conditioned to the number of cases or events considered for the study. This type of methodology supposes a relatively high level of accuracy about the observed facts though some might argue that it is rather weak concerning the context or environment when generating the data.

Quantitative research is traditionally regarded as the positivist approach of research, (epistemology) whereas qualitative research would be non-positivist. Symon

(2004) though, makes the remark that quantitative methods may be “underpinned by a positivist, normative or functionalist paradigm.” The positivist paradigm nevertheless (Meza, 2003) presupposes the collection of relevant numeric data for explaining certain human behaviour and embraces the notion of a unique reality, which can be fragmented for its analysis and; the features can be independently manipulated. In a positivist scheme the subject (individual) and the object are independent from each other and it is possible to establish permanent general norms as it is possible to assume causes and effects of the observed cases or events,⁵⁶ hence its predominantly quantitative methodological approach. Moreover, Symon in reference to Anderson (1998) states that “quantitative studies highly determined by a positivist concern, are adopting an essentially conservative research strategy, concentrating on investigating minor variations of already established theoretical models.” Yet, in counterpart, there are clear advantages for a quantitative approach in management sciences that are necessary to mention at this point; Balsley (1970) for instance opposes Symon when saying that quantitative methods can achieve “high levels of reliability” from collected data. Indeed, according to some researchers in quantitative methods it is rather safer and unailing to determine the variables; whether they are dependent or independent. In any case, both quantitative and qualitative methods require that the researcher define the units of analysis; the justification of variables and; the main characteristics of the sample.

Chapman *et al.* (2005) talk about standard dichotomies concerning quantitative research; they regard quantitative methods as positivist; based on numbers rather than words as in the case of qualitative approaches; more reductive than holistic; where measurement is crucial and relevant over “meaning” (qualitative) and; perceived to be more objective than subjective. According to Peterson (2005) quantitative research methods have dominated the field of international management during the past thirty years at least and; he debates about the use of both methods as complementary.

⁵⁶ The positivist approach is based on pre-existing theories (deductive approach through the formulation of hypotheses) where such hypotheses are either confirmed or rejected after testing (Meza, 2003).

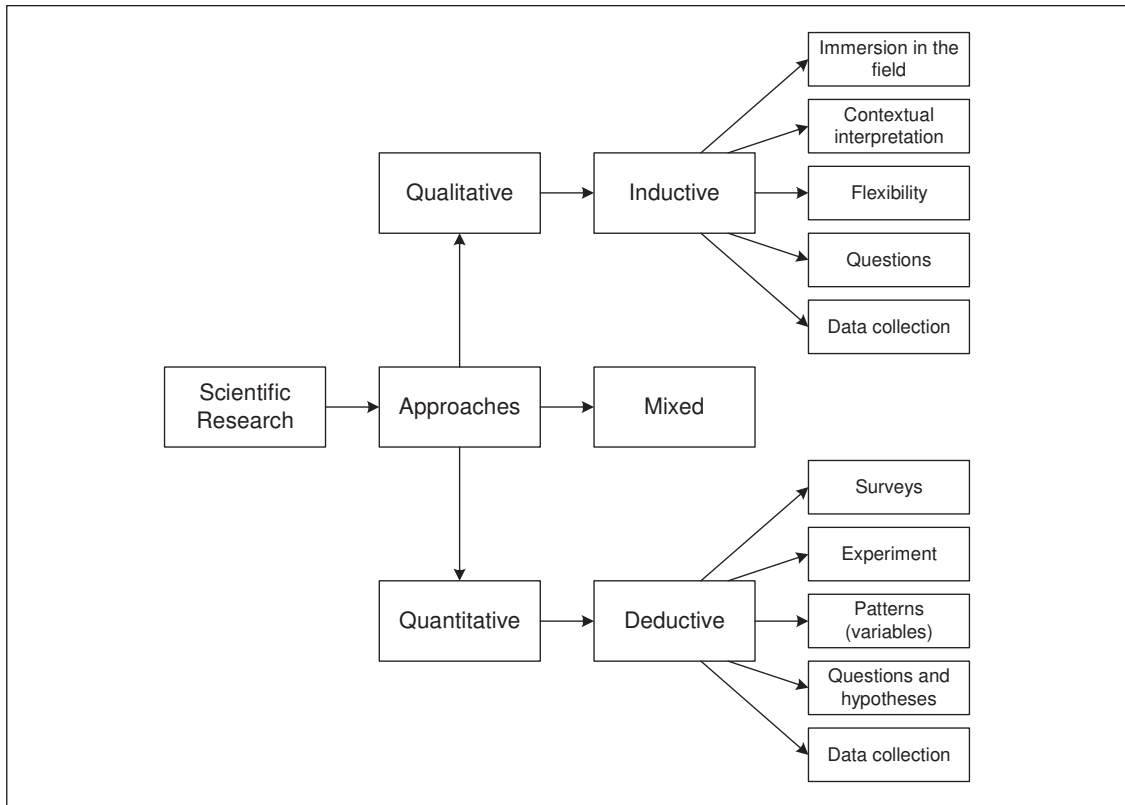


Figure 4.1 Approaches to scientific research

Source: Adapted and translated from Hernández (2003).

4.3 Selection of the research methodology

According to Hussey and Hussey (2009) research can be divided into several types depending on its nature in terms of purpose, process and logic. Based on that classification, the present study turns out to be a predictive type of research since its very purpose is to forecast and validate an initial set of hypotheses derived from both an extensive review of the literature and a conceptualization framing. As for the process, this study seizes a quantitative approach (justified in the following section) due to the mechanics of data collection, target sample and population. The logic (as previously mentioned in the beginning of this chapter) is based on a deductive sense because it considers a theoretical background for the construction of concepts and definitions which are then to be tested and validated, according to the corresponding process. Finally, the positivist paradigm (Hussey and Hussey, 2009) leads throughout this study

because of the following distinctive features; the relatively large size of the sample; the fact that this research is concerned with the testing of hypotheses; high reliability and precision of data.

An ontological assumption concerning types of research (Hussey and Hussey, 2009) suggests that in a quantitative approach the reality is rather objective because it is more distant from the researcher's subjectivity than in the case of a qualitative process. Moreover, the epistemological assumption also regards the researcher as independent from the object being studied.

4.4 Foundation for a quantitative approach

Management research (as a social science) starts with a question of "human behaviour" and the questions only differ depending on the discipline (Lewis-Beck, 1995). In this study, the actual scenery is predominantly based on assumptions that have to do directly with the individual's (in this case the manager's) observable intercultural capabilities. This investigation then pulls together the observed data for further statistical analysis in order to answer a "research question" and prove some previously formulated hypotheses; in addition, this research relies on a numeric measurement to establish a correlation between several independent variables and one dependent variable with the objective of discovering steady behavioural patterns.

Due to the latter, it appears clear to adopt a quantitative approach to conduct a fairly consistent research; where it is actually necessary to work with hypotheses which are limited in time and space, thus the context plays an essential role. Consequently, a quantitative-deductive and positivist exploratory methodology was considered suitable for this study.

The concepts linked as the base of this study [Figure 4.2] mark and express the very nature of the project. Intercultural competence (comprising a number of specific competencies) might have a direct impact on the managers' individual capability (readiness) for organizational change. This presupposes that certain attitudinal factors such as cognitive capabilities, emotional-affective abilities and social skills ought to be

categorized and measured in order to prove such a correlation. Additionally, aspects such as intercultural training and type of manager⁵⁷ are considered independent variables. Previous literature sustains the idea that such intercultural competencies influence behavioural patterns among employees in general, and more specifically of those employees with executive responsibilities such as managers.⁵⁸ Change (as referred to in chapter two) implies an inner attitude that requires being measured as well in order to verify and determine a certain level of consistence for the analysis. This study has been conducted on a global scale where managers from all around the world certainly build up an interesting range of different attitudes towards organizational change, based on the different capabilities, abilities and skills resulting from their own life experiences but most likely from their acquired capacities founded or rooted in the three basic components defined and described within the conceptualization of intercultural competencies (chapter three).

As expressed in the proposed research model, the rationale of this study is to look at the main intercultural competencies defined in the literature, examine, test and find out what are the dictating factors (intercultural competencies), that determine managers' readiness for organizational change. For that purpose a quantitative method of analysis has been selected to be supported with reliable statistical tools to explain what causes such a correlation.

Since the setting of this work is based on identifiable empirical data items that can be measured, examined and interpreted; and due to the fact that the problem has been clearly identified since the beginning (Zikmund, 2003); a formal quantitative approach can reasonably respond to the conceptual formulations concerning managers' behavioural aspects linked to the capability (predisposition) to change within the organization. In other words, there is a clear need to discover and understand the

⁵⁷ Since the conception of the principal research idea, it is intended to discover whether or not both the level of internationalization (in terms of managers' workplace); and intercultural training, have a direct impact (apart from the intercultural competencies themselves) on the managers' readiness for organizational change.

attitudes (meaning intercultural competencies) that managers possess in order to be ready for change, and such an exploration suggests a quantitative approach.

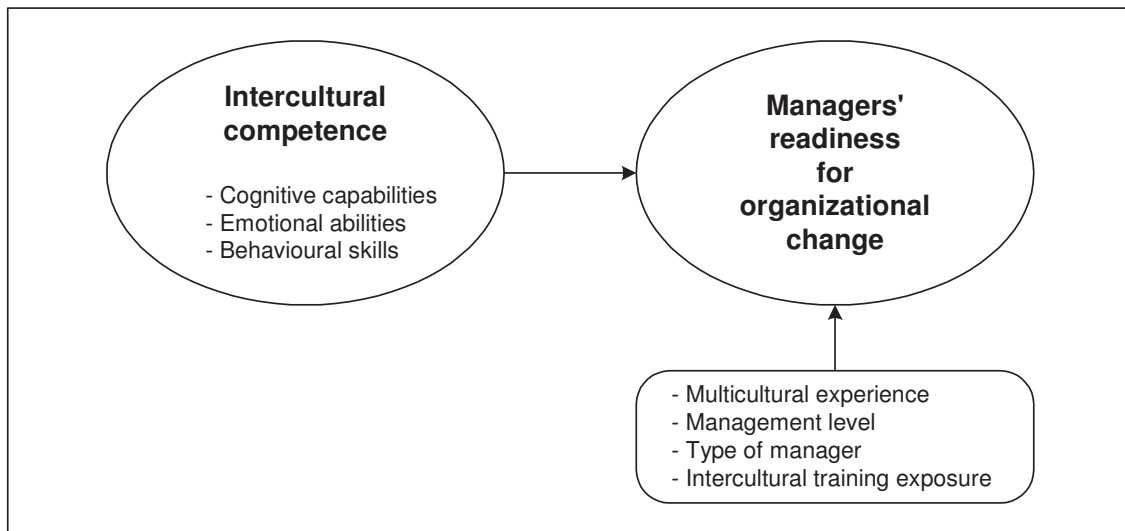


Figure 4.2 Effect of intercultural competence on readiness for change

4.4.1 Design of the research

As mentioned in the previous section, a quantitative-deductive methodology was considered suitable for this study. For that purpose, a questionnaire was developed in order to collect the necessary data. The research model shown above establishes the basics of this examination by assuming a significant relationship between managers' readiness for organizational change and their intercultural abilities; in view of the fact that preceding literature shows that intercultural competence influences behaviour, and several studies have confirmed a direct positive correlation between individuals' attitudes, abilities, beliefs (Peach *et al.*, 2005), communication skills (Holt *et al.*, 2007; Armenakis, 1997) and their predisposition for change. Yet, the data to be collected should invariably respond, in the main, to the following central queries: type of manager, willingness to change, intercultural capabilities (cognitive, emotional, social) and intercultural training exposure. As will be shown in the questionnaire design, each of those aspects went along with a number of consistent questions.

Thus, once the hypotheses were determined through review of the literature the questionnaire was sent by email containing a link to the online survey and as the examination explored the variables identified under the research objectives, a subsequent statistical analysis was conducted.

As can be noticed, this research design is regarded a deductive method where questions are generated and articulated from a sound theoretical foundation in order to answer a proposed research question through the formulation of the respective hypotheses which are required to be tested and validated. The validity of the proposal for a quantitative method is supported by the very nature of the study (as explained earlier) and the procedure goes after the standard course of action that other studies with similar characteristics follow. Moreover, this methodology has been strategically adopted firstly due to the provability or verifiability of the outcomes, secondly because the method allows vigorous statistical and econometric analyses to support and corroborate the hypotheses.

The deductive approach that comes along with a quantitative methodology permits also the formulation of deductions and conclusions about the tested data in a logical and secure manner; and furthermore, supported by numerical evaluation which provides a solid base for argumentation of possible new theoretical propositions or ideas resulting from the final discussion. This research method was also selected because one of the main objectives was to reach a large number of managers from all over the world both expatriates and non-expatriates regardless of nationality and cultural background. In order to do that, a survey research appears evidently more appropriate than planning face-to-face interviews, where the scope would have been severely affected. A self-administered online questionnaire denotes a huge potential for data collection and, in the case of this work, to some extent also delimitates the context of the study.

Epistemology suggests that a positivist research is normally founded on the existence of a presupposed relationship within the phenomena susceptible of being identified through a deductive analysis approach. The conceptual framework of this study, however, already sets the ground for the subsequent selection of the correct methodology in accordance with the intercultural competencies as *factors* that are

supposed to influence managers' readiness for change. The review of literature on both domains provides sufficient support to establish a significant correlation and the respective suitable methodology of analysis.

As concerning the logical sequence conceived for this study [Figure 4.3] the process started with a thorough literature review of the main concepts in order to identify the existing research gap and the possibility of conducting a project with the purpose of bridging that gap. Then the main research idea was conceptualized and approached from several angles as a means to develop a valid realistic research question. The next step, as indicated in the diagram, was to formulate the hypotheses that resulted from both literature review and later conceptualization of the idea. At that point, the methodology to use was selected as well as the respective data collection instruments. Actual data collection was then conducted through a self-administered online questionnaire and handled in preparation for the statistical analysis and pertinent tests.⁵⁹

⁵⁹ Further steps such as presentation of results, interpretation of findings, discussion and conclusions will be included in the subsequent chapters within the required formats.

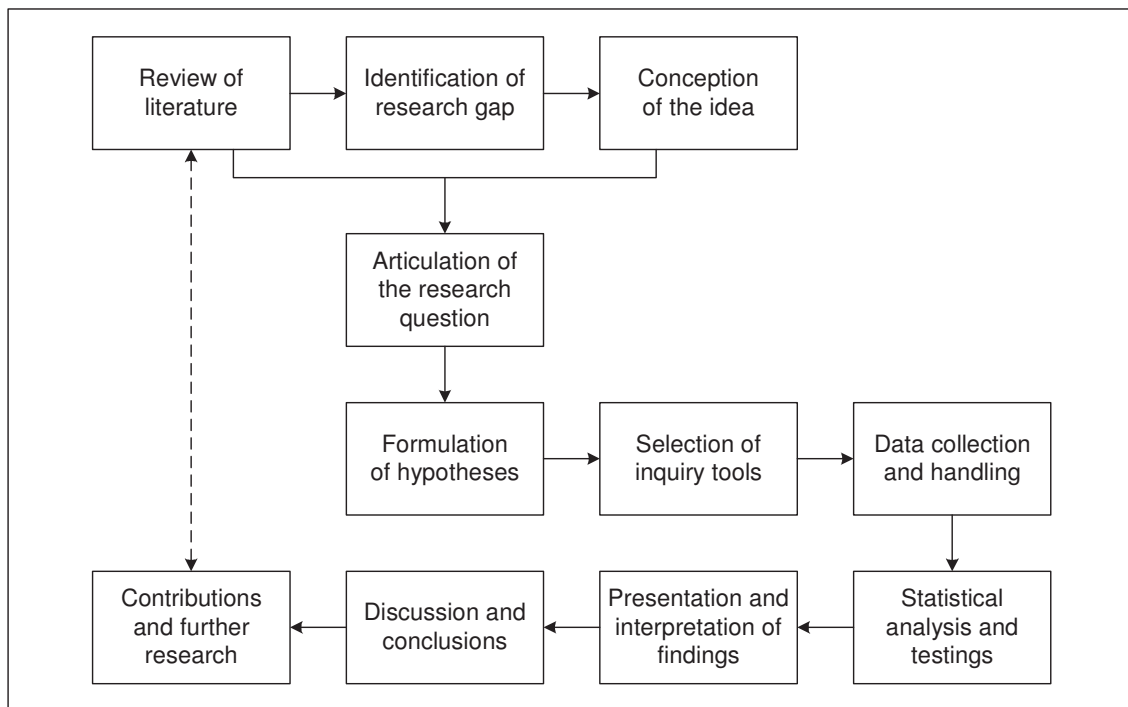


Figure 4.3 Logic of sequence of the research

4.4.2 Measurement instrument

The selection of a measurement instrument is mainly determined by the type of research and it is basically the tool that the researcher uses as a means to gather and register information about the pre-conceived variables. Measurement tools should guarantee consistency, reliability and validity. As literature in quantitative research methodology suggests, the variables under examination should be measured before any hypothesis be tested. In this case, *managers' readiness for change* is the dependent variable, which is measured by sixteen questions formulated from the definitions of the concept, already captured in the literature review. Managers were asked to select one of the seven numbers on a Likert scale as it would best suit their individual case concerning their willingness or predisposition for change.⁶⁰ The range would go as

⁶⁰ Change in the sense of any transformation or modification within the organization that might require a variation in the behaviour of the manager towards making a decision that would have certain considerable impact on the way things are done or work. Change is used in the sense of any alteration that might imply the modification of other's behaviour and attitudes.

follows 1 = very unlikely; 2 = unlikely; 3 = rather unlikely; 4 = neutral; 5 = rather likely; 6 = likely and; 7 = very likely. The Likert scale is one of the most used techniques of measurement, especially in the fields of management and social sciences because it anchors questions based on attitudes, preferences and inclinations (behaviours) with a high level of reliability when the queries are properly formulated. This scale of categorization and valorization is very powerful (Dawes, 1975) due to the fact that it refers to a ranking procedure in which the individual allocates the response into a given categorization. The level of response is conducive to less ambiguity and more closeness to the objective of the researcher allowing the procurement of more information in a relatively short time (Cañadas and Sánchez, 1998). The Likert scale is frequently used for measuring knowledge, attitudes and aptitudes, moreover, it allows (as previously mentioned) high levels of reliability requiring sometimes relatively few items. It is important though, to remark that the Likert scale is useful when the object of the measurement is well-known and understood, because it is right there where the efficacy of the methodology relies, especially when measuring attitudes (Ospina-Rave *et al.* 2005).

A seven-point Likert scale that measured managers' perception as to how ready they were for organizational change; a five-point scale was also formulated to self-assess their intercultural capabilities distributed in the three main dimensions, cognitive, emotional and social; described in the conceptual framework and for which a groping factor analysis was performed as an additional test for the validity of the distribution of variables within the three components.

The measurement scale used in this study is not based on any previous work as it concerns the intercultural competence variables. The scale was built by the author of this thesis upon the logic of the parameters given from the tight definitions and insights of the literature and tested through a factor analysis application for the respective allocation within the three dimensions referred to before. All items were formulated as direct statements and the scale was piloted among the first sixty voluntary respondents of the questionnaire from whom some provided feedback concerning the construction of the scale and the dynamics, logic and sense-making. As a result of the feedback, just a

few minor changes were made concerning clarity of some questions, in order to release the final version of the questionnaire. The pilot sample became also a part of the whole respondent body since no major inconsistencies were found.

The research instrument selected for this study is composed of three basic level types according to the nature of the specific answer. The first two questions of the questionnaire (family condition and employee type) are ordinal type; which means that each of the possible five answers has a different level of priority which can be afterwards related to a numerical value; ordinal type permits the ordering in terms of ascending-descending style, for instance; LCN (local country national) is given the value 1 because it has the lowest level of internationalization as manager, and TCN (third country national) is given a 5 because it holds the highest level of internationalization. Other ordinal types of answer are assigned for questions regarding age, educational level, working experience (in years) as manager, level of management, travelling experience, spoken languages, etc. (see questionnaire in Appendix I). Nominal type divides the data in categories, and the numbers associated to these responses are merely names or labels, this type of inquiry permits calculation of frequencies, percentages and modes. Questions associated with this type are for example, gender, marital status, country of origin, etc. Finally the interval scale type which allows grouping the measurements by ranges where all scale points are equal. A typical example is a Likert scale which has already been explained in the beginning of this text section. An Interval scale allows the calculation of the correlation coefficient as well as standard deviations and other arithmetical calculations. The interval scale type is used in this study for the collection of responses related to both dependent and independent variables. So questions included in section three and further of the questionnaire are interval scale type. See also questionnaire design [Tables 4.1 to 4.6].

4.4.3 Design of survey questionnaire

One of the advantages of online questionnaires is that a large number of individuals can be anonymously surveyed in a relatively short period of time. For the

purposes of this study, and considering the fact that survey questionnaires are widely used in social sciences oriented management research, especially to inquire aspects related to behaviours and attitudes, a questionnaire tool was built to serve as the instrument for data collection. The structure of the questionnaire is divided into six parts. Part 1 [Table 4.1] is based on the demographics of the sample. It is important to emphasize at this point that the very first two questions are essential for the study as they are considered (particularly question 2) as relevant to find a relation with managers' readiness for change. Thus, part one consists of a total of nine questions. Question 1 inquires about the "family condition" of the manager, this is, the type of family in which he or she reared. So this first question is broken down into five categories: (1) whether the manager was born in a monocultural-monolingual family; (2) born in a bicultural but monolingual family; (3) a bicultural and bilingual family; (4) a bicultural but multilingual family and (5) a multicultural and multilingual family. It was considered important to know in order to establish a possible correlation with the dependent variable. The second question, type of manager, refers to certain extent, to the level of internationalization of the manager, and it is also broken into five main categories: (1) a local country national; (2) a host country national; (3) a foreign country national; (4) a parent country national and (5) a third country national.⁶¹ Then a section on general background information, also referred to as demographics, is integrated between questions 3 and 8, comprising aspects such as gender, age, country of origin, marital status, educational level and experience as a manager. Question number 9 of this section refers to the level of management in which the "manager" performs.

Table 4-1 Questionnaire- Part I- items on respondents' demographics

Hypothesis	Label	Questions related
Type of Family	FAM	Question 1
Type of Manager	TYP	Question 2

⁶¹ Detailed descriptions of each type of manager are provided in the literature review (chapter 2) of this document.

Hypothesis	Label	Questions related
Demographics - Gender - Group of age - Country of origin (culture) - Marital status - Educational level - Experience as a manager	GEN AGE NAT STA EDU EXP	Questions 3 to 8
Level of Management	LEV	Question 9

Part two of the questionnaire is concerned with the individual's personal multicultural experience, and the purpose of this section is to inquire and learn about the nature of the manager's level of "multiculturalism." This information is composed of fourteen questions and is complementary to the first two questions on family condition and type of manager; giving a total of sixteen question for this category. Personal multicultural experience is labelled with the acronym MCE though in order to be used as an independent variable it needs to be divided into several sub-categories.⁶² This grouping of questions include aspects such as traveling experience, having close friends from other cultures, keeping contact with classmates from other countries, being able to speak several languages, working in multicultural environments, corresponding with people (clients- suppliers- partners- colleagues) with different cultural backgrounds, etc. [Table 4.2].

However, in this section, there are two questions considered crucial and actually related to two core independent variables. Questions 16 and 17 inquire about intercultural training exposure where the manager ought to respond (in the provided Likert-scale format), the type of intercultural training he or she has taken in the past, whether academic or professional and the range in number of hours of those courses. These questions provide an insight on the level of training in intercultural competence to be considered a determining factor of readiness for change —perhaps even as a control variable— of the model and independent from the twelve original hypotheses

⁶² It is not intended for this study to use MCE as a core independent variable for the purposes of demonstrating a correlation between intercultural competence and readiness for change. It is just to have a clearer idea of the level of multicultural sensitivity of the respondent manager.

formulated for this study. Exposure to intercultural training was measured in number of hours also using a Likert scale, going from 1 = (never); 2 = (1 to 6 hours of training); 3 = (7 to 12 hours); 4 = (13 to 19) hours and 5 = (20 or more hours of training). The same format was designed for both academic and professional training. See questionnaire (questions 16 and 17) in Appendix I.

Table 4-2 Questionnaire- Part II- items on individual multicultural experience

Hypothesis	Label	Questions related
Personal Multicultural Experience	MCE	Questions 10 to 23

The next section (Part three) concerns the manager’s level of readiness for change. This is crucial and quite relevant to the study because this represents the dependent variable of the study [Table 4.3] and here is where the managers self-assess their willingness (disposition) for change within the organization. Sixteen questions (24 to 39) measure exclusively the aspect of change readiness in order to provide enough information for the analysis. Organizational readiness for change is given the label ORC. The questions included in this section were carefully formulated based on the strongest definitions from the literature review and based also on previous studies on readiness for change developed by Armenakis (1993) and other scholars. In this section the Likert scale is 7-point to provide a higher level of accuracy whereas in the subsequent sections the scale is 5-point. The ORC variable is the base of all hypotheses formulated in this study and will be addressed more in detail in the following chapters.

Table 4-3 Questionnaire- Part III- items on managers’ readiness for change

Hypothesis	Label	Questions related
Readiness for Organizational Change	ORC	Questions 24 to 39

The last three parts of the questionnaire deal with the measurement of the intercultural competence of the manager and represent the independent variables of the study.

Part four aims to measure the cognitive capabilities of the manager through sixteen questions divided into four sub-categories (each category representing one actual variable of the research model) [Table 4.4]. Knowledge discovery is examined in questions 40 to 43; respect for otherness, questions 44 to 47; contextual understanding, questions 48 to 51 and cultural mindfulness, questions 52 to 55.

Table 4-4 Questionnaire- Part IV- items on intercultural cognitive capabilities

Hypotheses COGNITIVE component	Label	Questions related
H1: Knowledge Discovery	KDI	Questions 40 to 43
H2: Respect for Otherness	RFO	Questions 44 to 47
H3: Contextual Understanding	CUN	Questions 48 to 51
H4: Cultural Mindfulness	CMI	Questions 52 to 55

Part five of the questionnaire [Table 4.5] corresponds to the examination of the emotional abilities of the manager; being the related variables distributed as follows: tolerance for ambiguity, questions 56 to 59; cultural empathy, questions 60 to 63; polycentrism, questions 64 to 67 and emotional strength, for questions 68 to 71.

Table 4-5 Questionnaire- Part V- items on intercultural emotional abilities

Hypotheses EMOTIONAL component	Label	Questions related
H5: Tolerance of Ambiguity	TAM	Questions 56 to 59
H6: Cultural Empathy	EMP	Questions 60 to 63
H7: Polycentrism (openness)	POL	Questions 64 to 67
H8: Emotional Strength	EMS	Questions 68 to 71

The last section of the questionnaire is part 6 [Table 4.6] which is composed by the intercultural social skills involving the following variables: Behavioural flexibility, questions 72 to 75; communicative awareness, questions 76 to 79; collaborative dialogue, questions 80 to 83; and social rapport, questions 84 to 87.

Table 4-6 Questionnaire- Part VI- items on intercultural social skills

Hypotheses SOCIAL component	Label	Questions related
H9: Behavioural Flexibility	BFL	Questions 72 to 75
H10: Communicative Awareness	COA	Questions 76 to 79
H11: Collaborative Dialogue	CDI	Questions 80 to 83
H12: Social Rapport	SRA	Questions 84 to 87

4.4.4 Reliability and validity of the measurement tool

All measurement instruments must demonstrate reliability and validity before any data can be collected. Since both independent and dependent variable items in this study were answered by the same person, it was necessary to conduct an additional test through Cronbach's alpha coefficient, as will be shown in the analysis section. Reliability actually refers to the consistency of response and it has to be verified in the pilot phase. A measurement tool is reliable when it is able to measure that which it has been designed or aimed for. Validity and reliability of the instrument are crucial because it consequently determines the quality of interpretations and conclusions. The reliability of the instrument has to do with the results of the test, not with the test itself. According to the preliminary results of the pilot project of this study, the initial tryouts were able to consistently measure the specific characteristics of the defined variables within the context of the contextual framework. The nature of the variables in this research represented a challenge since the consistency and coherence of the responses are based on how well the question was interpreted by the informant, but above all, it is subject to how accurate or close to the truth. An accurate response is the one that measures the variable faithfully and without any margin error, which is relatively risky to completely guarantee since the response also depends on the sincerity of the informant.

4.5 Target population

In a quantitative approach, the population is generally defined *a priori* since it represents the compilation of all cases which coincide with the original specifications (Selltiz, 1980). The targeted population of this study addresses a very clear group of informants; *corporate managers; from all over the world; of either industrial or commercial international organizations and; who have among their subordinates, at least a certain percentage, from diverse cultural backgrounds.* As part of the delimitation of the population, there have been considered only managers pertaining to the three basic levels of management referred to and explained in the literature review: (1) top-level managers, who are at the corporate strategic level and their role is decisional as being responsible for long-term goals and objectives, some examples, senior managers, area directors or general managers; (2) middle-level managers, who are basically at the tactical level and play an Interpersonal role by being responsible for monitoring progress in order to meet goals, for instance, heads of department or executive managers; (3) first-level managers, whose role is rather informational as being responsible for day-to-day operational affairs, this is, operational managers, such as project leaders, supervisors and office managers. The parameters established for this population are based on the notion of managers as change agents and therefore set up a more delineated link with the dependent variable which is readiness for change, hence, manager's readiness for organizational change and the associated conducive intercultural competencies.

In order to define a realistic and biased-free population, it is imperative to mention that such a targeted population, even if it might seem really ambitious, it is still feasible to address without moving far from the context and content characteristics of time and place. No parameters of organization size in terms of sales volume or value of capital were considered due to the remoteness of the informants and high level of anonymity

which was thought-out not to be as relevant for the purposes of this study.⁶³ The characteristics of the population in this case, are highly valuable since the data gathering reported informants from fifty five different countries and from managers of sixty eight different nationalities.⁶⁴ Thus, the eligible participants (managers) are impartial and legitimate for the subsequent sample framing.

4.6 Sample configuration

4.6.1 Sample size

According to the literature on sampling configuration, the selection of a sample could be of two types: probabilistic and non-probabilistic (Hernández, 2003). Probabilistic selection (where all elements have the same probability of being selected) is done either via systematic selection, random selection or stratified selection (most common in a quantitative approach); and non-probabilistic selection (normally associated with qualitative research, or Delphi studies). As is to be expected, this research implies a unit of analysis within the probabilistic type as it can be perceived from the very characteristics of the population and the size of the sample, which was originally pre-estimated in no less than 300 respondents —sample size recommended by Nunnally (1978) for scale measuring— in order to count on a sound base for a more reliable information towards statistical analysis. Nevertheless, and beyond all initial expectations, the sample reported a number of 557 respondents in total at the point of the set deadline. The selection of the sample implied defining the analysis unit, considering the population characteristics. At this point it was intended to define the objects, from which the data was collected.

⁶³ The objectives established for this study are intended to be congruent with the criteria of a quantitative-deductive approach and conducive to objectivity and validity of results in accordance with the methodology. This population definition criterion though, is subject to argumentation and reply.

⁶⁴ The demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown graphically in the analysis of results section.

The sample selection process in this study is extremely related to the standard criteria available in a number of papers and research methodology guides. Different types of samples and data determine the approach of the investigation as in this case. The sample is essentially an extracted sub-set of the population.

4.6.2 Convenience sampling versus accidental sampling

The delimitation of a sample might sometimes be influenced by the availability or access to certain databases or pools of information. As it will be explained in the data collection process, the sample for this study started from a pre-existing list of business management alumni gathered from several higher education institutions with the assumption that they would be working in organizations around the world after a period of graduation. This tactic might appear at the outset as a non-probabilistic type of approach, however, the initial database included individuals from a large range of nationalities and backgrounds who, by the time of the completion of questionnaire, would be already spread around and working in complete different scenarios, which would break the scheme and turn into a more probabilistic type as the sampling will become rather accidental, especially due to the spread-effect strategy implemented which is explained in the following section. There is evidently a certain level of homogeneity in the sample since the predominantly average age of respondents will be rather under thirty years, but it was indeed one of the purposes to establish a sample of relatively young managers since one of the variables to be tested is intercultural training and such kind of instruction of preparation is not present in many managers who are over forty-five or fifty years of age, especially university training on the topic. Thus, it could be argued that this is a convenience sample though it is important to keep in mind the probabilistic nature as spreading the prospective informants beyond any personal or social network presupposes a good level of objectivity.

4.7 Data collection

4.7.1 Data collection process

In a quantitative approach, data collection implies measurement by using an instrument (in this case a survey questionnaire) which is valid and reliable in terms of criteria and content. The data collection process was conducted during the period comprised between December 5th 2010 and March 31st 2011; and the size of the sample was therefore determined by the maximum number of respondents collected within the 120-day period in which the questionnaire was available online. The process of data collection started with a list of over one-thousand international master alumni from about 14 higher education institutions graduated at least five years ago; this with the assumption that these young professionals would be already working in their respective countries and in managerial positions. The questionnaire was sent to each of them individually with a personalized message in which they were invited to participate in this study. In order to guarantee and respect the characteristics of the population, they were asked to only respond to the questionnaire if, and only if they had a managing position at an international corporation for more than one year. The strategy then, consisted of asking each individual to also send the questionnaire to at least five other managers within their organization; thus creating a spread-effect and increasing the volume of response. Informants who did not fulfill the requirements were discarded from the record list. The result in terms of number of respondents was better than expected since the percentage was close to 25% of the total number of inquiries sent. The latter of course is a result of the spread-effect designed for volume increase. Additionally, a record-keeping strategy was thought up in order to follow up the flow of incoming responses; this is, managers who were contacted and did not respond within two weeks, were contacted again personally for a reminder and a third time in some cases. The electronic questionnaire included a programming setting which allowed identification of the IP address of the respondent and therefore tracking of the country and organization from which he or she was responding the questionnaire; moreover, no

incomplete questionnaires were received since a programming lock required filling out each field in order to be able to submit the questionnaire.

4.7.2 Data classification and codification

The collected data was carefully poured into a preliminary excel-worksheet where information was organized, adjusted and ordered for subsequent data-management. The classification of data consisted basically in structuring the received information under the same logic of the questionnaire and dividing it into several sections for independent analysis. However, the whole database was formatted in order to be exported to other applications such as SPSS, SmartPLS and Gretl software for the statistical analyses which were the applications used for the data examination.

Data was then distinctly codified to facilitate interpretation and handling within other software packages as the ones mentioned above. Each category included in the questionnaire was codified in order to facilitate control, manipulation and interpretation of data. For questions regarding the core independent variables as well as the independent variable, the codification is determined under the Likert scale parameters; though for the first two sections of the questionnaire.

Table 4-7 Codification of categories and items- section 1 on demographics

Item	Label	Parameters	Code
Type of family (level of multiculturality)	FAM	Monocultural and monolingual family	1
		Bicultural but monolingual family	2
		Bicultural and bilingual family	3
		Bicultural but multilingual family	4
		Multicultural and multilingual family	5
Type of employee (manager)	TYP	(LCN) Local country national	1
		(HCN) Host country national	2
		(FCN) Foreign country national	3
		(PCN) Parent country national	4
		(TCN) Third country national	5
Gender	GEN	Male	1
		Female	2
Age group	AGE	20 or less	1
		21 to 30	2
		31 to 40	3
		41 to 50	4
		51 to 60	5
		60 or more	6

Item	Label	Parameters	Code
Country of origin (culture)	NAT	Africa	1
		Asia Pacific	2
		Latin America	3
		Middle East	4
		Europe	5
		North America	6
Marital status	STA	Single	1
		Married	2
		Divorced	3
		Widowed	4
Educational level	EDU	Certificate	1
		Bachelor	2
		Master	3
		Doctor PhD	4
Experience as a manager	EXP	<1 year	1
		1-3 years	2
		3-5 years	3
		5-10 years	4
		>10 years	5
Level of management	LEV	First level manager	1
		Middle level manager	2
		Top level manager	3

Table 4-8 Codification of categories and items- section 2 on multicultural experience

Item	Label	Parameters	Code
Traveling abroad experience	TRA	Never	1
		1 – 2 times	2
		3 – 6 times	3
		7 – 9 times	4
		10 times or more	5
Close friends from diverse cultural backgrounds	FND	No friends	1
		One friend	2
		Two-three friends	3
		Four friends	4
		Five or more friends	5
Born and reared	REA	One country	1
Contact with ex-classmates from other countries	CLA	Two countries	2
		Three countries	3
		Four countries	4
		Five or more countries	5
Languages spoken	LAN	One language	1
Languages of instruction during studies	LOI	Two languages	2
		Three languages	3
		Four languages	4
		Five or more languages	5
Intercultural training exposure at school	ATE	Never	1
Intercultural training exposure outside or after school	PTE	1 – 6 hours	2
		7 – 12 hours	3
		13 – 19 hours	4
		20 or more hours	5
Working in multicultural environment	MWE	Never	1
Enjoy media and art from other countries	MED	Rarely	2
Correspond with people from other countries	IRE	Sometimes	3
Attentive to news of other parts of the world	NEW	Often	4
		Always	5

Item	Label	Parameters	Code
Academic exchange abroad	EXC	Never	1
Lived abroad for reasons other than school		1 – 6 months	2
	LIV	7 – 12 months	3
		13 – 19 months	4
		20 or more months	5

Table 4-9 Codification of categories and items- section 3 on readiness for change

Item	Label	Parameters	Code
Individual readiness for change in the organization	ORC	Very unlikely	1
		Unlikely	2
		Rather unlikely	3
		Neutral	4
		Rather likely	5
		Likely	6
		Very likely	7

Table 4-10 Codification of categories and items- section 4 to 6 on intercultural competence

Item	Labels	Parameters	Code
Intercultural competence	KDI, RFO, CUN, CMI, TAM, EMP, POL, EMS, BFL, COA, CDI, SRA	Strongly disagree	1
Cognitive capabilities		Disagree	2
Emotional abilities		Uncertain	3
Behavioural skills		Agree	4
		Strongly agree	5

4.8 Definition of variables

4.8.1 Core variables

It is imperative to make clear at this point that the core variables of this research model are exactly the twelve concepts —knowledge discovery, respect for otherness, contextual understanding, cultural mindfulness, tolerance for ambiguity, cultural empathy, polycentrism, emotional strength, behavioural flexibility, communicative awareness, collaborative dialogue and social rapport— which were already described and explained in detail in the conceptual framework. The variables were mentioned throughout the literature review within the sixteen exposed models and then conceptualized. These twelve variables were selected according to specific criteria that would eventually allow a further assortment within a formative structure consisting of three main dimensions; cognitive, emotional and behavioural/social which are included

in a post-hoc analysis later in this chapter. So for the purposes of the analysis and results of this dissertation, the hypotheses formulated upon these variables were directly measured and tested for validation against the dependent variable —organizational readiness for change.

4.8.2 Additional variables

As already mentioned in chapter three within the conceptual framework, since the inception of the research proposal, four additional hypotheses were formulated in order to be tested along with the initial research model leveraging the model to sixteen variables in total. The twelve initial variables would then exclusively concern intercultural competence and the additional variables are not regarded as intercultural capabilities or skills, but simply as possible influencing factors which are: individual multicultural experience of the manager; level of management (top, middle, first); type of manager (local country national, host country national, etc.); and the manager's intercultural training exposure. (See chapter three; Figure 3.10).

4.8.3 Control variables

Control variables are often used in research with the intention of neutralizing or eliminating the effects that such variables could have within the model in relation to the other variables. This sort of variables is also useful to prove the absence of possible bias when analyzing the phenomenon.

For the purposes of this study, four control variables have been taken from the respondents' provided information. The control variables selected are gender, age, type of family —monocultural, bicultural, etc.— and the level of education. Other variables that could have been included are for instance marital status and the number of years in a managing position, however, they were not considered because there is a linear proximity between age and marital status, as well as between number of years in a

managing position and one of the additional-factor variables included in the model which is level of management.

4.8.4 Formative components

The variables considered for this research study were primarily based on the literature review and then defined according to the criteria of the measurement scale in order to build a meaningful data collection tool. After analysing the compendium of definitions available from a number of authors, a total of twelve variables were selected as the most appropriate to represent common, well-accepted intercultural competencies. As anticipated in section 4.8.1 the twelve variables were divided into the three categories⁶⁵ or components mentioned in the literature review and each four from the twelve variables were allocated within each of the three components; thus, four variables corresponding to the cognitive dimension, four variables to the emotional dimension and four more to the social dimension. The allocation of variables was not done deliberately, but they were distributed after a deep analysis of the nature of each variable, and later on tested and validated through a factor analysis which showed the required consistency. Additionally, some more variables were considered to fit into the design such as intercultural training exposure and type of manager (see variable type of manager).

As presented in section 4.7.2 variables were codified according to the pertinent supported criteria; nevertheless, some other variables such as proxy/control variables were incorporated in order to test steadiness of the model. For instance, one proxy variable used in this study is HDI (Human Development Index). Proxy variables basically help avoid bias. Traditionally in social science research, this variable as well as other such as GDP or Prosperity Index might be used in order to test a possible correlation. The proxy variable itself might not have a particular relevance for the study in question but it helps as a guide since it might show strong correlations with the

⁶⁵ The formative structure was built and is to be presented as a post-hoc analysis in chapter five, after the completion and testing of the core independent variables and once the correlation with the dependent variable has been established for the initial research model consisting of the twelve hypotheses.

dependent variable or even with other independent variables. The correlation of the proxy variable may present a direct lineal or positive relation.

Table 4-11 Classification and definition of variables

Research model variables	Label	Additional variables	Label	Control variables	Label
Dependent Variable					
Org. readiness for change	ORC				
Independent Variables					
<u>Cognitive capabilities</u>					
- Knowledge discovery	KDI	Multicultural experience	MCE	Family condition	FAM
- Respect for otherness	RFO	Level of management	LEV	Age	AGE
- Contextual understanding	CUN	Type of manager	TYP	Gender	GEN
- Cultural mindfulness	CMI	Intercult. training exposure	ITE	Level of education	EDU
<u>Emotional abilities</u>					
- Tolerance for ambiguity	TAM				
- Cultural empathy	EMP				
- Polycentrism	POL				
- Emotional strength	EMS				
<u>Social skills</u>				Proxy variable	
- Behavioural flexibility	BFL			Human Dev. Index	HDI
- Communicative awareness	COA				
- Collaborative dialogue	CDI				
- Social rapport	SRA				

4.8.5 Measurement parameters

According to Stevens (2001) measuring consists of “assigning numbers to objects or events in conformity with some rules.” But in fact, the measurement of variables is rather a “process of linking abstract concepts with empirical indicators” (Hernández, 2003). The process implies organization and classification of such concepts and indicators in order to assure the quality of the measurement. The parameters of measurement used in this study were defined by the researcher and adapted for a Likert scale criteria as is explained in the measurement section. Now, the actual consideration

for the measurement is based on the accuracy of the definition of each variable. In other words, the statements used to formulate each question were directly taken from the very definition of the concept according to the literature so that there would not be room for divergence concerning the meaning and the interpretation of the respondent. The parameters of measurement are packed into four questions for each independent variable which makes sixteen questions for each component and then sixteen additional questions for measuring the dependent variable [Table 4.12].

Table 4-12 Parameters of variable measurement

Type of variable	Label	N°. Questions	Total	Measurement parameters (Likert)
Dependent Variable	1=very unlikely; 2=unlikely; 3=rather unlikely; 4=neutral; 5=rather likely; 6=likely; 7=very likely			
Org. readiness for change	ORC	16	16	scale type
Independent Variables	1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=uncertain; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree			
- Knowledge discovery	KDI	4		scale type
- Respect for otherness	RFO	4		scale type
- Contextual understanding	CUN	4		scale type
- Cultural mindfulness	CMI	4		scale type
Total of questions Component 1			16	scale type
- Tolerance for ambiguity	TAM	4		scale type
- Cultural empathy	EMP	4		scale type
- Polycentrism	POL	4		scale type
- Emotional strength	EMS	4		scale type
Total of questions Component 2			16	scale type
- Behavioural flexibility	BFL	4		scale type
- Communicative awareness	COA	4		scale type
- Collaborative dialogue	CDI	4		scale type
- Social rapport	SRA	4		scale type
Total of questions Component 3			16	scale type

4.8.6 ANOVA variance analysis

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is basically a statistical test developed to simultaneously compare the means of two or more populations and verify their homogeneity. In the words of Zikmund (2003) it is a “common technique to determine whether or not there are significant differences among the means in two or more groups.” This statistical method —also referred to as “one-way” when there is only one dependent variable as a parameter for comparison— it is used very often in models where the dependent variable is measured in intervals and it is carried out through t-student distribution in order to compare the sample means of normal populations. It is possible to have more than one dependent variable, but this would require a different experimental method (MANOVA) which is not the case of this study since there is only one dependant variable to be measured. For the purposes of this research, the ANOVA analysis was used in order to determine if the effects of the variables operating simultaneously had a real influencing meaning or it was just accidental. So this test conveys the total variation of a data cluster since the ANOVA test essentially establishes the variability of all data measured by the total sum of squares. This tool allows distinguishing if a given factor actually affects the average response. In a *post-hoc* comparison of different populations, this test variance test was applied in order to contrast the means and discover the levels of significance of the independent variables in relation to the specific population.

4.9 Statistical application packages

4.9.1 SmartPLS testing instrument

SmartPLS version 2.0 M3 has been chosen as the primary platform for the analysis purposes of this research. Literally defined by its creators SmartPLS⁶⁶ is “a software application for (graphical) path modeling with latent variables.” This

⁶⁶ <http://www.smartpls.de/forum> Accessed January 15th, 2011

application was mainly selected for the linear regression because of the advantages related to the possibility of testing and visualizing the whole model at once, this is, including all variables and groupings in one graphical representation showing the correlations between variables and their respective level of significance. This software created by Christian Ringle from the University of Hamburg is well-accepted by researchers and students in Germany and it is increasing its popularity abroad. PLS stands for Partial Least Squares and includes an algorithm calculation which produces a detailed report on cross loadings for the verification of the reliability coefficient between survey questions. Moreover, it is possible with this application to produce an overview of the AVE (Average Variance Extracted) and also test reliability including Alpha coefficient.

The bootstrapping algorithm is a powerful feature of this software which basically tests the whole model in one step. This quality makes it very comprehensive for the user to identify significant correlations in just one screenshot. The application includes all cases of the database and variables can be directly dragged into the model and removed as easily if necessary, which allows the user to play with the variables console and test all independent variables, control and proxies at the same time. Another benefit of this software is that it permits exporting the model in an image format at any moment, which is convenient for comparison and contrasting after several tests. Apart from the mentioned advantages provided by this application, no major analysis can be performed such as variance examination or factor analyses.

4.9.2 SPSS statistical tool for linear regression

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is a software program developed for statistics. This application has been chosen as a complementary package for the present study in order to analyze the data since it provides reliable functionality; but being one of the main advantages that it allows re-codifying variables and records anytime without having to import the database every time. This program was mainly utilized due to its high level of consistency and also because it is possible to select cases

from the database and analyze them separately for later comparison. Each application function produces a result page including graphs and tables where information is well-structured and presented. SPSS was also crucial for the confirmatory factor analysis through a function called data reduction, in order to verify the consistency of the three main components of the research model. For the analysis of t-student, standard-error and level of significance, this program proved to have the best characteristics. Other attributes such as means comparison and ANOVA analysis are possible with this package and allow the user to produce plot charts and estimates for visual representation of results. This program was first tested with the pilot project and all necessary functionalities were tried in order to assure further data treatment with the main study. Further justification for the use of this program lies in the fact that it allows complex regression models (large databases), as well as advanced models as in the case of factor analysis by creating artificial variables turned from collinear variables; it is possible to also group and classify variables via cluster analysis; and perhaps one of the biggest advantages is the outcome tables which can be customized by the user according to the needs. The type of measure is quite simple to specify whether nominal, ordinal or scale; and data values can be easily managed as well. Perhaps just regarding heteroskedasticity tests, this is not a user-friendly platform since the process has to be done through the completion of other functionalities. Other software might result more appropriate for this particular test. The software edition used was version 12.0 for Windows which is sufficient in terms of required functionality.

4.9.3 GRETTL software package for econometric analysis

The third software package used in this work is called Gretl (version 1.9.2csv) and is an open-source application used generally by econometricists. Gretl stands for (GNU Regression, Econometrics, and Time-series Library). This interface provides the possibility of testing variables with linear regression as in SPSS but with the particularity that it presents the correlations indicating the level of significance (provability-value) with an asterisk for easier identification. It calculates coefficient, std.

error and t-ratio. Moreover, the mean of the dependent variable as well as the standard deviation of the dependent variable are calculated at the same time. Other useful calculations are for instance the sum square residual and standard error of the regression. However, perhaps the most relevant feature for which this package was selected are the collinearity and nonlinearity tests; and normality of residual which is presented in a graphical way. Other very valuable characteristics of this software are the ANOVA test; the heteroskedasticity test and; the graphical residual plots from the regression. This package is actually very powerful and results are presented in a comprehensive manner; it is also known for its high level of numerical accuracy. The only limitation of this program could be the fact that it does not offer as many analysis tools as other software alternatives available. “GRETLM is a high-quality feature-rich and accurate econometrics package” (Yalta and Yalta, 2007).

4.10 Factor analysis

Roughly speaking, all questions included in a survey could be considered variables, and the values assigned to each question can be determined by examining and evaluating the answers provided. However, since many of the questions concern similar topics or subtopics it is, to a certain extent, expected that some of those variables happen to have a mutual correlation. Depending on the nature of the research model such mutual correlation can be known or not. In exploratory factor analysis such correlation is ignored and the intention is to find such factors in number and characteristics. In the case of confirmatory analysis, the factors or mutual correlation of variables can be setup in advance and just be corroborated through the analysis.

A statistical factor analysis as a method among other possible purposes, intended to find the interrelations among variables in order to discover possible association into different dimensions, which are called factors. For the purposes of this research, and since the twelve main variables regarding intercultural competence were divided *a priori* into the three components, it is necessary to test and prove that such variables are accurately distributed and allocated amongst the three components. This technique of

data reduction and the results can merely be expressed as long as the hypothesis of distribution is validated. Interpretability is a requirement of this kind of analysis and; for the purposes of this study, the number of factors was clearly determined from the intercultural competence models revisited in the literature review. The three factors are: cognitive (for intercultural capabilities), emotional (for intercultural abilities) and social (for social skills), which means that this is a confirmatory type of factor analysis. The interpretation of the factors is based on the identification of variables whose correlations with the factor are the highest.

Frequently one of the purposes of the factor analysis is to determine whether some of the variables should be removed or not. In this study, variables are not intended to be removed since each of them corresponds to a specific intercultural competency that has to be taken to meaning, and the factor analysis is only used to corroborate and validate the correct distribution of variables within the three pre-defined components. The researcher decided thus, not to eliminate any variable of the model since a pertinent interpretation would follow up after the presentation of results.

4.10.1 Consistency of variables

The consistency of variables is a crucial aspect in any statistical analysis since it is important to assure reliability and homogeneity for a better interpretation of the phenomenon studied. Questions associated to one variable might eventually be misinterpreted by the informant and therefore it becomes essential to make sure that each answer provides a certain level of uniformity in relation to other answers of the same heading aspect. As can be appreciated in the questionnaire design section, each of the defined variables is supposed to be interpreted from the answers of four specific questions. That is, four questions associated to one variable. Theory in social science and management research suggests a coefficient of least 0.7 to assure reliability.⁶⁷ A pertinent test of reliability coefficient was conducted in order to guarantee the

consistency of both dependent and independent variables included in the research model.

4.11 Reliability of the study

4.11.1 Ethical considerations

As stated in the general introduction, the current investigation aims to analyse managerial attitudes related to cognitive capabilities, emotional abilities and social skills, as well as managers' readiness for organizational change in order to establish exactly that very correlation. Given the nature of the subject and the type of questions asked regarding personal attitudes towards certain situations, managers needed to accept participation in the study. Thus the managers who agreed to complete the questionnaire expressed their approval via email and proceeded to answer accordingly. The survey questionnaire was self-administered and totally anonymous so the manager did not have to disclose his or her name; and just the IP-address of the sender was kept for demographic statistical purposes since it was important to know in which country the response was generated. No questions involving confidential information of their companies was requested in the questionnaire; as neither was any information related to finance or strategic level. Managers were only asked to respond to aspects related to attitudes and behaviours within their working environments.

It is important to recall that managers were approached directly without any formal preceding request for access via institutional boards or committees. Managers used their own autonomy to decide upon their participation in this study. The latter may be considered valuable in terms of the veracity of the responses since there is no influence from upper levels who would be commanding the application of the questionnaire but just the free will of the manager.

⁶⁷ According to Thomson (1995), a good model normally presents reliable path coefficients, a relatively high R^2 and a consistency above the value of 0.7 for each variable construct. (group of questions).

4.11.2 Researcher credibility

The information presented as a result of the investigation responds to the methodology used in the study and which in turn comes from the comprehension of the context and the solidness of the definitions provided in the theoretical background. The latter shall set up the base of the researcher's credibility. Moreover, it was the researcher's responsibility to collect sufficient theoretical foundation prior to the development of any measurement instrument and then prove enough evidence of the hypotheses corroboration. A robust topic alone does not guarantee credibility and therefore the researcher's previous knowledge and exposure to the subject matter played a fundamental role in the conduction of this study. A number of information sources were consulted and interpreted in order to obtain valid elements for the assembly of the most appropriate tool and measurement scale criteria in order to carry out the research. This methodology was chosen by the researcher according to similar positivist studies using a quantitative approach but also considering that the nature of the study per se establishes the rationale for the subsequent assessment techniques incorporated.

The researcher's credibility is also supported by a steady conception of the idea; a setup of goals to be achieved; a revision of conceptual frameworks; the design of a measurement scale; a cautious selection of informants; the tactic for data collection itself; the strategies for analysis; and of course the researcher's own experience in the field. The researcher moreover, prioritized the appropriateness, transparency; comprehensiveness; reliability, meaningfulness and clarity of the information at all times.

The motivation given by the researcher to justify this approach and the instrument used were explained in the previous sections and mark the main criterion of the ultimate goal of the study which is to prove a positive direct correlation of intercultural competence and managers' readiness for change in the organization.

4.12 Chapter summary

The purpose of this chapter was to justify and explain the selected methodology according to the main research question, model and nature of the study. After a small introduction in the first section, it was considered necessary to make a brief summary of the existing scientific research approaches in order to rationalize and defend the chosen method. So aspects such as main types of research —qualitative versus quantitative— and deductive versus inductive methods were discussed. A next section was devoted to the foundation for a quantitative approach as the most appropriate method for this study. Including: design of the research; an explanation of the measurement instrument; design of the survey questionnaire; and reliability and validity of the measurement tool. Then a section on the target population —characteristics followed by a section to describe the configuration of the sample in terms of size and usage. Subsequent sections concerned data collection —process and classification-codification; definition of variables — measurement parameters, ANOVA variance analysis; used statistical application packages —SPSS, SmartPLS and GRETl as the main software; factor analysis — consistency of variables; and finally a section on reliability of the study including ethical considerations and researcher’s credibility.

Chapter 5

Analysis and
Presentation of Results

5 Analysis and Presentation of Results

A statistical analysis, properly conducted, is a delicate dissection of uncertainties, a surgery of suppositions.

M.J. Moroney

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the analysis and presentation of the results and it is divided into eleven sections including this introduction. The second section shows the descriptive statistics related to the demographics of the respondents and the respective graphical representation by item including frequencies and percentages. The third section deals with the analysis of normality of the sample covering normality of residual, the results of the heteroscedasticity test and the probability distribution illustrated with a P-P Plot of regression and a scatterplot. The next section aims to show the reliability of the sample by showing the cross-loading report of Cronbach's alpha coefficient as well as the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Section five concerns the results of the collinearity test performed with Gretl-Software. The next section (six) shows Parson's correlation table which analyses the existing correlations among the core variables including the dependent variable. Section seven shows the actual testing of the hypotheses concerning intercultural competence; that is, the twelve core variables of the model. Here, each variable is examined in terms of the regression results with a small reading for the clarification and interpretation of each variable's result. Section eight presents the results of the additional variables testing using the same patterns of explanation. Section nine presents the validation of the hypotheses and it shows the whole model tested in a graphical way including the t-distribution values associated to each of the variables. Section ten shows a post-hoc analysis including the confirmatory factor analysis of the formative components and presents the results of the broader

hypotheses testing on cognitive, emotional and behavioural/social dimensions. A last section is dedicated to a brief chapter summary.

5.2 Descriptive statistics

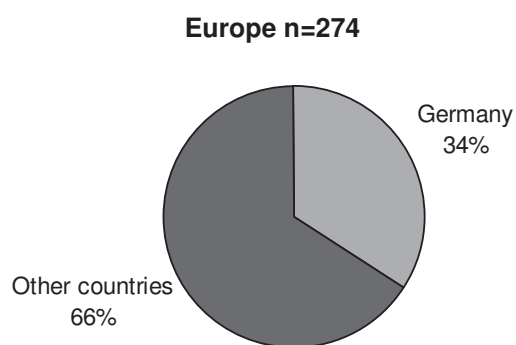
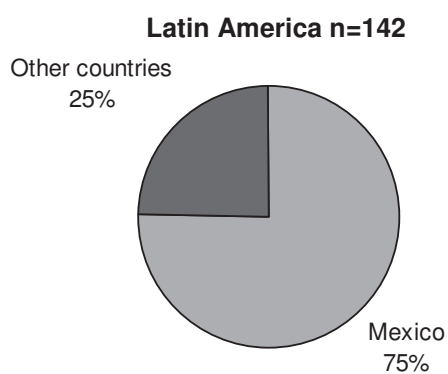
The sample (N=557) represents the total of responses received electronically after the self-administered questionnaire and it shows interesting frequencies which are presented in the following table. The first three items —*gender, age and family cultural condition*—along with the variable *educational level* were taken as control variables in order to analyse a possible relation with the dependent variable within the model. This table also shows the frequency distributions for the additional variables⁶⁸ such as *multicultural experience, level of management, type of manager and intercultural training exposure*.

Table 5-1 Respondent demographics information

Profile	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative (%)
Gender			
Male	253	43%	
Female	304	57%	100%
Age (years)			
20 – 30	433	78%	
31 – 40	97	17%	
41 – 50	17	3%	
51 – 60	10	2%	100%
Family cultural condition			
Monocultural	445	80%	
Bicultural	97	17%	
Multicultural	15	3%	100%
Marital status			
Single	406	73%	
Married	135	24%	
Divorced	16	3%	100%

⁶⁸ The included additional variables are items considered by the researcher as possible influencing factors of managers' readiness for organizational change, but as stated earlier, these variables are not the core variables of the study since the intention and research question stand for the effects of intercultural competence on the dependent variable.

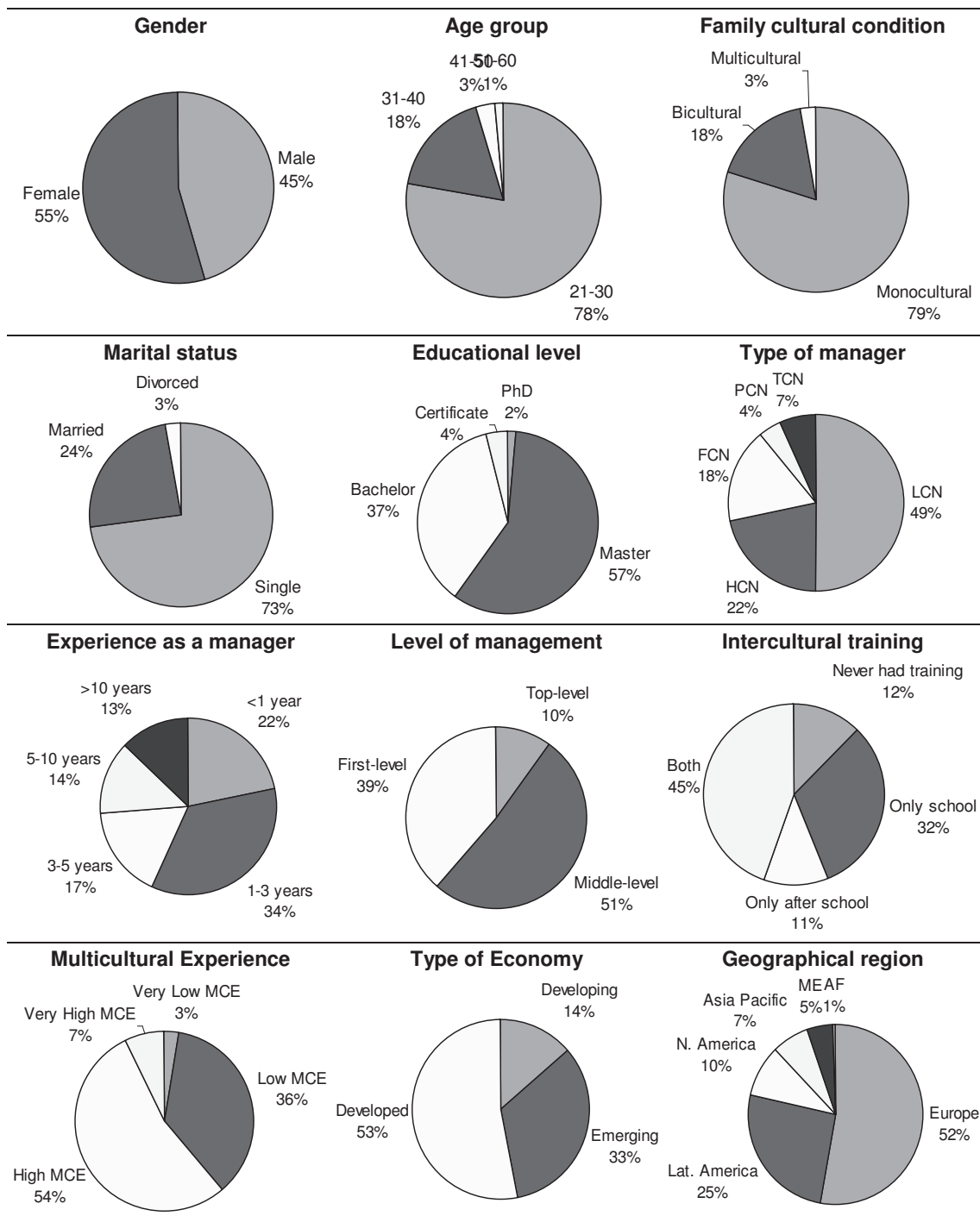
Profile	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative (%)
Educational level			
Ph.D.	10	2%	
Master	322	58%	
Bachelor	204	36%	
Certificate	21	4%	100%
Type of employee			
LCN- <i>Local Country National</i>	279	50%	
HCN- <i>Host Country National</i>	120	21%	
FCN- <i>Foreign Country National</i>	98	18%	
PCN- <i>Parent Country National</i>	23	4%	
TCN- <i>Third Country National</i>	37	7%	100%
Work experience as manager (years)			
<1 year	123	22%	
1-3 years	193	35%	
3-5 years	94	18%	
5-10 years	76	13%	
>10 years	71	12%	100%
Management level			
Top-level	55	10%	
Middle-level	286	51%	
First-level	216	39%	100%
Intercultural training exposure			
Never had intercultural training	69	12%	
Training only at university	176	32%	
Training only after school	63	11%	
Training both in school and after	249	45%	100%
World region ⁶⁹			
Europe	294	53%	
Latin America	142	25%	
North America	53	9%	
Asia Pacific	38	7%	
Middle East	27	5.46%	
Africa	3	0.54%	100%



⁶⁹ As shown above 75% of the Latin American sub-sample is represented by Mexican managers and 34% of the European sub-sample is represented by German managers. The latter opens the possibility of an interesting comparison due to the considerable number of respondents.

The following table shows a graphical version of the frequencies obtained from the sample. Proportions are also expressed in percentages using pie type diagrams.

Table 5-2 Graphical representation of respondents' demographics



5.3 Analysis of normality

5.3.1 Normality of residual

In order to corroborate a normal distribution of data, this is, to confirm a reliable fit of data within the model, a test of normality of distribution was executed with an application available in the SPSS package by using standardized predicted values with a plot function. The histogram [Figure 5.1] shows the distribution of the data within the model considering frequency and the standardized residuals resulting from the linear regression.

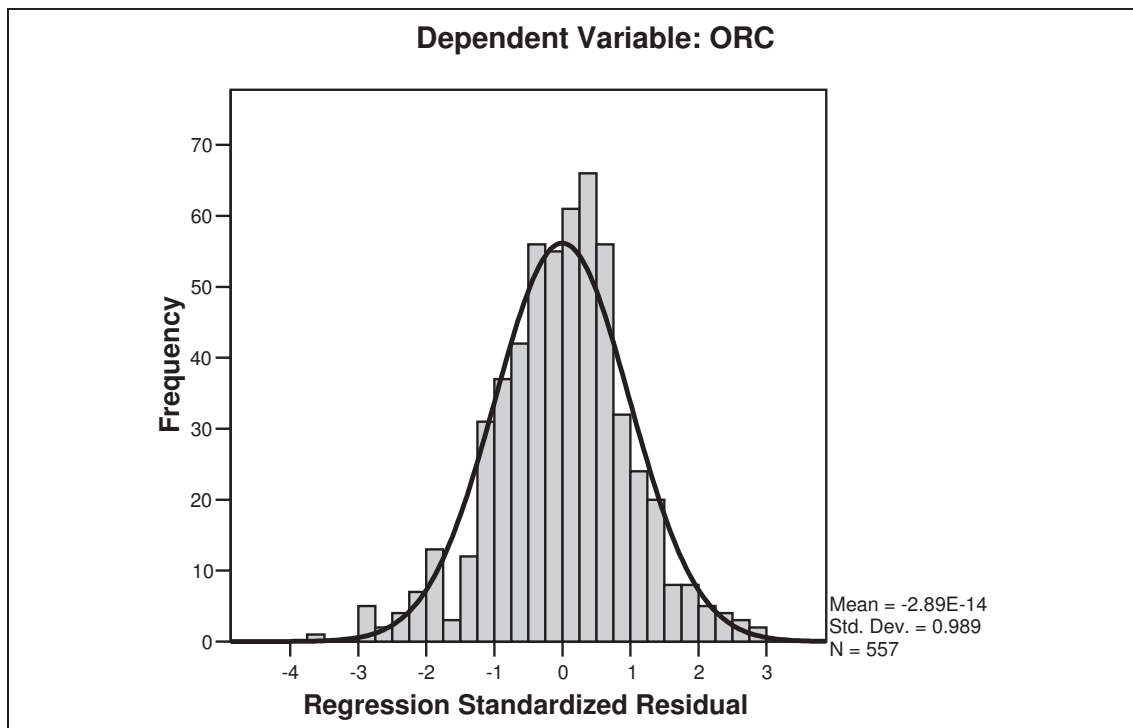


Figure 5.1 Histogram of normality

As can be observed in the above graphical representation, this test statistic shows normality considering the level of density of data for the whole sample. In a common heteroscedasticity-test (next section) it is normal that some of the coefficient estimated errors can be both positive or negative, but the majority relatively close to zero in order to conclude no heteroscedasticity problems.

5.3.2 Heteroscedasticity

The phenomenon called *heteroscedasticity* (related to the normality of distribution) occurs when the data of a given sample or sub-sample are not homogeneous, meaning that the originated distribution of probabilities is not uniformly spread. In other words, this basically happens when data does not present the same dispersion pattern and it shows that there is no *steadiness* in such distribution, therefore it presupposes a problem of inconsistency since the variance of error of the model is not constant either. Table 5.3 shows the results using White’s heteroscedasticity test stressing the standard error squares which suggests lower level of heteroscedasticity as the square values come closer to “0.” The test run with Gretl Software⁷⁰ confirms the square of error variances for each independent variable and all values appear to be close to zero as expected in conformity with the reliability of the model.

Table 5-3 White’s heteroscedasticity test (squares only)

VARIABLE	coefficient	std. error	t-ratio	p-value
sq_KDI	0.006	0.051	0.110	0.913
sq_RFO	0.017	0.048	0.362	0.718
sq_CUN	0.021	0.048	0.450	0.653
sq_CMI	-0.042	0.054	-0.780	0.436
sq_TAM	0.056	0.064	0.871	0.384
sq_EMP	0.017	0.046	0.379	0.705
sq_POL	-0.062	0.038	-1.610	0.108
sq_EMS	0.018	0.039	0.473	0.636
sq_BFL	0.011	0.046	0.244	0.808
sq_COA	-0.052	0.038	-1.375	0.170
sq_CDI	0.036	0.049	0.741	0.459
sq_SRA	0.035	0.050	0.694	0.488

Null hypothesis: heteroscedasticity not present

⁷⁰ White’s test for heteroscedasticity (squares only). White’s test is the most used test for detecting heteroscedasticity by calculating the square of residual.

5.3.3 Probability distribution

As part of the uniform distribution test and also for detecting a possible heteroscedasticity problem, a normal probability plot [Figure 5.2] was commanded using SPSS in order to show the expected probability versus the observed probability. In this graph it is evident that the behaviour of the data complies with the expected consistency in relation to the dependent variable.

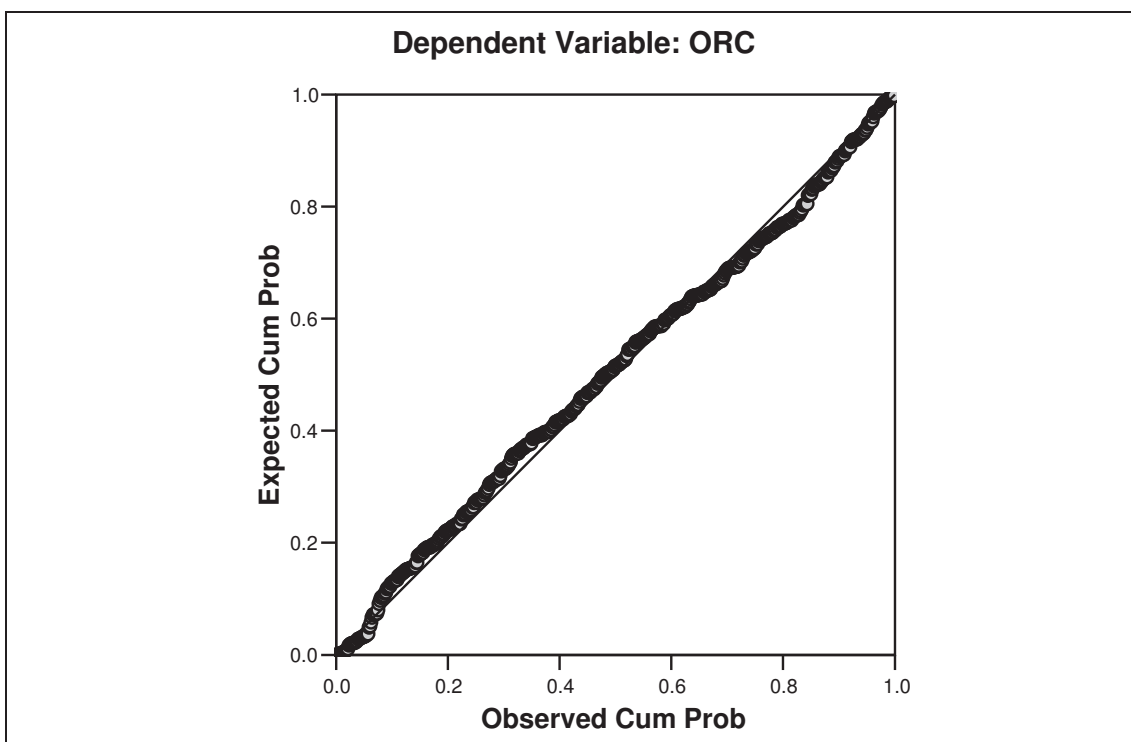


Figure 5.2 Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Finally, another visual testing called scatterplot [Figure 5.3] was used in order to further corroborate the data distribution assessment. According to an SPSS guide by Pryce (2002) there exists no heteroscedasticity or non-relevant level of heteroscedasticity when the residual plot visual representation shows a rather “spherical” form, such as in this case, where the residuals also seem normally

distributed.⁷¹ This following diagram contrasts the results of the regression standardized residual with that of the regression standardized predicted values.

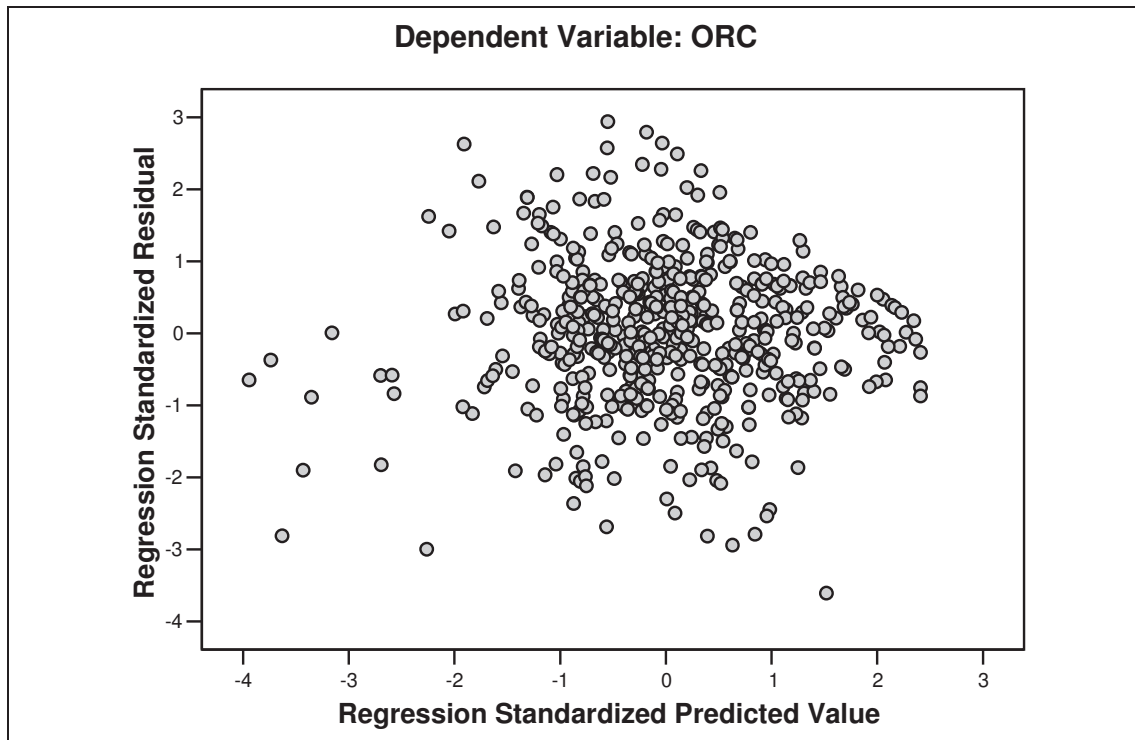


Figure 5.3 Scatterplot

5.4 Reliability of the sample

5.4.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficient

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient report was obtained at once by running the application using SmartPLS Software. The values produced between 0 and 1 (in bold) among variables should be higher than 0.7 in order to be considered reliable in social science research. The 0.70 means that at least 70% of the examination is consistent. This test was required to measure the reliability coefficient among all core variables. As explained in the methodology chapter, each variable was composed of four questions,

⁷¹ Gwilym Pryce, University of Glasgow (2002). Heteroscedasticity: Testing and Correcting in SPSS.

and those four questions should prove consistency among each other in order to trust the configuration of the variable.

The cross-loadings including all core variables as well as the independent variable are shown in table 5.4 in which it can be observed that most of the variables show values higher than “0.75” The total average of the coefficients is actually “0.79” which supposes an acceptable reliability level given the nature of this study.

Table 5-4 Cross-Loadings for variable consistency (Cronbach's Alpha)

VARIABLE	BFL	CDI	CMI	COA	CUN	EMP	EMS	KDI	ORC	POL	RFO	SRA	TAM
BFL72	0.803	0.407	0.454	0.435	0.439	0.403	0.316	0.386	0.436	0.361	0.380	0.413	0.420
BFL73	0.796	0.339	0.401	0.402	0.385	0.355	0.286	0.347	0.375	0.319	0.328	0.384	0.324
BFL74	0.813	0.451	0.437	0.414	0.469	0.416	0.371	0.380	0.442	0.370	0.410	0.452	0.469
BFL75	0.800	0.438	0.412	0.430	0.398	0.388	0.328	0.352	0.438	0.301	0.370	0.417	0.430
CDI80	0.401	0.785	0.441	0.467	0.412	0.404	0.450	0.265	0.437	0.317	0.290	0.423	0.440
CDI81	0.396	0.797	0.459	0.476	0.454	0.479	0.418	0.353	0.441	0.424	0.340	0.459	0.459
CDI82	0.362	0.781	0.365	0.448	0.350	0.443	0.380	0.277	0.425	0.349	0.291	0.435	0.379
CDI83	0.428	0.739	0.368	0.417	0.366	0.352	0.338	0.326	0.433	0.353	0.331	0.477	0.410
CMI52	0.405	0.436	0.787	0.505	0.625	0.470	0.376	0.438	0.436	0.362	0.432	0.389	0.442
CMI53	0.421	0.410	0.798	0.447	0.588	0.500	0.358	0.480	0.472	0.362	0.477	0.410	0.446
CMI54	0.383	0.388	0.797	0.471	0.508	0.426	0.355	0.394	0.395	0.351	0.394	0.343	0.390
CMI55	0.460	0.423	0.770	0.440	0.539	0.448	0.400	0.403	0.455	0.402	0.434	0.446	0.532
COA76	0.485	0.428	0.470	0.750	0.511	0.445	0.292	0.476	0.355	0.355	0.340	0.418	0.410
COA77	0.398	0.404	0.473	0.819	0.466	0.435	0.320	0.396	0.403	0.337	0.321	0.391	0.370
COA78	0.353	0.462	0.428	0.820	0.391	0.450	0.298	0.334	0.330	0.261	0.274	0.333	0.326
COA79	0.438	0.563	0.511	0.816	0.467	0.515	0.375	0.364	0.433	0.307	0.357	0.414	0.406
CUN48	0.423	0.391	0.603	0.481	0.827	0.439	0.342	0.566	0.431	0.365	0.534	0.434	0.458
CUN49	0.424	0.445	0.551	0.418	0.815	0.424	0.342	0.476	0.444	0.354	0.461	0.472	0.459
CUN50	0.421	0.414	0.591	0.498	0.817	0.483	0.378	0.505	0.434	0.388	0.478	0.481	0.478
CUN51	0.455	0.415	0.603	0.478	0.805	0.466	0.304	0.616	0.431	0.381	0.482	0.473	0.496
EMP60	0.371	0.423	0.475	0.504	0.418	0.800	0.309	0.358	0.363	0.360	0.348	0.414	0.460
EMP61	0.426	0.461	0.453	0.469	0.448	0.836	0.351	0.390	0.404	0.373	0.408	0.454	0.434
EMP62	0.380	0.485	0.507	0.543	0.482	0.836	0.386	0.423	0.432	0.411	0.388	0.416	0.439
EMP63	0.384	0.361	0.444	0.340	0.424	0.732	0.348	0.372	0.425	0.485	0.444	0.365	0.409
EMS68	0.319	0.416	0.385	0.336	0.332	0.359	0.809	0.249	0.418	0.432	0.287	0.352	0.426
EMS69	0.298	0.408	0.368	0.324	0.320	0.300	0.808	0.249	0.386	0.433	0.291	0.295	0.416
EMS70	0.367	0.383	0.406	0.318	0.364	0.377	0.838	0.256	0.430	0.408	0.334	0.354	0.387
EMS71	0.326	0.445	0.365	0.329	0.334	0.372	0.772	0.305	0.402	0.334	0.319	0.415	0.437
KDI40	0.357	0.300	0.428	0.375	0.504	0.359	0.272	0.798	0.338	0.267	0.440	0.391	0.400

INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND READINESS FOR CHANGE

VARIABLE	BFL	CDI	CMI	COA	CUN	EMP	EMS	KDI	ORC	POL	RFO	SRA	TAM
KDI41	0.342	0.316	0.400	0.384	0.521	0.317	0.228	0.771	0.300	0.230	0.374	0.385	0.370
KDI42	0.328	0.293	0.461	0.426	0.533	0.416	0.269	0.791	0.294	0.321	0.438	0.396	0.419
KDI43	0.399	0.327	0.433	0.365	0.528	0.420	0.262	0.790	0.415	0.331	0.514	0.480	0.486
ORC24	0.457	0.430	0.450	0.365	0.453	0.439	0.356	0.404	0.733	0.410	0.429	0.447	0.494
ORC25	0.448	0.358	0.412	0.346	0.391	0.384	0.360	0.390	0.706	0.363	0.413	0.398	0.501
ORC26	0.372	0.415	0.393	0.392	0.347	0.313	0.350	0.303	0.727	0.279	0.324	0.398	0.384
ORC27	0.376	0.376	0.395	0.314	0.349	0.369	0.375	0.314	0.739	0.304	0.400	0.405	0.410
ORC28	0.433	0.391	0.397	0.364	0.433	0.389	0.298	0.388	0.721	0.334	0.414	0.417	0.401
ORC29	0.321	0.420	0.399	0.341	0.375	0.363	0.352	0.313	0.685	0.337	0.353	0.422	0.381
ORC30	0.362	0.423	0.410	0.372	0.342	0.366	0.394	0.289	0.738	0.340	0.374	0.440	0.421
ORC31	0.409	0.421	0.427	0.340	0.387	0.390	0.393	0.278	0.790	0.436	0.394	0.448	0.461
ORC32	0.415	0.434	0.439	0.384	0.411	0.396	0.394	0.281	0.785	0.417	0.336	0.446	0.425
ORC33	0.322	0.341	0.355	0.350	0.371	0.329	0.314	0.330	0.705	0.321	0.368	0.386	0.376
ORC34	0.370	0.463	0.428	0.384	0.407	0.369	0.415	0.318	0.779	0.369	0.398	0.449	0.444
ORC35	0.399	0.419	0.419	0.334	0.368	0.401	0.408	0.307	0.750	0.388	0.411	0.387	0.396
ORC36	0.383	0.391	0.407	0.317	0.430	0.333	0.360	0.357	0.720	0.366	0.401	0.419	0.397
ORC37	0.361	0.446	0.412	0.344	0.398	0.365	0.349	0.311	0.736	0.380	0.335	0.447	0.413
ORC38	0.426	0.446	0.453	0.353	0.436	0.427	0.450	0.306	0.777	0.422	0.367	0.420	0.464
ORC39	0.376	0.429	0.412	0.367	0.393	0.365	0.411	0.266	0.722	0.368	0.331	0.423	0.441
POL64	0.307	0.348	0.382	0.298	0.346	0.427	0.345	0.335	0.352	0.791	0.398	0.346	0.365
POL65	0.330	0.326	0.354	0.271	0.385	0.390	0.370	0.303	0.387	0.799	0.379	0.340	0.372
POL66	0.348	0.407	0.361	0.340	0.375	0.392	0.348	0.317	0.418	0.812	0.378	0.394	0.406
POL67	0.347	0.389	0.392	0.336	0.337	0.418	0.508	0.219	0.410	0.769	0.312	0.327	0.421
RFO44	0.406	0.348	0.425	0.350	0.508	0.422	0.277	0.528	0.421	0.388	0.806	0.426	0.476
RFO45	0.252	0.224	0.344	0.216	0.348	0.293	0.235	0.353	0.311	0.261	0.731	0.217	0.331
RFO46	0.384	0.359	0.481	0.333	0.468	0.414	0.348	0.473	0.443	0.378	0.831	0.406	0.452
RFO47	0.405	0.324	0.480	0.361	0.543	0.425	0.332	0.423	0.424	0.408	0.789	0.386	0.435
SRA84	0.415	0.490	0.403	0.433	0.462	0.435	0.346	0.431	0.472	0.353	0.359	0.798	0.475
SRA85	0.451	0.446	0.386	0.365	0.460	0.369	0.327	0.441	0.452	0.344	0.362	0.812	0.469
SRA86	0.438	0.500	0.449	0.404	0.496	0.424	0.412	0.436	0.471	0.399	0.419	0.829	0.504
SRA87	0.385	0.443	0.407	0.383	0.435	0.441	0.341	0.415	0.464	0.347	0.372	0.809	0.415
TAM56	0.384	0.414	0.410	0.339	0.390	0.375	0.434	0.314	0.444	0.352	0.320	0.359	0.753
TAM57	0.450	0.400	0.438	0.307	0.429	0.346	0.368	0.436	0.411	0.336	0.457	0.460	0.768
TAM58	0.380	0.398	0.436	0.362	0.452	0.382	0.381	0.446	0.462	0.403	0.424	0.441	0.792
TAM59	0.360	0.445	0.473	0.431	0.491	0.548	0.384	0.445	0.439	0.412	0.452	0.488	0.730

5.4.2 Average variance extracted

The average variance extracted is an indicator of the captured variance by one factor in relation to the variance resulting from a measurement error (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). According to the regulating parameters of this concept, an AVE (Average Variance Extracted) higher than 0.5 is considered acceptable.⁷² Table 5.5 shows the correspondent AVE for each of the core variables with most values over 0.6 as indicator. This table shows also the alpha reliability values for each variable and additionally it also shows the R Square with a value of 0.526 (test run with SmartPLS) which basically means that these variables explain at least 52.6% of the phenomenon. This means the percentage that these selected variables have as influencing factors of managers' readiness for organizational change. These variables explain 52.6% of the model.

Table 5-5 Average Variance Extracted

VARIABLE	AVE	Reliability	R Square	Alpha	Communality	Redundancy
ORC	0.546	0.951	0.526	0.944	0.546	0.057
KDI	0.620	0.867	0.000	0.798	0.620	0.000
RFO	0.624	0.869	0.000	0.800	0.624	0.000
CUN	0.666	0.889	0.000	0.833	0.666	0.000
CMI	0.621	0.868	0.000	0.797	0.621	0.000
TAM	0.579	0.846	0.000	0.758	0.579	0.000
EMP	0.643	0.878	0.000	0.814	0.643	0.000
POL	0.629	0.871	0.000	0.803	0.629	0.000
EMS	0.651	0.882	0.000	0.821	0.651	0.000
BFL	0.645	0.879	0.000	0.817	0.645	0.000
COA	0.643	0.878	0.000	0.815	0.643	0.000
CDI	0.602	0.858	0.000	0.779	0.602	0.000
SRA	0.660	0.886	0.000	0.828	0.660	0.000

⁷² The AVE is used to measure the proportion of variance embedded in a construct by exposing the ratio resulting from the sum of the variance present in the construct (Gefen *et al.* 2000).

5.5 Collinearity test

In a linear regression, collinearity is normally related to standard errors for the estimates of a slope (curve inclination) and that can result in high uncertainty and unreliability of the data analysed (Lewis-Beck, 1995). For that reason it is important to measure to what extent collinearity is present in the model. Lewis-Beck recalls that high collinearity can be interpreted as unstable estimates.

According to the literature on social science research, collinearity becomes problematic if the values are higher than 10.0 and actually, collinearity values after test should be lower than 4.0 for a reliable estimation. The pertinent collinearity test concerning this study was performed using Gretl-Software version 1.9.2csv where all core independent variables were contrasted against each other and the results are shown in the following table.

Table 5-6 Collinearity test

VARIABLE	VALUE
KDI	2.089
RFO	1.884
CUN	2.948
CMI	2.587
TAM	2.205
EMP	2.066
POL	1.695
EMS	1.672
BFL	1.782
COA	2.059
SRA	2.026

As can be observed in this table, the values corresponding to each variable do not exceed the minimum desirable of 4.0 which can be assumed that no high collinearity is present so the estimates are reliable for the purposes of the regression. The results of this test reflect statistical stability reducing the risk of uncertainty.

5.6 Pearson's correlations

Another important test considered was Pearson's correlation of variables, which is used to verify that all independent variables are linearly correlated with each other and also correlated with the dependent variable. Table 5.7 shows the results of this quality criteria test where it can be observed that all variables present significant positive correlation. This is natural in this case due to the fact that all these independent variables relate to the notion of *intercultural competence* and therefore are highly associated.

Table 5-7 Pearson's correlation of variables

	ORC	KDI	RFO	CUN	CMI	TAM	EMP	POL	EMS	BFL	COA	CDI	SRA
ORC	1.00												
KDI	.426**	1.00											
RFO	.505**	.553**	1.00										
CUN	.532**	.663**	.592**	1.00									
CMI	.555**	.542**	.545**	.716**	1.00								
TAM	.576**	.533**	.537**	.581**	.576**	1.00							
EMP	.506**	.479**	.493**	.554**	.583**	.547**	1.00						
POL	.494**	.365**	.455**	.454**	.470**	.494**	.514**	1.00					
EMS	.506**	.328**	.379**	.417**	.472**	.518**	.434**	.500**	1.00				
BFL	.524**	.451**	.457**	.527**	.529**	.514**	.487**	.420**	.404**	1.00			
COA	.475**	.487**	.395**	.569**	.587**	.470**	.573**	.391**	.402**	.517**	1.00		
CDI	.559**	.390**	.397**	.508**	.523**	.545**	.538**	.464**	.513**	.509**	.578**	1.00	
SRA	.571**	.523**	.453**	.569**	.500**	.574**	.512**	.441**	.436**	.520**	.480**	.576**	1.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level **

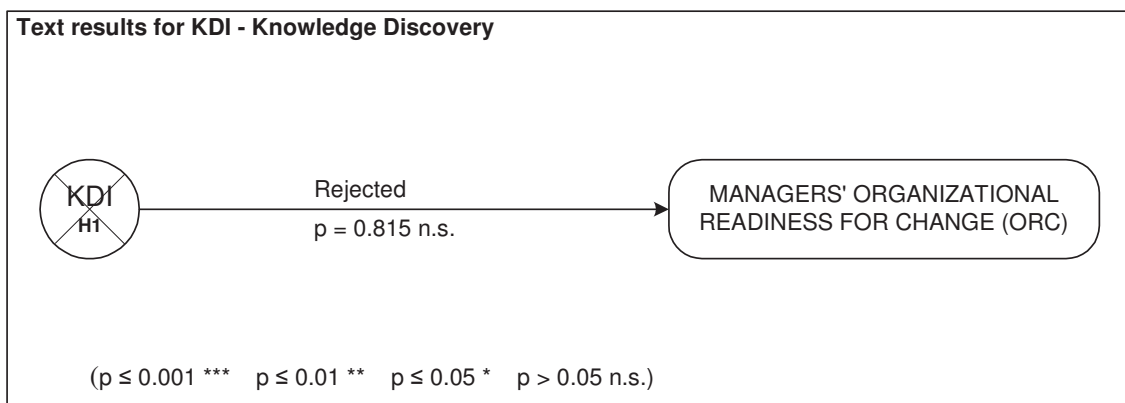
Listwise N=557

5.7 Hypothesis testing- intercultural competencies

5.7.1 H1: Knowledge Discovery (KDI) and readiness for change (ORC)

The first hypothesis of the model H1 (knowledge discovery) supposes no significant correlation with the dependent variable since the result of the testing shows a negative coefficient and continuous probability distribution (t-distribution = -0.235) with a standardized coefficient $\beta = -0.010$ and a probability for KDI is expressed as $p = 0.815$ which exceeds clearly the $p > 0.05$ standard criteria. Therefore, KDI is rejected as an influencing intercultural capability of the cognitive component to readiness for change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
KDI	-0.014	0.060	-0.010	-0.235	0.815

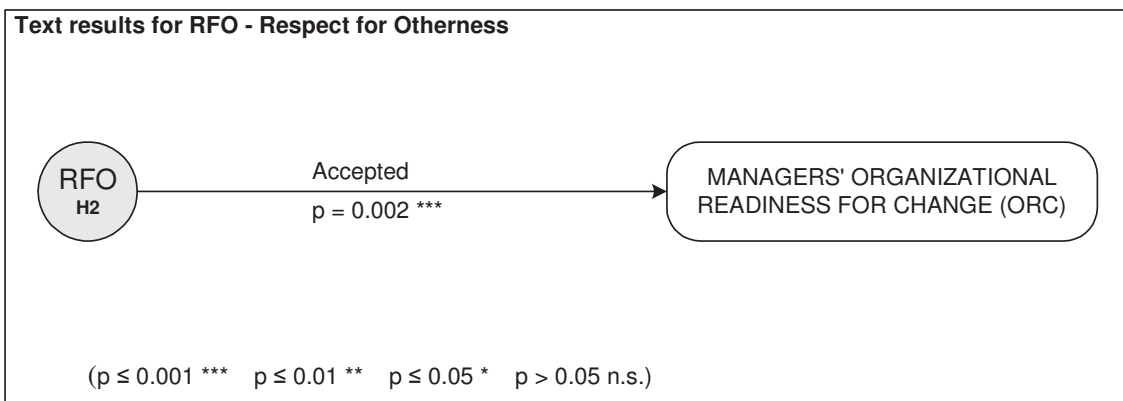


Reading: there is **no** significant correlation between *knowledge discovery* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.2 H2: Respect for Otherness (RFO) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H2 (respect for otherness) shows a significant positive correlation with the dependent variable with a positive t-distribution = 3.185 and a positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.128$. The estimated probability is very high with a $p = 0.002$ which supposes the acceptance of the variable as an influencing intercultural capability of the cognitive component.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
RFO	0.162	0.051	0.128	3.185	0.002 ***

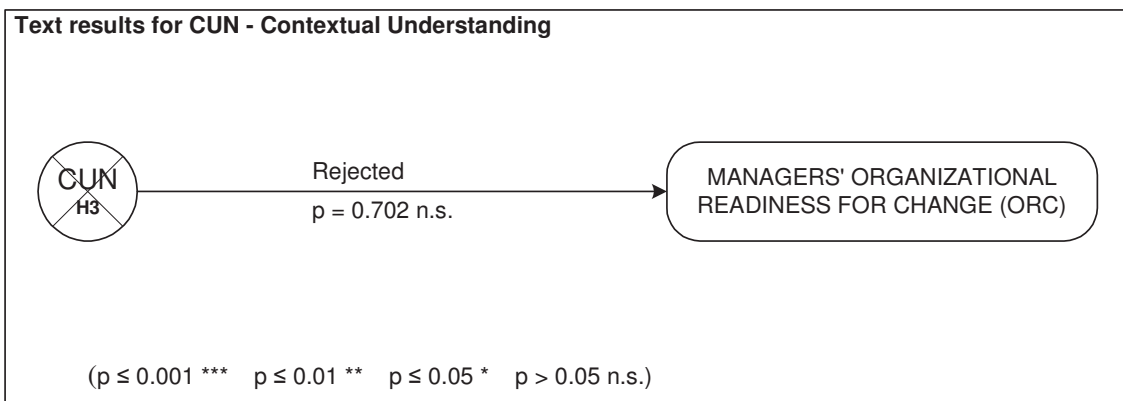


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *respect for otherness* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.3 H3: Contextual Understanding (CUN) and readiness for change (ORC)

The third hypothesis of the model H3 (contextual understanding) presents no significant correlation with the dependent variable as in the case of KDI. A positive t-distribution = 0.382 and a low probability expressed as $p = 0.702$. Standardized coefficient is positive as $\beta = 0.019$. This variable does not represent a considerable cognitive influencing factor and consequently this hypothesis is also discarded.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
CUN	0.023	0.061	0.019	0.382	0.702

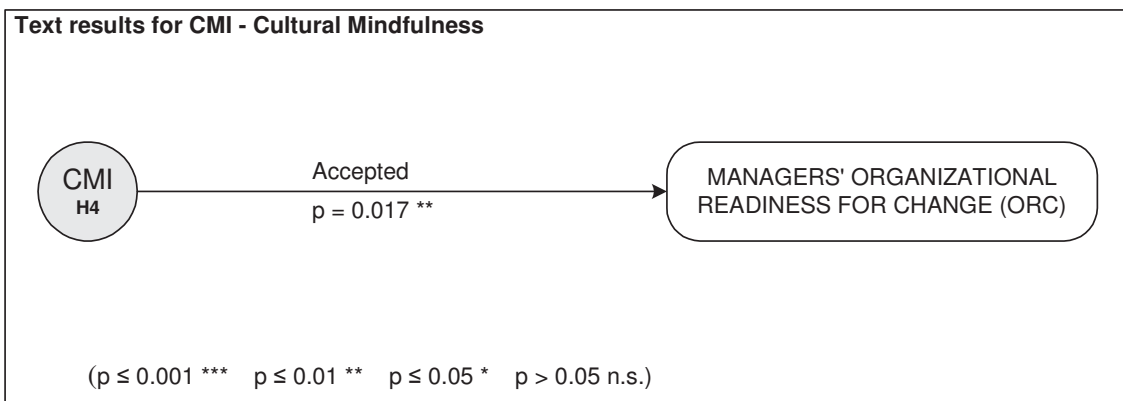


Reading: there is **no** significant correlation between *contextual understanding* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.4 H4: Cultural Mindfulness (CMI) and readiness for change (ORC)

The fourth hypothesis H4 corresponding to the last cognitive variable (cultural mindfulness) shows a positive value for t-distribution = 2.391 and a positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.112$ along with a probability estimated in $p = 0.017$ of correlation, making this variable an influencing factor on the dependent variable. This hypothesis is validated according to the established criteria.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
CMI	0.143	0.060	0.112	2.391	0.017 **

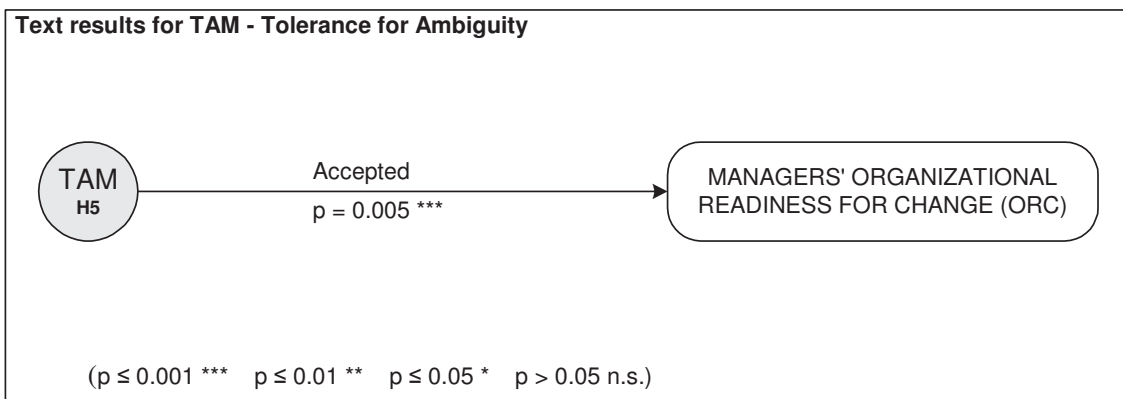


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *cultural mindfulness* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.5 H5: Tolerance for Ambiguity (TAM) and readiness for change (ORC)

The fifth hypothesis H5 as the first variable corresponding to the emotional abilities (tolerance for ambiguity) shows a significance positive correlation through a t-distribution = 2.853 / positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.124$ and an estimated probability of $p = 0.005$ which supposes a clear relationship with the dependent variable. Consequently, this variable is as well validated as influencing factor.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
TAM	0.169	0.059	0.124	2.853	0.005 ***

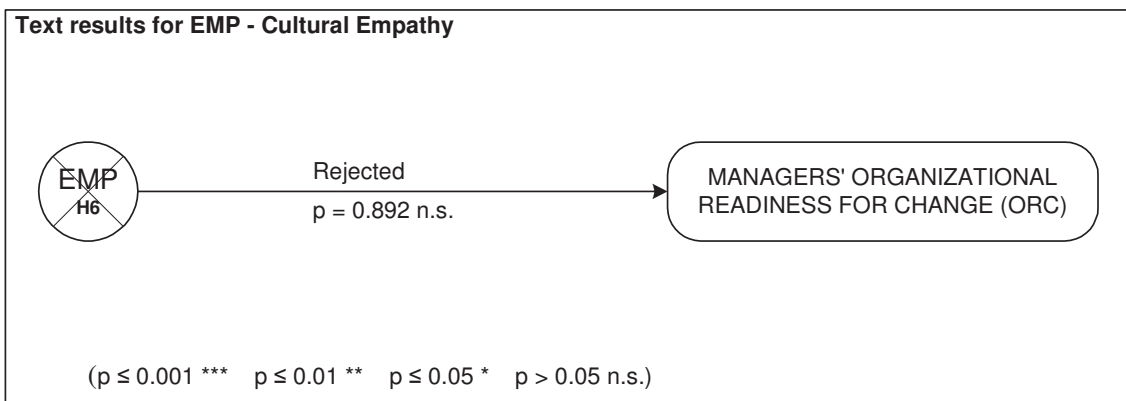


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *tolerance for ambiguity* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.6 H6: Cultural Empathy (EMP) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H6 (cultural empathy) shows a negative t-distribution = -0.136 with an insignificant influence on the dependent variable represented by a p = 0.892 and an associated negative standardized coefficient $\beta = -0.006$. These values suppose no considerable correlation between variables. This hypothesis is rejected within the model as an influencing factor on the defined dependent variable.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
EMP	-0.007	0.053	-0.006	-0.136	0.892

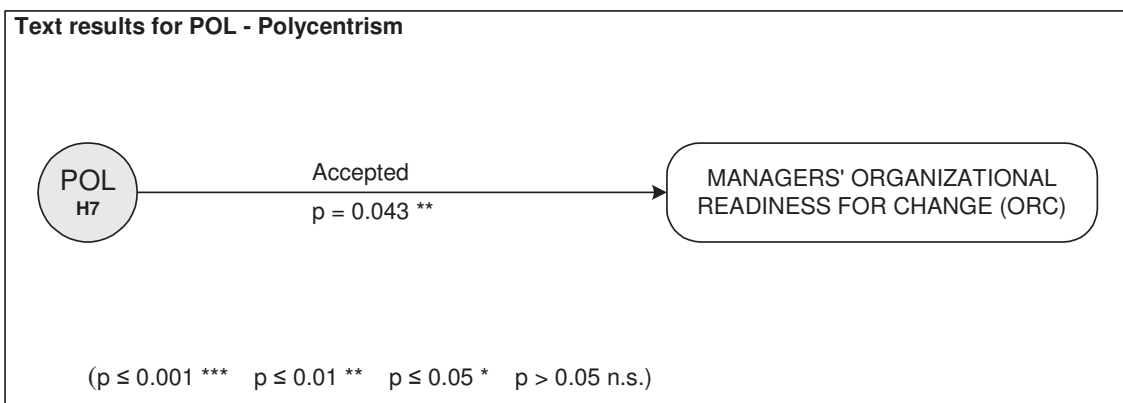


Reading: there is **no** significant correlation between *cultural empathy* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.7 H7: Polycentrism (POL) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H7 (polycentrism) shows a significant correlation with the dependent variable with a positive t-distribution of 2.027 and a standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.077$. The estimated probability is noticeable as $p = 0.043$ which supposes the acceptance of the variable as an influencing intercultural capability of the emotional component.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
POL	0.085	0.042	0.077	2.027	0.043 **

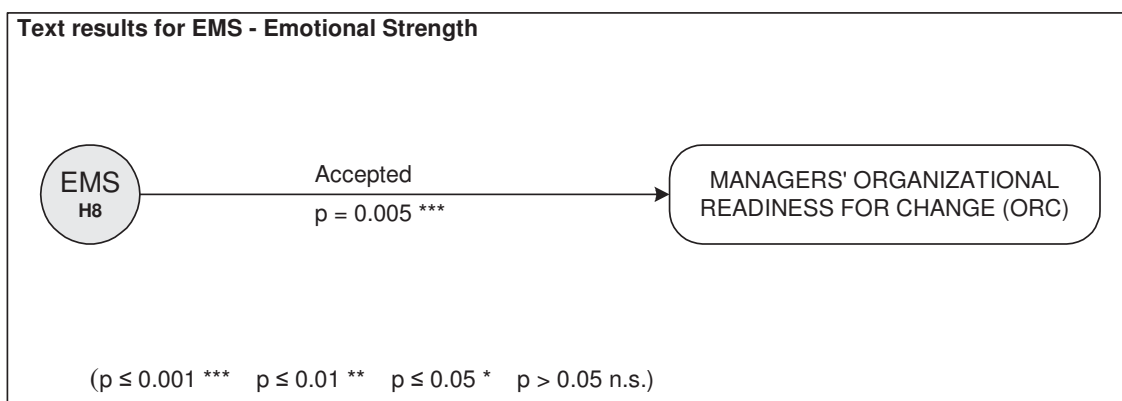


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *polycentrism* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.8 H8: Emotional Strength (EMS) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H8 (emotional strength) presents high correlation values expressed through a t-distribution of 2.799 and a positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.106$ as concerning $p = 0.005$ showing highly significant influence validating H8 as an emotional determinant factor or managers' readiness for organizational change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
EMS	0.123	0.044	0.106	2.799	0.005 ***

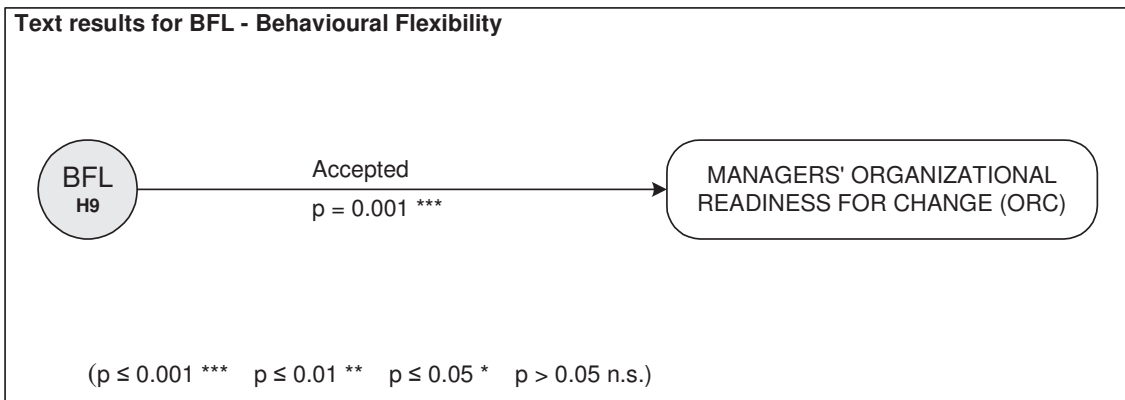


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *emotional strength* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.9 H9: Behavioural Flexibility (BFL) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H9 concerning (behavioural flexibility) shows also highly significant correlation through the following values: t-distribution = 3.364 and is positive $\beta = 0.132$ and with a $p = 0.001$ upon which it can be clearly validated as a highly influencing behavioural skill on managers' readiness for change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
BFL	0.167	0.050	0.132	3.364	0.001 ***

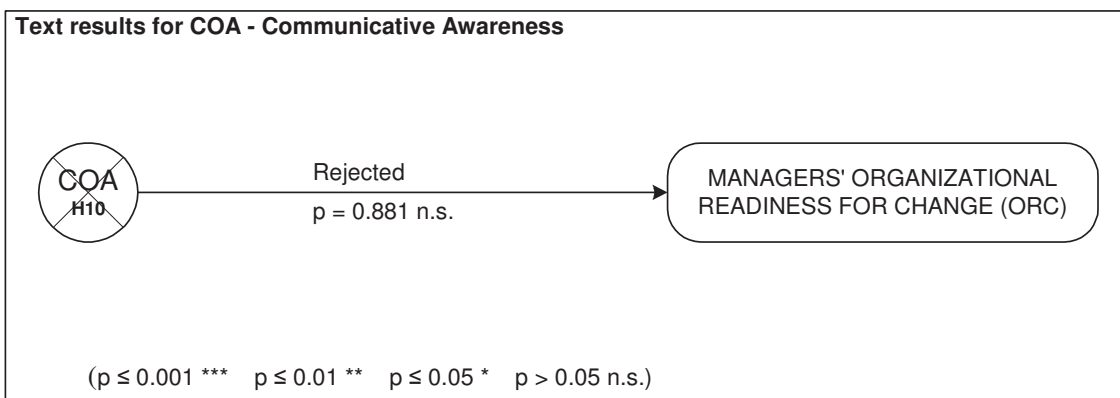


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *behavioural flexibility* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.10 H10: Communicative Awareness (COA) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H10 (communicative awareness) does not appear to be significant as the values resulting show a very low t-distribution of 0.149 with a positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.006$ but an estimated probability expressed as $p = 0.881$. Therefore this variable is not relevant and cannot be considered an influencing factor over the dependable variable. This behavioural (social) skill shows no correlation with managers' readiness for change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
COA	0.008	0.051	0.006	0.149	0.881

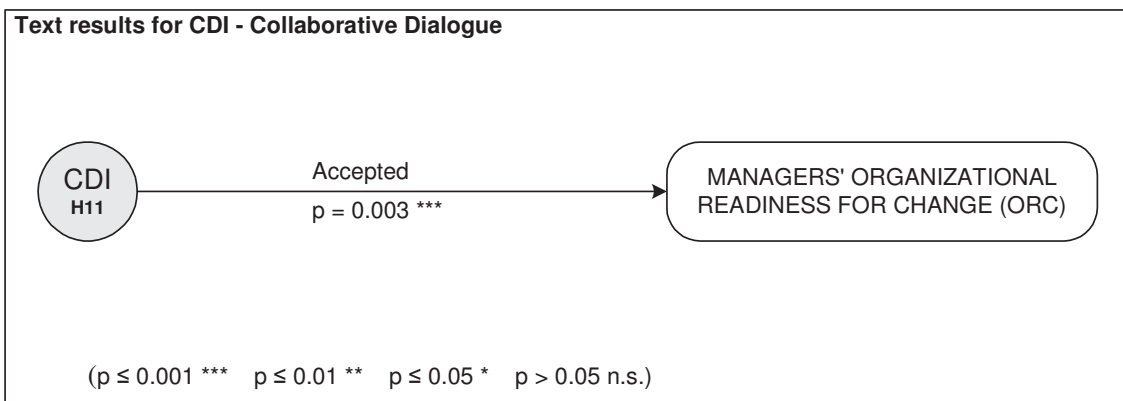


Reading: there is **no** significant correlation between *communicative awareness* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.11 H11: Collaborative Dialogue (CDI) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H11 (collaborative dialogue) contrary to the communicative awareness variable, shows quite significant positive correlation as deducting from the values of t-distribution = 3.018 (positive standardized coefficient $\beta = 0.130$) and a probability of $p = 0.003$ which supposes a high correlation between collaborative dialogue and organizational readiness for change in managers.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
CDI	0.164	0.054	0.130	3.018	0.003 ***

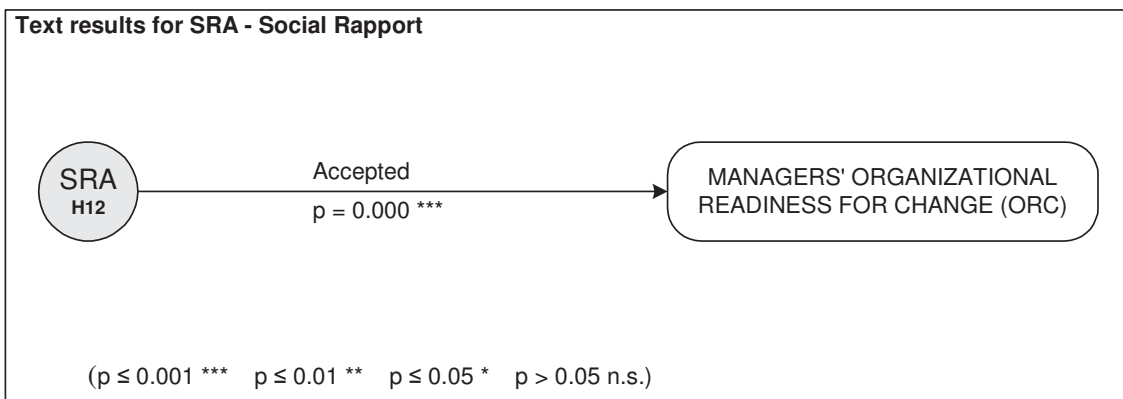


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *collaborative dialogue* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.7.12 H12: Social Rapport (SRA) and readiness for change (ORC)

The last hypothesis H12 of the core variable construct is also highly (the most) positively correlated variable of the primary model. This can be seen as results of the test throw a t-distribution = 3.613 standardized coefficient is positive $\beta = 0.130$ with a corresponding $p = 0.000$ so making this variable prominently influential. Social rapport is therefore a behavioural skill highly influencing readiness for change in managers.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
SRA	0.194	0.054	0.152	3.613	0.000 ***



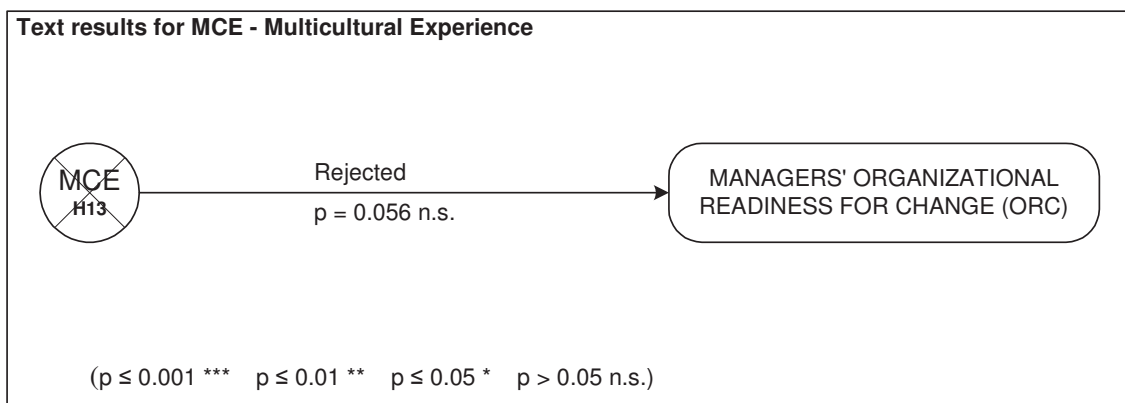
Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *social rapport* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.8 Hypothesis testing – additional factors

5.8.1 H13: Multicultural experience (MCE) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H13 (multicultural experience) is the first additional variable to the model to be tested and after the analysis it presents a non-significant negative correlation with the dependent variable with the following values of t-distribution = -1.932 which is below the 1.96 for validating the hypothesis; a negative $\beta = -0.079$ and the estimated $p = 0.056$. These results suppose no significant correlation between the individual multicultural experience of the manager on his/her level of readiness for organizational change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
MCE	-0.097	0.047	-0.079	-1.932	0.561

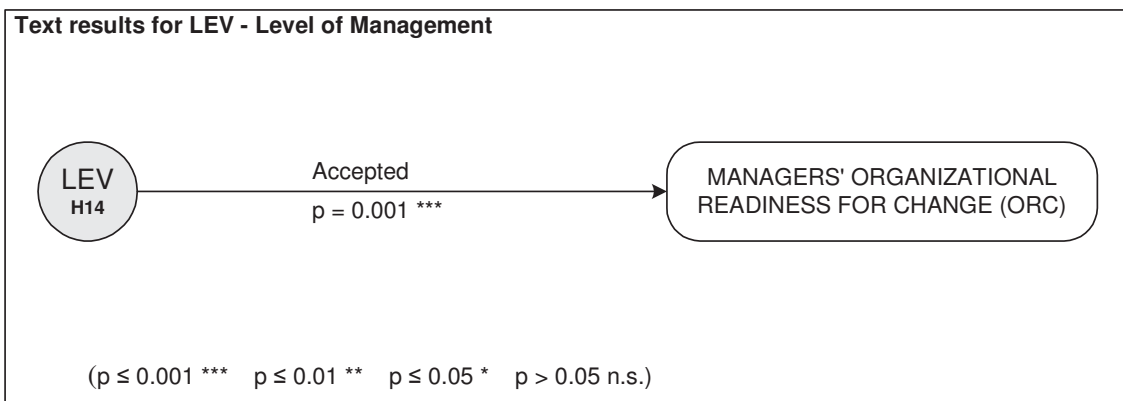


Reading: there is a non-significant **negative** correlation between *multicultural experience* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.8.2 H14: Management level (LEV) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H14 of the additional variables’ analysis (level of management) shows significant positive correlation with the dependent variable as expressed with a t-distribution = 3.465 and a positive $\beta = 0.114$ along with a highly significant estimated probability of $p = 0.001$ which means that the level of management is a determinant factor of managers’ readiness for organizational change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
LEV	0.132	0.038	0.114	3.465	0.001 ***

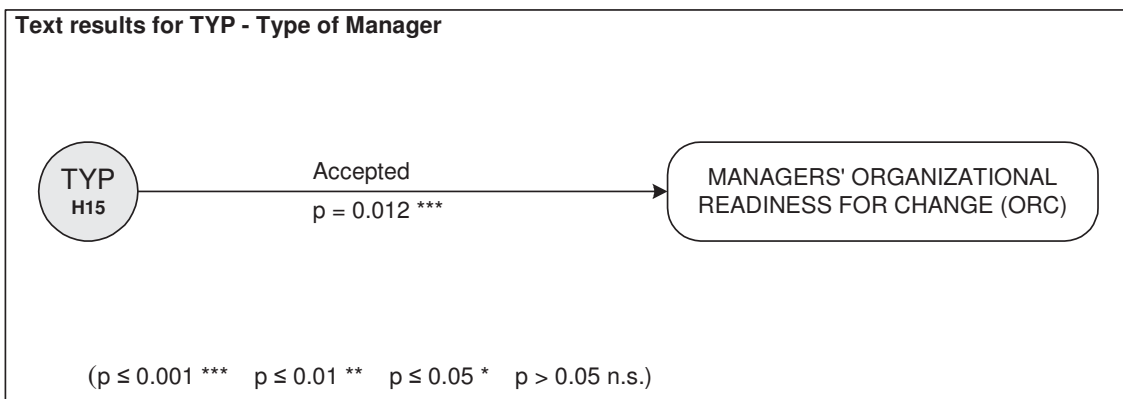


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *level of management* and managers’ readiness for organizational change.

5.8.3 H15: Type of manager (TYP) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H15 on (type of manager) according to level of internationalisation; appears to be highly significant as correlation is supported through a t-distribution of 2.507 with a positive $\beta = 0.084$ and a probability of $p = 0.012$. So the type of manager is a considerable influencing variable of the model as it clearly has an impact on the readiness for change of the manager.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
TYP	0.051	0.020	0.084	2.507	0.012 **

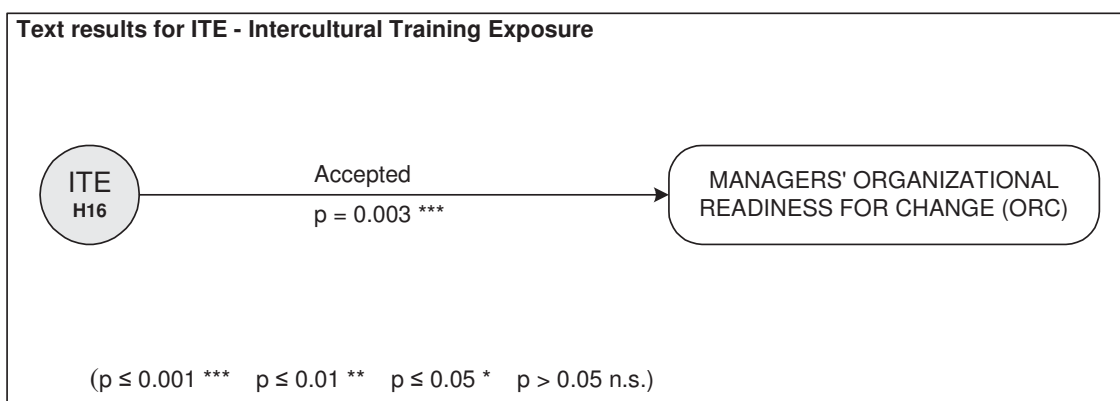


Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *type of manager* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.8.4 H16: Intercultural training (ITE) and readiness for change (ORC)

Hypothesis H16 (intercultural training exposure) is the last additional variable that was measured after the intercultural competencies and it shows a considerable high correlation with the dependent variable as well. The values are represented as t-distribution = 3.024 with a positive $\beta = 0.091$ and the estimated probability of $p = 0.003$ which infers a high significant correlation between the intercultural training exposure of the manager and his/her capability of change readiness within the organization.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
ITE	0.058	0.019	0.091	3.024	0.003 ***



Reading: there is a significant **positive** correlation between *intercultural training exposure* and managers' readiness for organizational change.

5.9 Validation of hypotheses

The validation of the hypothesis using SmartPLS permitted testing the whole model at once including the additional variables. Figure 5.4 shows the result of the regression and the associated values. Blank circles express no positive significant influence on the dependent variable (center). Grey circles, on the other hand, express significant correlation with the dependent variable that is, hypothesis validated.⁷³ As can be observed in this diagram, variables were tested directly without any specific component allocation or dimension, and they show relevant results in terms of correlations. Eight out of the twelve core variables (intercultural competence) appear to be positively correlated with managers' organizational readiness for change. This means that 66.67% of the hypotheses are validated. Though if we consider the total sixteen variables (including the additional factors) in the regression, then it can be observed that eleven out of sixteen hypotheses are validated. This means that 68.75% of the hypotheses of the new model are validated.

⁷³ In the regression were included as well four control variables (gender, age, family cultural condition and level of education) though they are not disclosed in figure 5.4.

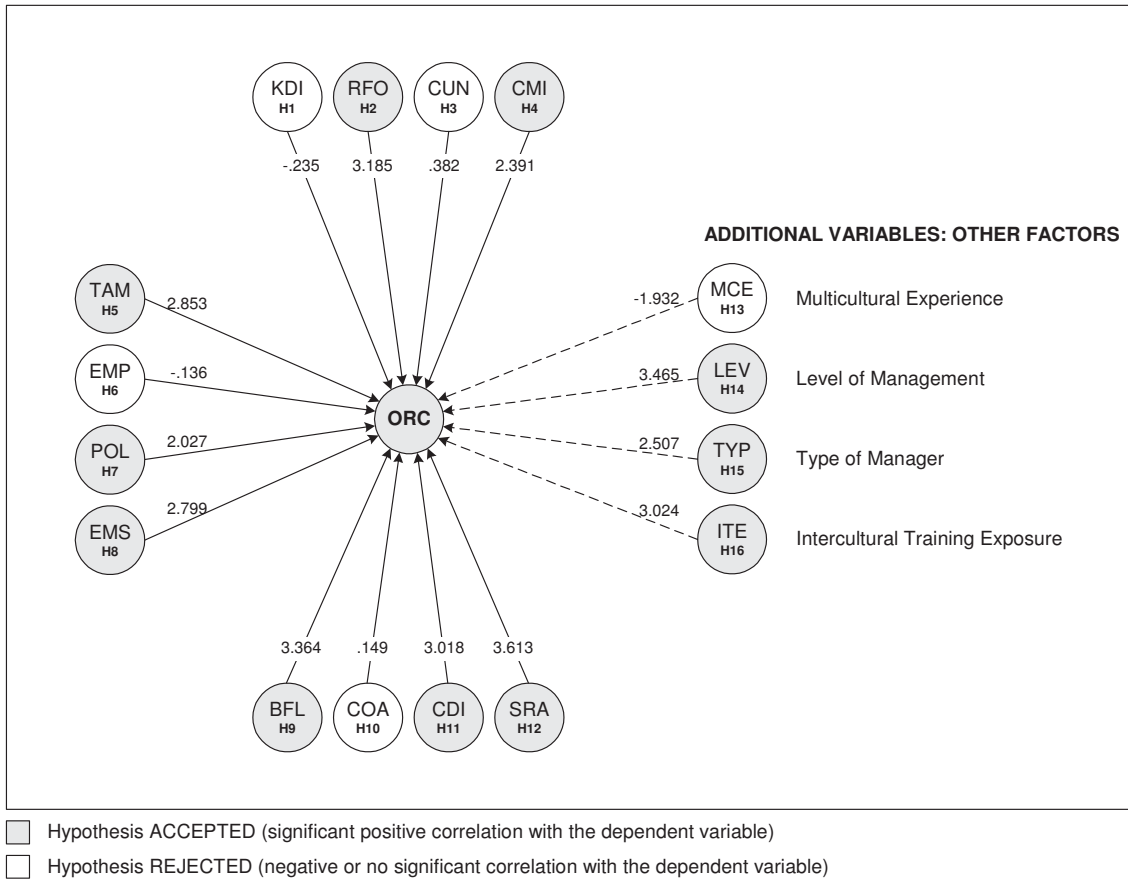


Figure 5.4 Validation of hypotheses

The control variables selected in this model are shown at the bottom of table 5.8 (in bold) and they reflect no significant correlation with the dependent variable. It was necessary though to include such variables to corroborate that some of the demographic factors would not interfere in the hypothesis testing as possible relevant influencing factors. The fact of not having significant positive correlation can be interpreted as the non-presence of bias in the model at least as it concerns with this typically used control variables. Figure 5.5 shows another graphical representation of the model where values can be analysed and hypothesis validity can be directly determined.

Table 5-8 Validation of hypotheses including control variables

Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t-statistics	Sig.
(Constant)	0.640	0.243		2.635	0.009
KDI	-0.014	0.060	-0.010	-0.235	0.815
RFO	0.162	0.051	0.128	3.185	0.002 ***
CUN	0.023	0.061	0.019	0.382	0.702
CMI	0.143	0.060	0.112	2.391	0.017 **
TAM	0.169	0.059	0.124	2.853	0.005 ***
EMP	-0.007	0.053	-0.006	-0.136	0.892
POL	0.085	0.042	0.077	2.027	0.043 **
EMS	0.123	0.044	0.106	2.799	0.005 ***
BFL	0.167	0.050	0.132	3.364	0.001 ***
COA	0.008	0.051	0.006	0.149	0.881
CDI	0.164	0.054	0.130	3.018	0.003 ***
SRA	0.194	0.054	0.152	3.613	0.000 ***
MCE	-0.097	0.047	-0.079	-1.932	0.561
TYP	0.051	0.020	0.084	2.507	0.012 **
LEV	0.132	0.038	0.114	3.465	0.001 ***
ITE	0.058	0.019	0.091	3.024	0.003 ***
FAM	-0.015	0.027	-0.017	-0.580	0.562
AGE	-0.026	0.037	-0.023	-0.696	0.487
GEN	0.079	0.045	0.053	1.751	0.080
EDU	0.002	0.038	0.002	0.055	0.956

Dependent Variable: ORC

Both the previous diagram and the above table show the results after running the regression of the model. The significance of each variable can be observed in the following bar chart.

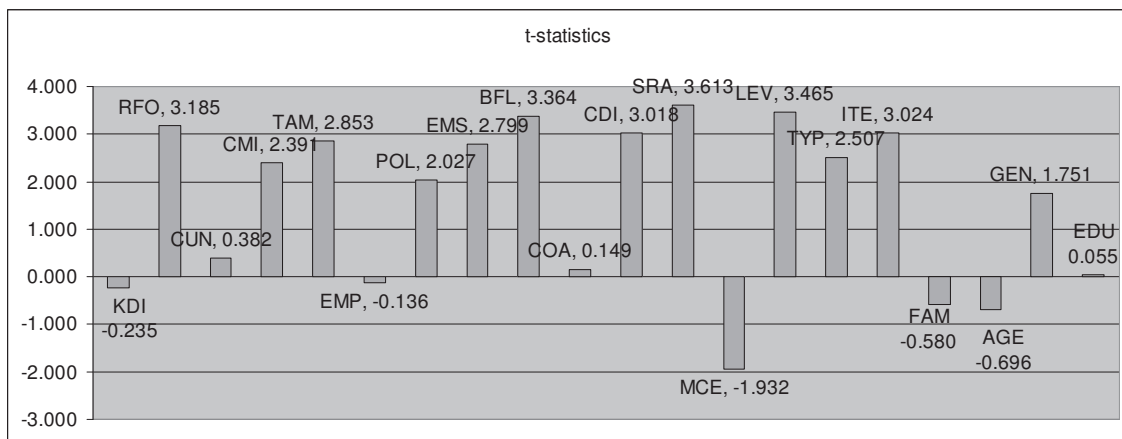


Figure 5.5 Bar chart of variables' t-statistics coefficients

Table 5.9 summarizes and translates the numeric results into statements of validation and marks as “accepted” and “rejected” the respective tested hypotheses for a more comprehensible interpretation of the results.

Table 5-9 Accepted and rejected hypotheses

Hypotheses		Result	
<u>CORE MODEL VARIABLES (INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE)</u>			
Hypothesis 1:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between knowledge discovery and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	X
Hypothesis 2:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between respect for otherness and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 3:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between contextual understanding and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	X
Hypothesis 4:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between cultural mindfulness and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 5:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between tolerance of ambiguity and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 6:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between cultural empathy and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	X
Hypothesis 7:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between polycentrism and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 8:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between emotional strength and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 9:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between behavioural flexibility and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 10:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between communicative awareness and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	X
Hypothesis 11:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between collaborative dialogue and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 12:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between social rapport and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
<u>ADDITIONAL VARIABLES (OTHER INFLUENCING FACTORS)</u>			
Hypothesis 13:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between multicultural experience and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	X
Hypothesis 14:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between the level of management and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 15:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between the type of manager and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Hypothesis 16:	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between intercultural training and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓

5.10 Post-hoc hypothesis analysis

5.10.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

As clarified in previous sections, the twelve intercultural competence variables were collated in three main groups or dimensions in order to be measured in a broader level. Thus, in order to make sure that the three groups of four variables each would be correctly associated and allocated within the three components, it was necessary to perform a confirmatory factor analysis which results are shown in the following table.

Table 5-10 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

VARIABLE	(1)	(2)	(3)
KDI	0.793	0.072	0.321
RFO	0.774	0.360	0.098
CUN	0.718	0.192	0.458
CMI	0.572	0.283	0.507
TAM	0.496	0.504	0.373
EMP	0.393	0.377	0.540
POL	0.297	0.768	0.176
EMS	0.113	0.775	0.315
BFL	0.352	0.248	0.608
COA	0.283	0.109	0.809
CDI	0.113	0.433	0.732
SRA	0.393	0.332	0.551

The relevant values (expressed in bold) are the higher values of each column and it can be observed that, except for the variable empathy (EMP) all variables match accurately with the formative levels. The first four variables (column 1) represent the cognitive dimension; the last four variables (column 3) represent the behavioural/social dimension; and three of the four middle variables match in accordance to the emotional component criteria. Now, concerning the variable empathy (EMP) it is shown with a higher level on column 3. This can be explained because some authors regard empathy as a social skill rather than an emotional ability e.g. Ting-Toomey (2009) who includes empathy as a social skill factor (Chapter 2; Figure 2.11). However (Dirks, 1995; Barmeyer, 2004; Keršienė and Savanevičienė, 2005) clearly define empathy as rather an

emotional-affective ability. Based on that, and for the purposes of the further multilevel analysis, the variable empathy will be considered an emotional element. Thus, the formative model was tested and each component analysed as general hypotheses called cognitive (COG), emotional (EMO) and behavioural/social (SOC). The following table shows the analysis of convergent validity of the formative components.⁷⁴

Table 5-11 Average Variance Extracted

VARIABLE	AVE	Reliability	R Square	Alpha	Communality	Redundancy
ORC	0.546	0.951	0.509	0.944	0.546	0.085
COG	0.702	0.904	0.000	0.858	0.702	0.000
EMO	0.626	0.870	0.000	0.801	0.626	0.000
SOC	0.647	0.880	0.000	0.819	0.647	0.000

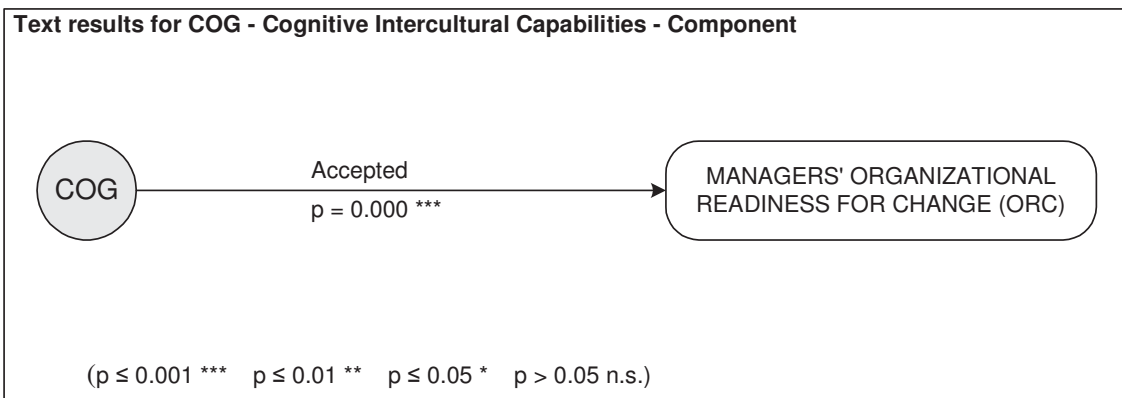
As can be observed in the table each formative item presents a higher loading though the R^2 remains with a similar value explaining at least 50% of the model.

⁷⁴ According to Gefen *et al.* (2000), the AVE is calculated as the “correlation between the factor scores and the standardized measures.”

5.10.2 Cognitive intercultural capabilities (COG) and readiness for change (ORC)

Testing the cognitive component as a separate constituent enclosing the four associated variables: KDI, RFO, CUN and CMI; shows a significant positive correlation with the dependent variable ORC with a t-distribution = 3.819 with a $\beta = 0.187$ and a level of significance indicated as $p = .000$. This provides evidence of a considerable positive influence of intercultural capabilities on managers' readiness for organizational change.

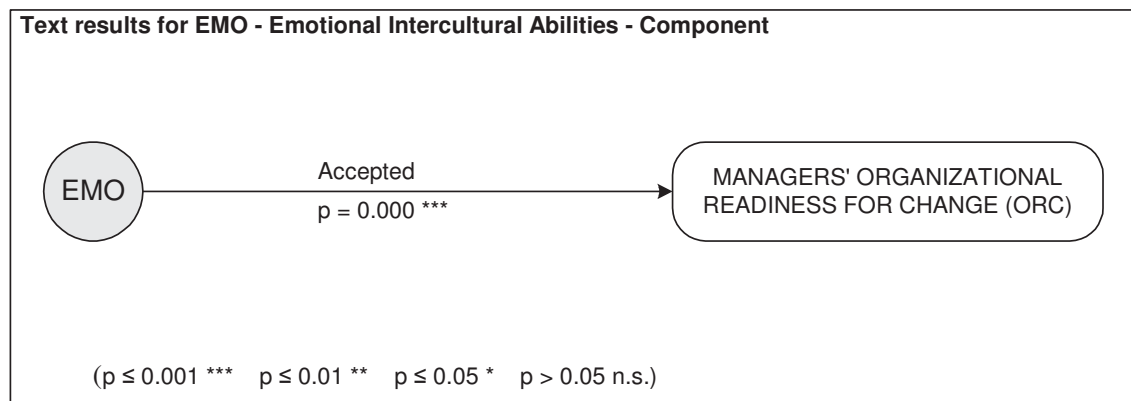
VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
COG	0.283	0.074	0.187	3.819	0.000 ***



5.10.3 Emotional intercultural abilities (EMO) and readiness for change (ORC)

The emotional dimension including: TAM, EMO, POL and EMS; shows a significant positive correlation with the dependent variable ORC with a t-distribution = 5.740 with a positive $\beta = 0.279$ and a level of significance expressed with $p = .000$ which proves a high positive influence of the emotional intercultural abilities on managers' readiness for organizational change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
EMO	0.427	0.074	0.279	5.740	0.000 ***



5.10.4 Behavioural intercultural skills (SOC) and readiness for change (ORC)

The behavioural/social component embracing BFL, COA, CDI and SRA presents the highest positive correlation with the dependent variable as interpreted from the associated values such as t-distribution = 6.349 and a respective positive $\beta = 0.314$; showing as well a highly positive correlation through an estimated probability of $p = 0.000$ as in the other components. Therefore, behavioural/social skills appear to have the highest impact on managers' readiness for change.

VARIABLE	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
SOC	0.489	0.077	0.314	6.349	0.000 ***

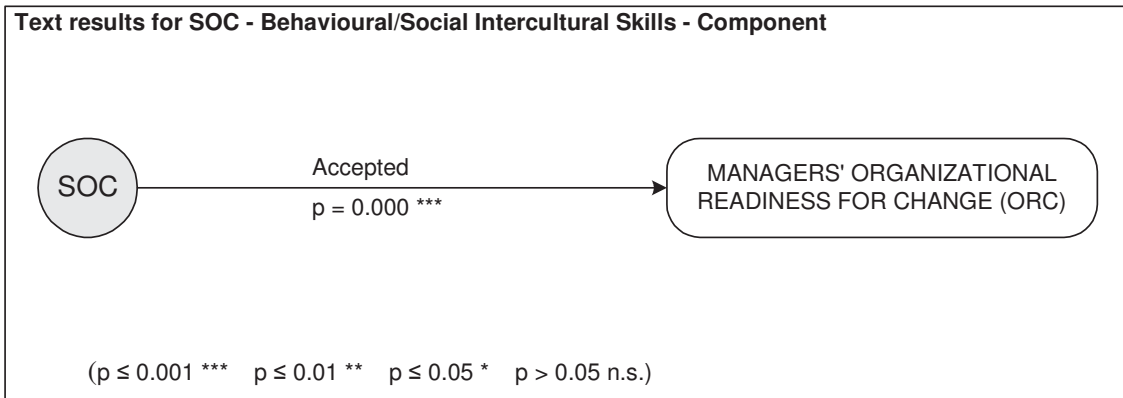
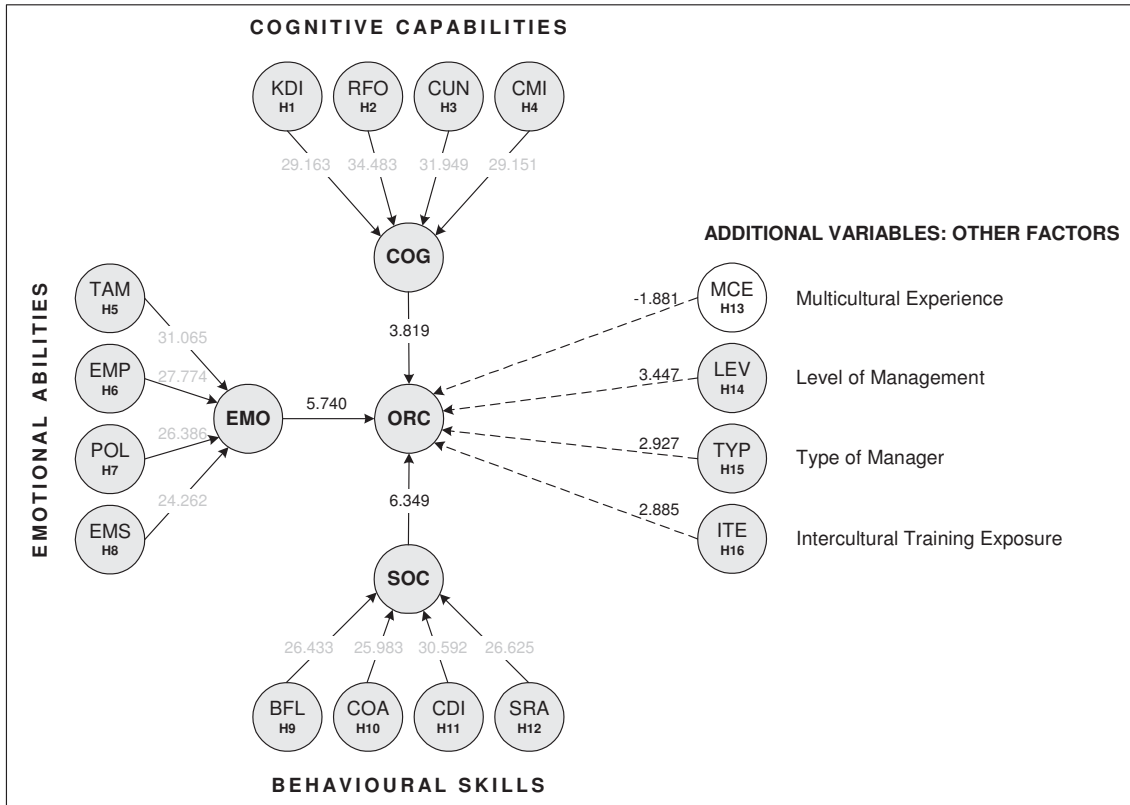


Figure 5.6 shows the tested formative structure model using SmartPLS including the four additional variables tested already in the original model.



- Hypothesis ACCEPTED (significant positive correlation with the dependent variable)
- Hypothesis REJECTED (negative or no significant correlation with the dependent variable)

Figure 5.6 Validation of hypotheses- post-hoc analysis

Table 5-12 Accepted and rejected hypotheses- post-hoc analysis

Hypotheses		Result	
CORE MODEL VARIABLES (INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE)			
Cognitive	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between intercultural cognitive capabilities and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Emotional	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between intercultural emotional abilities and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Social	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between intercultural social skills and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
ADDITIONAL VARIABLES (OTHER INFLUENCING FACTORS)			
Multicultural Experience	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between multicultural experience and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Rejected	✗
Level of Management	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between the level of management and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Type of Manager	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between the type of manager and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓
Intercultural Training Exposure	<i>There is a significant positive correlation between intercultural training exposure and managers' readiness for organizational change</i>	Accepted	✓

5.11 Chapter summary

To present the results of the analysis in a comprehensive and logical manner was the goal of this chapter. The different sections attempted to provide the essential statistical information and all numerical data was supported with pertinent contextual interpretation. The descriptive statistics aimed to familiarize the reader with the type of population and sample in order to better understand the process and the subsequent normality and reliability tests prior to the testing of hypotheses and successive validation of the model. Diverse types of tests were presented in order to corroborate and prove the consistency of the sample; among them normality of residual, White's heteroscedasticity test and the estimated probability distribution. Furthermore, a correlation matrix Cronbach's alpha and an Average Variance Extracted for steadiness were presented along with a test for collinearity and Pearson's correlation table. The results concerning the hypotheses were presented in various steps, first the initial model including the core variables measured directly with the dependent variable; second, the

additional four variables inserted in the model; and third, the post-hoc analysis related to the formative components. The presentation of results was supported also by graphical representations using diagrams and tables to show relevant information and visual illustration of each measure and testing.

Chapter 6

Discussion
and Conclusions

6 Discussion and conclusions

A hypothesis is a novel suggestion that no one wants to believe. It is guilty, until found effective.

Edward Teller

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the general conclusions of this research including an overall interpretation of the results concerning readiness for change and the driving intercultural competences that were found associated with it. Firstly, a discussion and conclusions on readiness for change and intercultural competence are presented in detail; followed by a section intended to explain the impact of additional factors. Right after, a new model of intercultural competence and change readiness is presented. This new model is a concluding synopsis of the dimensions and factors influencing readiness for change in managers, and can be taken as a product of the research. Then, a section about managerial implications deals with a series of remarks considered by the researcher as relevant for management activity within the context of multinational corporations; and a parallel section is devoted to educational institutions as partly responsible entities for the development of certain cognitive capabilities and behavioural skills that future managers can put in practice when facing change. At this point a section is dedicated to mention some of additional contributions of this work according to the researcher.

Finally, limitations of the study and recommendations for further research are included in this chapter in order to provide a general perspective towards subsequent investigation on the subject matter.

6.2 Conclusions on readiness for change

Organizations are subject to permanent change; it is a survival instinct that forces them to constantly adapt; and globalization brings along significant challenges in terms of international exposure and cultural diversity that obliges managers to remain alert at all times. Changes do not need to be radical in order for managers to see the need of building sound intercultural competence, rather gradual daily change is the base for organizational evolution; and readiness for change, an indispensable ingredient of the formula.

This study confirms that managers' readiness for organizational change is to some extent determined by managers' intercultural competence. Throughout the review of the literature and the development of a conceptual framework it was intended to show the fundamental base for the understanding of the linkage between intercultural competence and readiness for change; firstly as a concept and secondly as an influencing factor for managers' change readiness. The methodology used was chosen according to the nature of the study and the characteristics of the selected population and after a quantitative analysis for the testing of all hypotheses, it is adequate to say that viewing intercultural competence, not only as a valid concept but as a fruitful one which greatly determines readiness for change, can expand into a good strategy for organizations to manage transformation. From a theoretical perspective; the results of this research on readiness for change and intercultural competence have provided valuable information which can be compared, conciliated and made compatible with the models presented in the literature review at both levels intercultural competence and readiness for change. Armenakis *et al.* (1993) are right when concluding that the manager's need for change is related to the opportunities to take part in the actual process of change; because the results show that managers with intercultural competencies who enrolled in such a process are more predisposed for change. Particularly behavioural-social skills were remarkably relevant as influencing factors in terms of organizational readiness and the response to the transformations among work, people, structures and culture of the organization as already predicted by Nadler *et al.* (1995).

Organizational change is often linked to innovation which in turn is associated with technological change. However, change *per se* is present in every aspect within the organization; from strategic level to operational; and being prepared (ready) for change presupposes that willingness to *renovate* which is not necessarily *innovate*. Renovate implies a major change and consequently higher level of readiness. The results of this study proved that the managers' capacity (called readiness/ willingness/ predisposition) for change at the strategic level is partially determined by an amalgam of intercultural competencies. Change is in any case limited by inertia pressures and it implies risk, but it is inevitable and many organizations just develop routines of change without reflecting on the troubles that resistance or just lack of readiness could cause. Moreover, organizational change is attributable to both external and internal forces so managers must cope with them to the best of their capacity; in this sense readiness for change is a necessary mitigating factor to ease adaptation to new scenarios.

Readiness for change according to its implication can be either evolutionary or strategic: evolutionary readiness for change corresponds to incremental change, that is, it aims to increase organizational effectiveness and improve the *status quo* but within the normal parameters. It is about a change that results from development and growth (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995). Changes of this order emerge from the past and are planned to achieve better results in the future. This is considered a positive change (Marshak, 1993). Strategic readiness for change on the other hand is rather associated with the transforming change, a more revolutionary type of change, that is, for instance new forms of management involving the cultural alterations, transformation of attitudes and behaviour (Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1996).

It has been manifested in this analysis that managers' competencies to face organizational change are linked to the strategic stance of the organization towards cultural aspects, experience, cognitive capabilities, emotional abilities and social-behavioural skills. Readiness for change is then, in many ways delimited by soft skills such as the ones mentioned above. Some theoretical approaches present particular considerations regarding the scope of the changes, but evolutionary change

(incremental) is probably the most appropriate for readiness for change if it is to be regarded as a part of the strategic planning.

The theory behind organizational change explored and presented in chapter two already emphasized such concept as a planned effort managed from the top of the organization and with the purpose of increasing effectiveness (Beckhard, 1969); and certainly, managerial efforts —especially strategically-thinking efforts— originate in a mere attitude and predisposition of the manager. Leavitt's approaches to organizational change emphasize the human aspect (people approach) as crucial since the person is the principal change actor. Thus, the abilities of managers to handle all organizational facets conducive to change are embedded within an attitudinal sphere. The analysis of the research model (explaining at least fifty percent through the R-Square value) confirms the hypothesized effects of intercultural competence on the managers' readiness for change (as an individual) and within the organization.

The analysis of the data indicates also a particular perception of each of the intercultural competencies and their interpretation within each of the defined broader dimensions. The values expressed as a result of the mean comparisons (Appendix V) are also good indicators of the weight that each competency has depending on the given separate populations. The following section is concerned with the effects of each of the intercultural competencies on the managers' readiness for organizational change, and their impact determined throughout the quantitative analysis presented in chapter five.

6.3 Conclusions on intercultural competencies as conducive factors

The results of this investigation prove that there is a direct correlation between intercultural competence and managers' readiness for organizational change. Cognitive intercultural capabilities such as knowledge discovery, respect for otherness, contextual understanding and cultural mindfulness presented dissimilar results after the analysis and testing of the hypotheses. For instance, knowledge discovery and contextual understanding do not appear to be significant to readiness for change whereas cultural mindfulness and respect for otherness do. The reason might be that the first two are more linked to internal characteristics of the individual and to some extent, intellectual capabilities.

6.3.1 Knowledge discovery

Knowledge discovery is linked to the meta-cognition component of Bücken and Poutsma (2010) along with the notions of strategic and cultural knowledge and regarded by Keršienė and Savanevičienė (2005) as the capacity for learning and change. The latter indicates why this variable might have not shown significance since it is related to a cognitive complexity (Kim, 2001) which requires volition from the manager and a more proactive attitude in order to be expressed. However, a mean comparison by age groups shows that knowledge discovery is definitely higher in younger managers as well as managers who have relatively high multicultural life experience.

6.3.2 Respect for otherness

Respect for otherness has been confirmed as an influencing factor and the interpretation might be based on what Graf and Mertesacker (2009) defined as the ability to change the point of view. Still a cognitive capability but with elements involving certain level of "social change" (Hamilton, 1979) or coordinative actions, interaction and other knowledge functions referred to by Spitzberg (1990). Respect for

otherness is necessary for intercultural adaptation and reflection on stereotypes. It supposes the knowledge of communication including rules and codes (Kim (2001) and the recognition of norms and value systems (Dirks, 1995). Ironically, the mean comparison concerning respect for otherness shows this capability to be considerably higher for managers who never had intercultural training and those with higher levels of multicultural experience.

6.3.3 Contextual understanding

Contextual understanding has no significant impact on readiness for change and the reason might rely on the fact that it is extremely linked with knowledge discovery. Contextual understanding requires what Barmeyer (2000) refers as to abstract conceptualization or “thinking” and if this is not acquired by a certain previous level of knowledge (intellectual) curiosity, then it is likely not to occur either. Deardorff (2009) anticipated already that this notion (as a cognitive capability) requires deep understanding and knowledge of culture. It is a capability of how to gather information (Gudykunst, 2004) and deep knowledge on cultural mechanisms. However, the results also show that this cognitive capability is higher in middle-top managers than in managers of the first level or with less experience.

6.3.4 Cultural mindfulness

Cultural mindfulness has been confirmed as a conducive factor of readiness for change and the explanation could be partly supported by the concepts of cultural and linguistic self-awareness (Deardorff, 2004) and also by the contributions of Hamilton, 1979; Ting-Toomey, 1998; and Klein et al., 2010 on intercultural self-awareness. Cultural mindfulness appears to influence readiness for change also because it implies cultural adaptation and information on culture specifics and comprehension. It implies (as in the case of respect for otherness) the understanding of norms, customs and value

systems (Dirks, 1995). Cultural mindfulness is relatively high in managers who have been exposed to any kind of intercultural training.

Both knowledge discovery and cultural mindfulness have been rejected as conducive factors of readiness for change, however, there is a difference between the two of them, and that is, cultural mindfulness increases significantly when intercultural training is provided which is not the case for knowledge discovery.⁷⁵

6.3.5 Tolerance for ambiguity

Concerning the emotional intercultural abilities, *tolerance for ambiguity* was validated as an influencing element of readiness for change according to the results of the tests. This assumption is quite latent in the work of Barmeyer (2000) as included in the emotional component and regarded as a concrete experience or “feeling” within the construct. Deardorff (2009) also considers tolerance as a requisite (attitudes) within the affective dimension and furthermore, her perception goes beyond and touches the concepts of curiosity and discovery, which might suggest the connection between this emotional ability and some cognitive capabilities. Tolerance for ambiguity is higher in managers older than thirty years as well as in managers who hold master degrees or higher and also considerably more present in managers with more than five years experience in the position.

6.3.6 Cultural empathy

Cultural empathy on the contrary does not influence readiness for change according to the results. Possible explanations for this could be based on the assumptions of Illeris (2007) about this ability having to do with other aspects such as motivation and volition of the individual. He refers to a mental and bodily balance within a dimension denominated “incentive” (sensitivity). Moreover, issues like

⁷⁵ Nevertheless knowledge discovery appears to be a bit higher for the case of managers who had intercultural training at university and not after school training.

discrimination and ethnocentric assumptions alluded to by Hamilton (1979) and the idea of empathy being an innate personal characteristic (Keršienė and Savanevičienė, 2005) may help explain the nature of this ability as an influencing factor. Interestingly enough, managers who presented a considerably high cultural empathy level are those who had intense exposure to intercultural training. The latter might serve as valuable finding in terms of enhancing this type of training in order to alleviate the lack of cultural empathy present in organizations dealing with prominent cultural diversity.

6.3.7 Polycentrism (openness)

Polycentrism on the other hand has also been validated as a contributing factor for change readiness in managers. Regarded by some authors as openness or open-mindedness (Barmeyer, 2000) this competency is an emotional ability related to intercultural judgement (non-judgementalness) and exhibited as an emotional-psychological attitude to even accept risk—an idea which supposes change—. Hence the clear interpretation of its being an influencing factor of transformation readiness. It favours readiness for change because it implies certain level of openness to new experience (a precondition for change readiness) and according to Kim (2001) is associated with adaptation and motivation. Perhaps here is the explanation why it differs from cultural empathy in terms of attitude. Motivation is at the same time linked to reward potential, goals, and anxiety controls (Spitzberg, 1990). Ting-Toomey (1998) reinforces this conclusion when she refers to this affective variable as openness to novelty. Polycentrism seems to be higher in managers coming from cultures where HDI is rather low.⁷⁶

⁷⁶ A proxy variable HDI (Human Development Index) was included in some of the tests and it appeared to be somewhat related to this particular variable. That is why it was considered pertinent to mention at this point. (See Appendix III, Table 0-5).

6.3.8 Emotional strength

Emotional strength was also accepted as a significant factor of managers' readiness for change and this might be directly sustained again through the work of Keršienė and Savanevičienė (2005) as they refer to the notion of emotional stability, extraversion and agreeableness. This is also clear in the work of Zimmerman (2010) on overcoming cultural differences as one of the emotional abilities related to change and adaptation. Graf and Mertesacker (2009) favour this posture when referring to intercultural sensitivity and Matveev (2004) holds the assumption of emotional strength exemplifying by "psychological reactions towards foreigners." He relates this to the degree of empathy, but as we have observed, empathy has been rejected as an influencing factor. According to the post-hoc analyses, emotional strength is higher in non-expatriate managers as well as in male managers and managers with higher levels within the organization. Also managers who have had vast exposure to intercultural training appear to be more emotionally strong.

6.3.9 Communicative awareness

Concerning the behavioural/social skills, similar to the emotional dimension, only one variable was rejected as a significant factor of readiness for change (communicative awareness). *Communicative awareness* is well reflected in the contributions of Hamilton (1979) as the ability to engage in self-reflection and the capability to "identify and articulate" communicative similarities and differences. For Hamilton this is a skill that requires appreciation and ability to challenge discriminatory acts in order to communicate cross-culturally. The reason why this variable was rejected might find its explanation in the fact that an essential element of this is the level of assertiveness (Graf and Mertesacker, 2009) and perhaps flexibility; and such skills belong to the domain of the innate or inner personality which cannot be easily explored. According to Ting-Toomey (2000) indispensable characteristics of interaction skills are mindful-observation, and mutual adaptability which might be an important aspect to consider

this as a relevant factor influencing readiness for change since readiness for change necessarily requires adaptability. Communicative awareness actually appeared very high in non-expatriate managers as well as in manager with higher educational levels, longer working experience as manager, subsequently in managers with higher levels of responsibility and additionally the results also showed higher communicative awareness in managers with extensive intercultural training.

6.3.10 Behavioural flexibility

Behavioural flexibility was confirmed as a significantly positive correlated variable with readiness for change. The rationale behind this might be supported by the contributions of Ting-Toomey (1998) as she regards flexible adaptive skills as crucial capabilities towards multicultural adaptation. Along with mutual adaptation and mutual satisfaction she provides sound support of this corroborated hypothesis as do again in this case Graf and Mertesacker (2009) in their conceptualization of flexibility and the ability to change viewpoints within an intercultural situation. This competency of the conative component requires observation, interpretation analysis and evaluation of circumstances facing change (Deardorff, 2009). It relates to what Dirks (1995) described as the willingness to improve one's own behaviour. In the comparison of means behavioural flexibility is quite high in managers with a high educational level (master's and above) proving a recurrent conclusion on the importance of educational level as a determinant factor of change readiness in organizations.

6.3.11 Collaborative dialogue

Collaborative dialogue was also accepted as a favourable factor of managers' change readiness, proving also that this variable essentially differs from communicative awareness as they showed completely different values after data testing. Collaborative dialogue is literally included as such within the constructs of Kurogi and Ting-Toomey's (2009) whose conceptualization alludes also to the notion of constructive

conflict skills as a capability for cultural adaptation and change. Queeney (1997) already considered this by the conception of cross-cultural adjustment. Collaborative dialogue favours readiness for change because it implies the development and inclination to actively listen (Dirks, 1995), also addressed by Deardorff (2009) as one of the skills to consider within the social component. Collaborative dialogue is a social skill that expatriate managers seem to have above average as well as managers with higher educational levels.

6.3.12 Social rapport

Social rapport is the last core hypothesis of the model and it is the variable that presents the highest influence on readiness for change according to the statistical analyses. This high correlation with the dependent variable might be explained in terms of the understanding of differences in multiple social contexts. This is an operational competence which requires specific abilities and capabilities perhaps coming from a combination of behavioural patterns such as composure, equanimity and what Spitzberg (1990) defines as expressiveness. Social rapport contributes to readiness for change because it implies effective behaviours such as negotiation and interaction (it embeds the capacity to generate social relations, trust-building and the development of networking skills. This concept clearly appears as an influencing factor confirming the hypothesis and corroborating that behavioural-social skills are the most influencing factors above both cognitive and emotional. Based on the analysis of means by populations, social rapport is considerably higher in female managers. (See Appendix V, Table 0-5).

6.4 Conclusions about other influencing factors

6.4.1 Multicultural experience

Multicultural experience was the first additional variable hypothesized as a contributing factor within the research model. Multicultural experience included aspects related to the individual (personal) experience of the manager both in private and professional life e.g. traveling experience, friends and/or colleagues from diverse cultural backgrounds, languages spoken, academic exchanges, etc. However, the results show that this variable has little impact on managers' readiness for organizational change. This leads to the conclusion that multicultural experience alone does not suppose intercultural competence. For instance, a manager who was reared in a multicultural environment, who has traveled extensively and who is able to speak two or more languages, does not necessarily have the intercultural competencies required for change readiness. It is possible to have the intrinsic knowledge and still lack the ability for intercultural interaction. Even in the mean comparison tests, contrasting multicultural versus monocultural managers variables barely showed any variation. Moreover, the result of the regression even showed a negative tendency towards the dependent variable, meaning that the more multicultural experience, the less readiness for change, though the values were still not significant to conclude a substantial negative impact. It is imperative to make an important remark at this point, because managers with relatively high multicultural personal experience show higher levels of knowledge discovery (which was one of the first rejected variables of the model). This means that there is a correlation between knowledge curiosity and the level of multiculturalism of the manager. Additionally, respect for otherness was another cognitive capability in which multicultural experienced manager presented high significant values.

6.4.2 Level of management

The second additional factor explored and tested was the *level of management* and this, in contrast with multicultural experience, presents a strong correlation with the managers' readiness for change. This hypothesis was validated within the model as it was tested with the same statistical criteria of all other variables. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the level of management is also a contributing factor for managers' readiness for change. The reasoning behind this can be sustained by assuming that the higher the level of management, the more likely the manager has, consciously or unconsciously, developed certain predisposition for change. It might have to do with professional experience. Going back to what Rugman *et al.* (1985) said that managers at higher levels are a vital factor for successful implementation of policies and strategies; it becomes evident that the higher the level the higher the change predisposition. However, it is important not to associate level of management with the manager's age, because older managers showed lower levels of readiness for change, so it is not about the age, but about the level of management even if traditionally high management levels are held by older people.⁷⁷ Management level then is a favourable factor of readiness for change among relatively young managers. Additionally, the mean comparison test shows that managers in higher levels present higher capability of contextual understanding, emotional strength and communicative awareness.

6.4.3 Type of manager

Type of manager —expatriates: foreign country nationals, parent country nationals and third country nationals; as well as non-expatriates: local country nationals and host country nationals— was found significantly positively correlated with managers' readiness for change. The more internationalized the manager, the higher his/her level of readiness for organizational change. Subsequently, it can be concluded

⁷⁷ It is important to recall here the characteristics of the sample used in this study, whose participants are predominantly younger than thirty years.

that expatriate managers have a better predisposition for change. However, non-expatriate managers are emotionally stronger and show higher levels of communicative awareness than expatriates who, on the other hand are higher in collaborative dialogue. Type of manager was the second question of the survey and that denotes its relevance within the study as it was one of the aspects that most intrigued the researcher in terms of possible influencing factor of change readiness in managers and the hypothesis has been positively demonstrated.

6.4.4 Intercultural training exposure

Finally, and along with type of manager, *intercultural training exposure* was one of the main questions of the original research proposal which later on derived in a core model including only intercultural competencies as a medullar part of the study. Nevertheless, this aspect remained of extremely importance for the researcher as a practitioner in the intercultural field. Intercultural training exposure was inserted as a variable in order to determine its impact on readiness for change and it was positively corroborated after the respective analyses. This hypothesis was validated and turned out to be the most influencing of the additional factors referred to in the conceptual framework. It can be fearlessly concluded that intercultural training is a determinant factor of managers' readiness for organizational change. Furthermore, the mean comparisons drop interesting results associated with intercultural exposure. First of all, managers who had been exposed to a considerable number of hours of intercultural training show a clear significant inclination for change readiness; moreover they present high levels of cultural mindfulness, cultural empathy, communicative awareness and emotional strength. In conclusion, intercultural training is highly related to managers' readiness for change. The latter corroborates the hypothesis and invites the reflection on the importance of intercultural training in order to acquire and improve intercultural competence towards change readiness.

6.5 New model of intercultural competence and readiness for change

As a brief synopsis, the following model [Figure 6.1] shall be seen as the resulting model on intercultural competence and managers' readiness for organizational change. The three well-delimited dimensions include only the validated elements which were discussed and interpreted in this chapter. Thus, in this model, we observe the influence of intercultural competence through: (1) cognitive capabilities such as respect for otherness and cultural mindfulness; (2) emotional abilities like tolerance for ambiguity, polycentrism and emotional strength and; (3) social skills as behavioural flexibility, collaborative dialogue and social rapport.

Additional factors (also determined in the analysis) such as intercultural training, level of management and type of manager, presented significant influence on readiness for change but are represented as secondary influencing elements within the model.

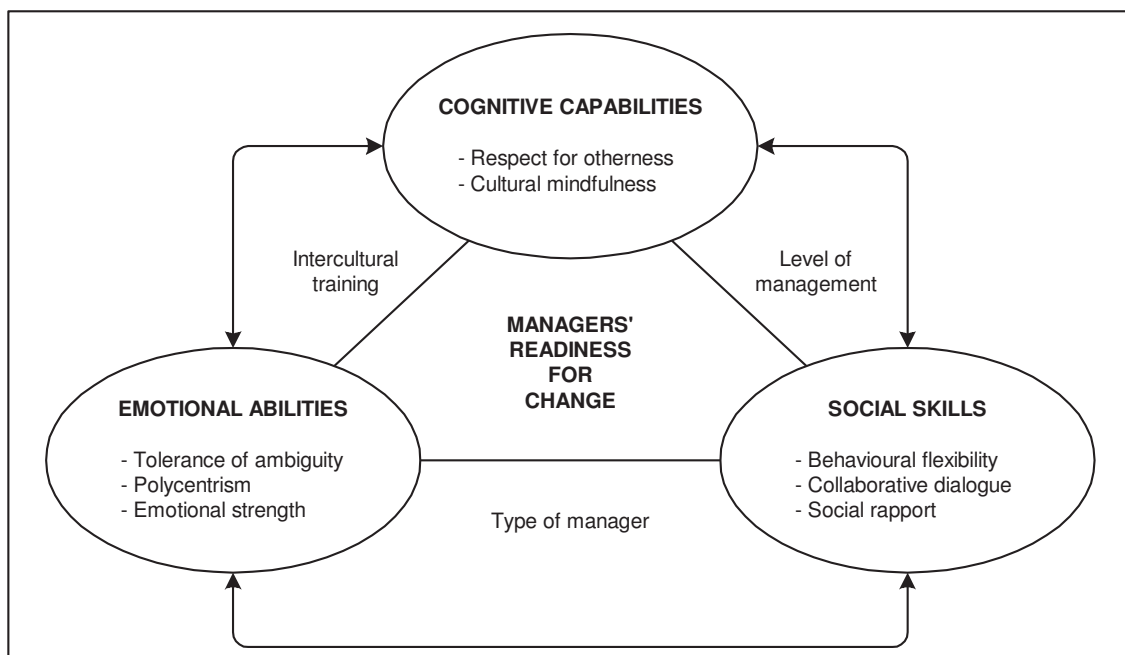


Figure 6.1 Intercultural competence and readiness for change

6.6 Implications for multinational corporations

Some aspects of this (and the following section on educational institutions) were already anticipated in the general introduction of the thesis, but the intention here is to encourage a more in-depth reflection on the direct implications of intercultural competence for both organizations and educational institutions as units. Multinational corporations represent the physical space and context within which managers perform, carry out their activities, make decisions, and where they ultimately evolve as professionals. The relevance of this study for such corporations lies in the fact that intercultural competence —if viewed as a strategy for change readiness and adaptation— can be of enormous value for the achievement of organizational objectives not only because it is oriented to the improvement of professional performance within intercultural working contexts but also because this can be translated into higher efficiency and productivity guaranteeing the subsistence of the organization. Managers who are able to “direct” other people are of high value in modern organizations. Capabilities such as knowledge discovery, respect for otherness, cultural mindfulness and contextual understanding are key competencies to managerial success from the cognitive point of view and should be considered crucial for the ultimate responsibility of the manager which is achieving the general objectives according to the business nature and organizational culture. Competencies such as tolerance for ambiguity, cultural empathy, polycentrism and emotional strength, defined throughout this research as emotional abilities ought to be considered at the strategic level of organizations because these are aspects which are directly linked to motivation, enthusiasm, passion, stimulus, incentive and encouragement to work, but also stress management and multicultural team work issues. This set of competencies deal with the affective aspects of managers and how they affect the organization’s performance in daily life, so they are of extreme relevance to be transmitted to all levels of management. Finally, competencies such as behavioural flexibility, communicative awareness, collaborative dialogue and social rapport, regarded as the behavioural-social dimension, are skills that have to do with communication, negotiation, leadership and networking socialization

which are essential qualities that managers of international organizations should possess. These skills are concerned with public relations and handling of meetings and the result of this research clearly shows this component (behavioural-social) to be the most influencing one on managers' readiness for organizational change.

6.7 Implications for educational institutions

Intercultural competence and its impact on readiness for change should be a concern not only for multinational corporations but also for academic institutions; first of all, because higher education institutions such as universities and business schools are the providers of future managers of such international corporations; secondly, because universities are also organizations themselves who involve managing activities; and thirdly, perhaps because “we live in an era of excessively abundant *information* but surprisingly, every so often insufficient *formation*” (Vallejo-García, 2007) and the results of this investigation should appear evident to the eyes of faculty and administrative personnel aiming to improve the intercultural competencies of future managers. Academic institutions thus, especially of higher education institutions, hold enormous responsibility in forming interculturally competent professionals who are ready to adapt to and implement change successfully. Competencies such as intellectual curiosity about other cultures; self-knowledge; conscious value and acceptance of culturally dissimilar others; full comprehension and faithful interpretation of meaning; as well as cultural intelligence and risk-awareness, are some of the basic capabilities students should acquire or be instructed about by educational institutions. International exchange programmes are very helpful in terms of personal multicultural experience, but as concluded from the results of this research, individual multicultural experience is not enough. Thus, the previously mentioned competencies correspond only to the cognitive level, so it is necessary to talk also about certain abilities that can be addressed in academic programmes such as the acceptance of uncertainty and culturally vague situations; emotional understanding of cultural sensitivity; non-judgementalness (polycentrism) and stereotype avoidance; and regulation and control of emotions. In

summary, higher education institutions should graduate students who are capable of adapting action and behaviour; professionals who are contextually sensitive and active listeners; capable of linguistic accommodation and able to develop networking skills. And such a challenge can only be faced if higher education institutions include valuable, efficient and reliable intercultural courses in their curricula.

6.8 Additional contributions of the study

The results of this work could be of relevance to the field of management sciences, involving disciplines such as international human resource management; organizational culture; intercultural communication; intercultural management; organizational behaviour; cultural diversity management; sociology of organizations; business culture studies; management of international teams; and international negotiations. It is up to the expert in each field how to incorporate and use some the findings presented in this thesis. Nevertheless, a specific contribution to the field of change management is noticeable as it was proved that not only aspects such as career commitment, job satisfaction, promotion, payment, compensations, benefits or rewards influence readiness for change; but also aspects such as the intercultural capabilities of managers as decision-makers and artifices of change.

Another underlying contribution of this thesis can be the measurement scale for intercultural competence which was developed by the researcher and which can be replicated and used in further investigation and even for practitioners seeking to assess the intercultural capabilities of a given group of managers. The scale was built upon a solid theoretical base and, as mentioned in the conceptual framework section, each question departs directly from scientific definitions formulated by important scholars of the field.

Finally, there are many papers and articles written on the determinants of readiness for change and well as many studies concerning the nature and application of intercultural competence, but the very linkage between the concept of intercultural competence and the managers' readiness for organizational change may represent a

valuable contribution itself since these two notions have not been studied before as far as the researcher was able to find.

6.9 *Limitations of the study*

Every research work is subject to limitations and this is no exception. Even though the topic is well delimited —intercultural competence as a conducive factor of managers' readiness for organizational change— this work departs from a single question, and the limitations of this investigation are of course conditional on other possible angles for answer.

The problematic exposed in this thesis presents at the outset a relevant issue with which organizations and managers deal on a daily basis; and the reach that the findings of this research might have to be judged by those who are concerned with organizational change and the necessary intercultural abilities required for it.

Concerning the methodology used, even though a quantitative approach was adopted for this research as the most appropriate one given the characteristics and nature of the study, the researcher is conscious of the relevance that a qualitative methodology could have brought in this case. The latter though should not constitute in any sense a possible restraint for a realistic interpretation of the results and for the validity, relevance and reliability of the study.

6.10 Recommendations for further research

The first proposal of this dissertation was about measuring the impact of intercultural training on managers' readiness for organizational change. However, as the study was being conducted it bended more into measuring intercultural competencies as the determinant factors leaving the notion of training in a second place. Therefore, the first recommendation that comes to mind could be to reconsider such a hypothesis for further research, especially since it has been validated in this study as an influencing factor. Concentrating on intercultural training as a contributing drive of change readiness would suppose though a more thorough and methodical study emphasizing types of training, contents, time of delivery, intensity, exposure to practical experience, theoretical support, etc. which are not present in this dissertation.

An aspect that perhaps deserves attention at this point, is the one related to the demographic profile of the respondents. Both the size and characteristics of the sample were of great value for the interpretation of the results. Furthermore, with a total response volume of five hundred and fifty managers from around the world, relatively young and very diverse, this sample itself constitutes a vast source for future studies and possible successive publications.

Further research could consider some of the valuable tactics of a qualitative approach such as direct interviews with managers; especially if there is a particular interest in developing a more solid theoretical model which could be used and applied in international corporations as a guide of continuous intercultural practice improvement.

One last consideration on further research is linked to the fact that the research model tested in this dissertation explains only approximately fifty percent of the phenomenon (according to the extracted R-square) so this supposes a gap in the explanation of readiness for change which can be investigated in the future in order to find out what are other factors influencing this phenomenon other than intercultural competence and the factors presented in chapter two on the works of Armenakis, 1993; Cinite *et al.*, 2009; Miller, 2006; Holt *et al.*, 2007; Eby *et al.*, 2000 and Shah, 2009) who have vastly contributed to the explanation. Particular interest could be placed on some

of the complementary hypotheses of the research model such as level of management, type of manager (expatriate versus non-expatriate) and obviously the intercultural training exposure. In any case, whatever further research departing from the conclusions of this work could lead to other unpredicted factors influencing readiness for organizational change and even the consideration of new capabilities, abilities and skills emerging from the increasing international exposure of young managers.

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix I. Online Survey Questionnaire (screenshot)	297
Appendix II. Survey questionnaire- labels, items and categories	301
Appendix III. T-test One-Sample Statistics	305
Appendix IV. Example of an electronic questionnaire response.....	307
Appendix V. Comparison of means among different groups	309

Appendix I. Online Survey Questionnaire (screenshot)

Versión en español **Research Project - Management Sciences** Versión en español

Thank you for your time! You have been selected to participate in a research project from the **Ecole de Management-Strasbourg** (France) in collaboration with **Universidad Panamericana** campus Guadalajara (Mexico). This research is being conducted in fulfilment of the requirements for a doctoral degree in Management Sciences. The study aims to find the **"intercultural competencies" that determine managers' readiness for organizational change**. Please provide the general background information and then respond by grading the question or statement as it best suits your case. This survey is completely anonymous and all collected data will only be used for the purposes of this dissertation project. Please complete the questionnaire anytime before **March 31st 2011**. Thank you again for your invaluable participation!

José Luis Vallejo-García (PhD candidate 2011)
 Faculté des Sciences Économiques et de Gestion- Université de Strasbourg
 Escuela de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales- Universidad Panamericana

I. General background questions

1. Select the option that best describes your family condition:	2. Select the option that best suits your employment situation:
<input type="radio"/> I was born in a monocultural and monolingual family <input type="radio"/> I was born in a bicultural but monolingual family <input type="radio"/> I was born in a bicultural and bilingual family <input type="radio"/> I was born in a bicultural but multilingual family <input type="radio"/> I was born in a multicultural and multilingual family	<input type="radio"/> I work in my own country for a local company (organization) <input type="radio"/> I work in my own country for a foreign company <input type="radio"/> I work in a foreign country for a local company <input type="radio"/> I work in a foreign country for a company from my country <input type="radio"/> I work in a foreign country for a company of a third country
3. Select your gender: <input type="radio"/> Male <input type="radio"/> Female	4. Select your group of age: [---]
5. Country of origin (your culture): [---]	6. Marital status: <input type="radio"/> Single <input type="radio"/> Married <input type="radio"/> Divorced <input type="radio"/> Widow
7. Educational level: [---]	8. Experience as a manager: [---]
9. Management position:	
<input type="radio"/> Top-level manager	Strategic management (senior manager; area director; general manager) Decisional role (responsible for long-range planning and goals setup)
<input type="radio"/> Middle-level manager	Tactical management (head of department, executive manager) Interpersonal role (responsible for monitoring progress to meet goals)
<input type="radio"/> First-level manager	Operational management (project leader; supervisor; office manager) Informational role (responsible for day-to-day operational matters)

II. Individual Multicultural Experience

Num	QUESTION / STATEMENT	1	2	3	4	5
10	In my entire life, I have traveled abroad	NEVER	1 - 2 TIMES	3 - 6 TIMES	7 - 9 TIMES	10 OR MORE
11	I have close friends from diverse cultural backgrounds	NO FRIENDS	ONE FRIEND	TWO-THREE FRIENDS	FOUR FRIENDS	FIVE OR MORE
12	I was born and reared (grew up) until legal age in	ONE COUNTRY	TWO COUNTRIES	THREE COUNTRIES	FOUR COUNTRIES	FIVE OR MORE
13	I currently keep contact with ex-classmates from other countries	ONE LANGUAGE	TWO LANGUAGES	THREE LANGUAGES	FOUR LANGUAGES	FIVE OR MORE
14	I am able to speak, read and write in	ONE LANGUAGE	TWO LANGUAGES	THREE LANGUAGES	FOUR LANGUAGES	FIVE OR MORE
15	During my university studies I have been able to take classes in	ONE LANGUAGE	TWO LANGUAGES	THREE LANGUAGES	FOUR LANGUAGES	FIVE OR MORE
16	At university, I have had courses in intercultural communication and/or cross-cultural management as part of the curriculum	NEVER	1 - 6 HOURS	7 - 12 HOURS	13 - 19 HOURS	20 OR MORE
17	Other than at school, I have taken intercultural training courses such as conferences, workshops or seminars	NEVER	1 - 6 HOURS	7 - 12 HOURS	13 - 19 HOURS	20 OR MORE
18	I work in a multicultural environment with people from different nationalities	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
19	I traditionally enjoy media and art from different cultures	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
20	I correspond with people (clients- suppliers- partners- colleagues) with cultural backgrounds different from my own	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
21	I am very attentive to the news about other parts of the world	NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
22	During my university studies I did an academic exchange abroad	NEVER	1 - 6 MONTHS	7 - 12 MONTHS	13 - 24 MONTHS	25 OR MORE
23	I have experienced to live abroad for reasons other than studies	NEVER	1 - 6 MONTHS	7 - 12 MONTHS	13 - 24 MONTHS	25 OR MORE

III. Readiness for organizational change		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Num	QUESTION / STATEMENT	VERY UNLIKELY	UNLIKELY	RATHER UNLIKELY	NEUTRAL	RATHER LIKELY	LIKELY	VERY LIKELY
24	Whenever there is a change, I am always open to modify the way I work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25	Whenever there is a change, I always remain flexible even if there is uncertainty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26	Whenever there is something to improve at work, I always bring new ideas	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27	Whenever there is a change, I am personally committed to produce the best results possible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28	Whenever there is a change, I always try to understand what my new role in the process is	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29	Whenever a change is announced, I always communicate it to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30	Whenever there is a change, I always remain receptive and want to express my opinion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31	Whenever there is a change, I am enthusiastic to collaborate anytime	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32	Whenever there is a change, I am continuously motivated to work even more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33	Whenever work becomes tedious or monotonous, I always look for new ways to do it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34	Whenever there is a change, I always like to make suggestions for the implementation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35	Whenever there is a change, I believe it is important to always be supportive for the continued success	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36	Whenever there is a change, I invariably see an opportunity to learn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37	Whenever a new project is announced, I am always willing to be a part of it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38	The way I think and behave at work is consistent with the change objectives	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39	I always find the time needed to fulfill my role in the change and also keep up with my regular workload	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

IV. Cognitive (intellective) component		1	2	3	4	5
Num	QUESTION / STATEMENT	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNCERTAIN	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
40	I normally tend to seek information to learn and acquire foreign culture-related knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
41	I constantly try to understand the specific cultural context of the people with whom I work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
42	I am always curious to discover and learn about others' values and beliefs systems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
43	I definitely enjoy working with colleagues and partners from diverse backgrounds	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
44	I am always disposed to respect diversity and coherence of attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviour	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
45	I believe that no single person holds the key to the ultimate truth	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
46	I believe that it is in every organization's best interests to acknowledge and encourage cultural diversity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47	I have a tendency to always show deference for the values and belief systems of other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
48	I always put energy into understanding the different cultural contexts in which decisions are made	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
49	I am sensitive to the need for a careful and systematic approach to properly understand differences and solve problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
50	I am always aware of more than one cultural perspective and pay attention to every situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
51	I usually spend time to learn and deepen the understanding of the foreign people I know	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
52	I always pay special attention to the process of interaction between myself and dissimilar others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
53	I am aware of my own and others' behaviour, and always open to new information and different points of view	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
54	I have a tendency to interpret strangers' behaviour based on different frames of reference	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
55	I am certainly able to make conscious choices as to what I need to do in a particular cultural situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

V. Emotional (affective) component		1	2	3	4	5
Num	QUESTION / STATEMENT	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNCERTAIN	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
56	I have the capability to tolerate and cope with uncertainty and ambiguity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
57	I have a tendency to feel comfortable in culturally diverse environments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
58	I am always disposed to accept cultural differences at work and make positive evaluations in uncertain situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
59	I have the ability to always take an active interest in the concerns of other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
60	I have the capacity to normally recognize and understand others' state of mind or emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
61	I have the ability to "put myself into another's shoes"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
62	I am keen to sense another person's feelings and recognize their needs and intentions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
63	I always treat people equally regardless of where they come from, their ethnicity and/or culture	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
64	I believe that stereotypes are only generalizations that do not represent the majority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
65	I tend to prevent confrontation and avoid prejudiced statements when there is disagreement	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
66	I usually emphasize similarities among human beings rather than looking at the differences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
67	I feel free of prejudices concerning other's opinions, attitudes and behavioural patterns	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
68	I tend to always remain resilient and emotionally stable in case of aggression or confrontation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
69	I am keen on overcoming criticism and negative feedback from others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
70	I always take responsibility for my own emotional maturity regardless what other people think	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
71	I am able to overcome embarrassment and to express my feelings to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

VI. Social (communicative) component		1	2	3	4	5
Num	QUESTION / STATEMENT	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	UNCERTAIN	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
72	I am really keen on adapting my behaviour to each specific social and cultural situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
73	I tend to always choose behaviours that are comfortable for international counterparts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
74	I am normally able to adjust quickly to most unexpected cultural situations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
75	I can easily change my behaviour intentionally in order to interact more effectively when I meet someone from a different culture	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
76	I always put energy into listening and then understanding the different cultural contexts in which messages are sent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
77	I am constantly exploring the words people use and the meaning they attach to them	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
78	I have the ability to get meaning from indirect signals such as intonation, volume, speed and, pausing when people speak with me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
79	I am good at identifying different communicative styles and their impact on a conversation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
80	I am able to intervene and successfully manage conflictive conversations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
81	I tend to dissolve communicative misunderstandings by constantly seeking consensus and providing appropriate feedback	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
82	I tend to always ask my interlocutor if he or she understood what I have said, and explain if necessary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
83	I am able to adapt the use of language, words, speed and expressions to the level of the recipient	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
84	I always show warmth and attentiveness when building relationships in different contexts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
85	I am good at establishing and keeping contact with new people from other countries	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
86	I am keen to mutual understanding, and usually procure certitude and agreement between people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
87	I have the ability to create harmonious relationships based on mutual trust and emotional ties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix II. Survey questionnaire- labels, items and categories

The following table shows all survey questions including labels, items and categories of the questionnaire.

APPENDIX Table 0-1 Questionnaire labels- items and categories

Question	Label	Item	Category
Q01	FAM01	Type of family background	Demographics
Q02	TYP02	Type of manager	Demographics
Q03	GEN03	Gender	Demographics
Q04	AGE04	Group of age	Demographics
Q05	NAT05	Country (culture) of origin	Demographics
Q06	STA06	Marital Status	Demographics
Q07	EDU07	Educational level	Demographics
Q08	EXP08	Years of experience as a manager	Demographics
Q09	LEV09	Management level	Demographics
Q10	TRA10	Traveling experience	Multicultural Experience
Q11	FND11	Close friends from diverse cultural backgrounds	Multicultural Experience
Q12	REA12	Reared in one or more than one country	Multicultural Experience
Q13	CLA13	Contact with ex-classmates from other countries	Multicultural Experience
Q14	LAN14	Languages spoken	Multicultural Experience
Q15	LOI15	Languages of instruction during studies	Multicultural Experience
Q16	ATE16	Academic intercultural training exposure	Multicultural Experience
Q17	PTE17	Professional intercultural training exposure	Multicultural Experience
Q18	MWE18	Working in multicultural environment	Multicultural Experience
Q19	MED19	Enjoy media and art from other countries	Multicultural Experience
Q20	IRE20	Correspond with people from other countries	Multicultural Experience
Q21	NEW21	Attentive to news of other parts of the world	Multicultural Experience
Q22	EXC22	Academic exchange abroad	Multicultural Experience
Q23	LIV23	Lived abroad for reasons other than school	Multicultural Experience
Q24	ORC24	Modifying way of work	Org. Readiness for Change
Q25	ORC25	Remaining flexible even with uncertainty	Org. Readiness for Change
Q26	ORC26	Bringing new ideas	Org. Readiness for Change
Q27	ORC27	Commitment to produce best results possible	Org. Readiness for Change
Q28	ORC28	Understanding new role in the change process	Org. Readiness for Change
Q29	ORC29	Communicating change	Org. Readiness for Change
Q30	ORC30	Remaining receptive and express opinion	Org. Readiness for Change
Q31	ORC31	Enthusiastic to collaborate	Org. Readiness for Change
Q32	ORC32	Motivation to work even more	Org. Readiness for Change

Question	Label	Item	Category
Q33	ORC33	Looking for new ways to do things	Org. Readiness for Change
Q34	ORC34	Making suggestions for implementation	Org. Readiness for Change
Q35	ORC35	Being supportive for continued success	Org. Readiness for Change
Q36	ORC36	Seeing opportunity to learn	Org. Readiness for Change
Q37	ORC37	Willing to be a part of new changes	Org. Readiness for Change
Q38	ORC38	Consistence with change objectives	Org. Readiness for Change
Q39	ORC39	Finding time to fulfill role in the change	Org. Readiness for Change
Q40	KDI40	Seeking to acquire foreign culture knowledge	Knowledge Discovery
Q41	KDI41	Trying to understand specific cultural differences	Knowledge Discovery
Q42	KDI42	Curious to discover others' values and beliefs	Knowledge Discovery
Q43	KDI43	Enjoy working with culturally diverse colleagues	Knowledge Discovery
Q44	RFO44	Coherence and disposition to respect diversity	Respect for Otherness
Q45	RFO45	Belief that no person holds ultimate truth	Respect for Otherness
Q46	RFO46	Acknowledging and encouraging cultural diversity	Respect for Otherness
Q47	RFO47	Showing deference for other's values and beliefs	Respect for Otherness
Q48	CUN48	Understanding cultural context for decision-making	Contextual Understanding
Q49	CUN49	Sensitivity for careful approach to solve problems	Contextual Understanding
Q50	CUN50	Awareness of more than one cultural perspective	Contextual Understanding
Q51	CUN51	Spend time to learn and deepen on foreign cultures	Contextual Understanding
Q52	CMI52	Special attention on interaction with other cultures	Cultural Mindfulness
Q53	CMI53	Awareness of others' behaviours and points of view	Cultural Mindfulness
Q54	CMI54	Tendency to understand strangers' behaviours	Cultural Mindfulness
Q55	CMI55	Consciousness on how to act in cultural situations	Cultural Mindfulness
Q56	TAM56	Tolerating and coping with uncertainty	Tolerance for Ambiguity
Q57	TAM57	Feeling comfortable in culturally diverse environments	Tolerance for Ambiguity
Q58	TAM58	Disposition to accept cultural differences at work	Tolerance for Ambiguity
Q59	TAM59	Take active interest in the concerns of other people	Tolerance for Ambiguity
Q60	EMP60	Recognizing and understanding others' state of mind	Cultural Empathy
Q61	EMP61	Able to put oneself into others' shoes	Cultural Empathy
Q62	EMO62	Keen to sense others' feelings and recognize intentions	Cultural Empathy
Q63	EMP63	Treating people equally regardless origin and ethnicity	Cultural Empathy
Q64	POL64	Belief that stereotypes are only generalizations	Polycentrism
Q65	POL65	Preventing confrontation and avoid prejudiced statements	Polycentrism
Q66	POL66	Emphasizing peoples' similarities rather than differences	Polycentrism
Q67	POL67	Free of prejudices concerning others' opinions	Polycentrism
Q68	EMS68	Remaining emotionally stable in case of confrontation	Emotional Strength
Q69	EMS69	Overcoming criticism and negative feedback from others	Emotional Strength
Q70	EMS70	Taking responsibility of oneself emotional maturity	Emotional Strength

Question	Label	Item	Category
Q71	EMS71	Overcoming embarrassment and express feelings	Emotional Strength
Q72	BFL72	Adapting behaviour to each socio-cultural situation	Behavioural Flexibility
Q73	BFL73	Choosing behaviours that are comfortable for others	Behavioural Flexibility
Q74	BFL74	Adjusting quickly to unexpected cultural situations	Behavioural Flexibility
Q75	BFL75	Changing behaviour intentionally to be more effective	Behavioural Flexibility
Q76	COA76	Listening and interpreting messages from others' culture	Communicative Awareness
Q77	COA77	Exploring words people use and their attached meaning	Communicative Awareness
Q78	COA78	Getting meaning from indirect signals (speed, intonation)	Communicative Awareness
Q79	COA79	Identifying communicative styles and their impact	Communicative Awareness
Q80	CDI80	Intervening and managing conflictive conversations	Collaborative Dialogue
Q81	CDI81	Dissolving communicative misunderstandings	Collaborative Dialogue
Q82	CDI82	Asking interlocutor if he/she understood message	Collaborative Dialogue
Q83	CDI83	Adapting use of language, words, speed, expressions	Collaborative Dialogue
Q84	SRA84	Showing warmth when building new relationships	Social Rapport
Q85	SRA85	Establishing and keeping contact with foreigners	Social Rapport
Q86	SRA86	Seeking mutual understanding and procure agreement	Social Rapport
Q87	SRA87	Creating harmonious relationships based on trust ties	Social Rapport

Appendix III. T-test One-Sample Statistics

APPENDIX Table 0-2 T-Test One-Sample Statistics

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
KDI40	557	4.149	0.703	0.030
KDI41	557	4.163	0.652	0.028
KDI42	557	4.300	0.695	0.029
KDI43	557	4.409	0.700	0.030
RFO44	557	4.239	0.670	0.028
RFO45	557	4.476	0.706	0.030
RFO46	557	4.199	0.769	0.033
RFO47	557	3.885	0.783	0.033
CUN48	557	4.039	0.731	0.031
CUN49	557	4.022	0.724	0.031
CUN50	557	3.901	0.753	0.032
CUN51	557	3.971	0.772	0.033
CMI52	557	3.928	0.736	0.031
CMI53	557	4.072	0.667	0.028
CMI54	557	3.783	0.748	0.032
CMI55	557	3.908	0.752	0.032
TAM56	557	3.826	0.705	0.030
TAM57	557	4.068	0.688	0.029
TAM58	557	4.029	0.667	0.028
TAM59	557	3.978	0.749	0.032
EMP60	557	4.036	0.711	0.030
EMP61	557	4.110	0.749	0.032
EMO62	557	3.998	0.706	0.030
EMP63	557	4.144	0.794	0.034
POL64	557	3.930	0.853	0.036
POL65	557	3.899	0.752	0.032
POL66	557	3.704	0.825	0.035
POL67	557	3.544	0.910	0.039
EMS68	557	3.587	0.801	0.034
EMS69	557	3.628	0.793	0.034
EMS70	557	3.910	0.719	0.030
EMS71	557	3.724	0.804	0.034
BFL72	557	3.993	0.730	0.031
BFL73	557	3.914	0.689	0.029

INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND READINESS FOR CHANGE

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
BFL74	557	3.987	0.723	0.031
BFL75	557	3.984	0.731	0.031
COA76	557	4.079	0.652	0.028
COA77	557	3.858	0.804	0.034
COA78	557	4.018	0.766	0.032
COA79	557	3.910	0.781	0.033
CDI80	557	3.731	0.753	0.032
CDI81	557	3.817	0.704	0.030
CDI82	557	3.829	0.774	0.033
CDI83	557	3.969	0.754	0.032
SRA84	557	4.149	0.685	0.029
SRA85	557	3.948	0.806	0.034
SRA86	557	3.984	0.644	0.027
SRA87	557	4.189	0.701	0.030

Appendix IV. Example of an electronic questionnaire response

Subject: Questionnaire
From: PhD participation<jose.vallejo-garcia@etu.unistra.fr>
Date: Sat, 19 Mar 2011 17:06:21 +0100
To: jose.vallejo@mexico.com

Q01:	BBL	Q53:	4
Q02:	LCN	Q54:	4
Q03:	Male	Q55:	3
Q04:	41 - 50	Q56:	3
Q05:	Sweden	Q57:	5
Q06:	Married	Q58:	4
Q07:	Doctorate PhD/EngD	Q59:	4
Q08:	Between 3 and 5	Q60:	3
Q09:	Top-level	Q61:	4
Q10:	5	Q62:	4
Q11:	5	Q63:	4
Q12:	2	Q64:	5
Q13:	3	Q65:	5
Q14:	5	Q66:	5
Q15:	5	Q67:	3
Q16:	1	Q68:	3
Q17:	1	Q69:	3
Q18:	4	Q70:	4
Q19:	4	Q71:	4
Q20:	5	Q72:	5
Q21:	4	Q73:	5
Q22:	2	Q74:	5
Q23:	2	Q75:	5
Q24:	5	Q76:	5
Q25:	5	Q77:	4
Q26:	7	Q78:	4
Q27:	6	Q79:	4
Q28:	7	Q80:	4
Q29:	7	Q81:	4
Q30:	6	Q82:	4
Q31:	6	Q83:	4
Q32:	4	Q84:	4
Q33:	5	Q85:	4
Q34:	6	Q86:	4
Q35:	4	Q87:	4
Q36:	4	IPA:	80.216.164.239
Q37:	4		
Q38:	4		
Q39:	5		
Q40:	4		
Q41:	4		
Q42:	5		
Q43:	4		
Q44:	5		
Q45:	5		
Q46:	5		
Q47:	5		
Q48:	5		
Q49:	3		
Q50:	5		
Q51:	4		
Q52:	4		

Appendix V. Comparison of means among different groups

ANOVA test by family cultural condition

The mean comparison related to the type family in terms of cultural background shows that there is no difference between managers coming from monocultural families than managers who grew up in bicultural or multicultural families as the f-statistics shows all values under 1.96 for the tested variables.

APPENDIX Table 0-3 ANOVA- Family cultural condition

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Type of family	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Monocultural	444	5.6592	0.7430	0.0353	1.192
	Bicultural	113	5.7097	0.6897	0.0649	
Knowledge Discovery	Monocultural	444	4.2523	0.5482	0.0260	0.015
	Bicultural	113	4.2677	0.5226	0.0492	
Respect for Otherness	Monocultural	444	4.1954	0.5777	0.0274	0.178
	Bicultural	113	4.2168	0.5849	0.0550	
Contextual Understanding	Monocultural	444	3.9623	0.5973	0.0283	0.837
	Bicultural	113	4.0664	0.6444	0.0606	
Cultural Mindfulness	Monocultural	444	3.9060	0.5627	0.0267	0.370
	Bicultural	113	3.9889	0.6054	0.0570	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Monocultural	444	3.9611	0.5283	0.0251	0.334
	Bicultural	113	4.0310	0.5541	0.0521	
Cultural Empathy	Monocultural	444	4.0642	0.5961	0.0283	0.000
	Bicultural	113	4.1018	0.5764	0.0542	
Polycentrism	Monocultural	444	3.7523	0.6624	0.0314	0.037
	Bicultural	113	3.8363	0.6570	0.0618	
Emotional Strength	Monocultural	444	3.7050	0.6240	0.0296	0.524
	Bicultural	113	3.7412	0.6477	0.0609	
Behavioural Flexibility	Monocultural	444	3.9499	0.5703	0.0271	0.567
	Bicultural	113	4.0465	0.5981	0.0563	
Communicative Awareness	Monocultural	444	3.9544	0.6075	0.0288	0.081
	Bicultural	113	4.0133	0.5881	0.0553	
Collaborative Dialogue	Monocultural	444	3.8221	0.5762	0.0273	0.001
	Bicultural	113	3.8938	0.5880	0.0553	
Social Rapport	Monocultural	444	4.0535	0.5808	0.0276	0.193
	Bicultural	113	4.1217	0.5571	0.0524	

ANOVA test by type of manager

The mean comparison related to the type of manager by status of internationalization shows that non-expatriate managers have significantly higher emotional strength abilities (f-distribution = 3.448) and communicative awareness skills (f-distribution = 3.384); whereas expatriates are significantly higher in collaborative dialogue skills (f-distribution = 2.832).

APPENDIX Table 0-4 ANOVA- Type of manager

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Type of manager	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Non-expatriate	399	5.6454	0.7417	0.0371	0.420
	Expatriate	158	5.7301	0.7062	0.0562	
Knowledge Discovery	Non-expatriate	399	4.2368	0.5390	0.0270	0.081
	Expatriate	158	4.3022	0.5508	0.0438	
Respect for Otherness	Non-expatriate	399	4.1779	0.5832	0.0292	0.237
	Expatriate	158	4.2547	0.5654	0.0450	
Contextual Understanding	Non-expatriate	399	3.9724	0.5993	0.0300	0.033
	Expatriate	158	4.0111	0.6305	0.0502	
Cultural Mindfulness	Non-expatriate	399	3.9242	0.5680	0.0284	0.859
	Expatriate	158	3.9193	0.5839	0.0465	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Non-expatriate	399	3.9574	0.5347	0.0268	0.097
	Expatriate	158	4.0206	0.5309	0.0422	
Cultural Empathy	Non-expatriate	399	4.0902	0.5915	0.0296	0.251
	Expatriate	158	4.0253	0.5920	0.0471	
Polycentrism	Non-expatriate	399	3.7657	0.6647	0.0333	0.240
	Expatriate	158	3.7785	0.6557	0.0522	
Emotional Strength	Non-expatriate	399	3.7124	0.6102	0.0305	3.448
	Expatriate	158	3.7120	0.6744	0.0536	
Behavioural Flexibility	Non-expatriate	399	3.9561	0.5799	0.0290	0.971
	Expatriate	158	4.0032	0.5692	0.0453	
Communicative Awareness	Non-expatriate	399	3.9806	0.5854	0.0293	3.384
	Expatriate	158	3.9304	0.6477	0.0515	
Collaborative Dialogue	Non-expatriate	399	3.8289	0.5966	0.0299	2.832
	Expatriate	158	3.8560	0.5326	0.0424	
Social Rapport	Non-expatriate	399	4.0363	0.5802	0.0290	0.002
	Expatriate	158	4.1456	0.5602	0.0446	

ANOVA test by gender

The mean comparison related to gender demonstrates that male managers show significantly higher emotional strength abilities (f-distribution = 3.920); whereas female managers are significantly stronger in social rapport skills (f-distribution = 2.205).

APPENDIX Table 0-5 ANOVA- Gender

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Male	253	5.6322	0.7226	0.0454	0.248
	Female	304	5.7004	0.7397	0.0424	
Knowledge Discovery	Male	253	4.2105	0.5491	0.0345	0.001
	Female	304	4.2928	0.5353	0.0307	
Respect for Otherness	Male	253	4.1749	0.5597	0.0352	0.031
	Female	304	4.2204	0.5942	0.0341	
Contextual Understanding	Male	253	3.9585	0.5789	0.0364	1.513
	Female	304	4.0041	0.6314	0.0362	
Cultural Mindfulness	Male	253	3.9150	0.5693	0.0358	0.219
	Female	304	3.9293	0.5751	0.0330	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Male	253	3.9565	0.5392	0.0339	1.111
	Female	304	3.9910	0.5298	0.0304	
Cultural Empathy	Male	253	4.0138	0.5891	0.0370	0.007
	Female	304	4.1201	0.5907	0.0339	
Polycentrism	Male	253	3.7648	0.6585	0.0414	0.000
	Female	304	3.7730	0.6652	0.0382	
Emotional Strength	Male	253	3.7658	0.5857	0.0368	3.920
	Female	304	3.6678	0.6596	0.0378	
Behavioural Flexibility	Male	253	3.9812	0.5725	0.0360	0.051
	Female	304	3.9597	0.5811	0.0333	
Communicative Awareness	Male	253	3.9605	0.6111	0.0384	0.346
	Female	304	3.9712	0.5982	0.0343	
Collaborative Dialogue	Male	253	3.9012	0.5701	0.0358	0.000
	Female	304	3.7829	0.5814	0.0333	
Social Rapport	Male	253	4.0277	0.6077	0.0382	2.205
	Female	304	4.1003	0.5475	0.0314	

ANOVA test by group of age

The mean comparison related to the group of age confirms that managers younger than thirty years show significantly higher knowledge discovery capabilities (f-distribution = 2.671); whereas managers older than thirty show significantly higher levels of tolerance for ambiguity abilities (f-distribution = 2.379).

APPENDIX Table 0-6 ANOVA- Group of age

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Group of age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Younger than 30	433	5.6497	0.7202	0.0346	0.186
	Older than 30	124	5.7383	0.7716	0.0693	
Knowledge Discovery	Younger than 30	433	4.2714	0.5292	0.0254	2.671
	Older than 30	124	4.1996	0.5861	0.0526	
Respect for Otherness	Younger than 30	433	4.1744	0.5750	0.0276	0.468
	Older than 30	124	4.2883	0.5853	0.0526	
Contextual Understanding	Younger than 30	433	3.9815	0.5892	0.0283	0.754
	Older than 30	124	3.9899	0.6720	0.0604	
Cultural Mindfulness	Younger than 30	433	3.8972	0.5591	0.0269	0.035
	Older than 30	124	4.0121	0.6089	0.0547	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Younger than 30	433	3.9584	0.5171	0.0248	2.379
	Older than 30	124	4.0343	0.5872	0.0527	
Cultural Empathy	Younger than 30	433	4.0583	0.5867	0.0282	0.132
	Older than 30	124	4.1190	0.6094	0.0547	
Polycentrism	Younger than 30	433	3.7679	0.6663	0.0320	1.071
	Older than 30	124	3.7742	0.6474	0.0581	
Emotional Strength	Younger than 30	433	3.6888	0.6266	0.0301	0.014
	Older than 30	124	3.7944	0.6304	0.0566	
Behavioural Flexibility	Younger than 30	433	3.9602	0.5801	0.0279	0.296
	Older than 30	124	4.0020	0.5662	0.0508	
Communicative Awareness	Younger than 30	433	3.9550	0.6002	0.0288	0.034
	Older than 30	124	4.0060	0.6161	0.0553	
Collaborative Dialogue	Younger than 30	433	3.8222	0.5777	0.0278	0.384
	Older than 30	124	3.8871	0.5820	0.0523	
Social Rapport	Younger than 30	433	4.0722	0.5745	0.0276	0.073
	Older than 30	124	4.0504	0.5843	0.0525	

ANOVA test by Human Development Index

The mean comparison related to the HDI of the manager's country of origin confirms that managers coming from countries with low HDI show significantly higher readiness for organizational change (f-distribution = 3.744), cultural mindfulness capabilities (f-distribution = 2.859) and polycentrism (f-distribution = 2.922).

APPENDIX Table 0-7 ANOVA- Human Development Index

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Human Development Index	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Low HDI	262	5.8430	0.7563	0.0467	3.744
	High HDI	295	5.5153	0.6748	0.0393	
Knowledge Discovery	Low HDI	262	4.2462	0.5541	0.0342	0.956
	High HDI	295	4.2636	0.5332	0.0310	
Respect for Otherness	Low HDI	262	4.1908	0.5944	0.0367	0.415
	High HDI	295	4.2076	0.5654	0.0329	
Contextual Understanding	Low HDI	262	4.0534	0.6029	0.0372	0.006
	High HDI	295	3.9212	0.6067	0.0353	
Cultural Mindfulness	Low HDI	262	3.9828	0.5525	0.0341	2.859
	High HDI	295	3.8695	0.5846	0.0340	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Low HDI	262	4.0181	0.5536	0.0342	1.240
	High HDI	295	3.9373	0.5137	0.0299	
Cultural Empathy	Low HDI	262	4.1088	0.6042	0.0373	0.204
	High HDI	295	4.0390	0.5797	0.0338	
Polycentrism	Low HDI	262	3.9122	0.6822	0.0421	2.922
	High HDI	295	3.6424	0.6166	0.0359	
Emotional Strength	Low HDI	262	3.8158	0.6191	0.0383	0.693
	High HDI	295	3.6203	0.6233	0.0363	
Behavioural Flexibility	Low HDI	262	4.0286	0.5849	0.0361	0.274
	High HDI	295	3.9169	0.5653	0.0329	
Communicative Awareness	Low HDI	262	4.0258	0.6105	0.0377	0.039
	High HDI	295	3.9136	0.5935	0.0346	
Collaborative Dialogue	Low HDI	262	3.9504	0.5965	0.0368	1.596
	High HDI	295	3.7356	0.5440	0.0317	
Social Rapport	Low HDI	262	4.1784	0.5659	0.0350	0.092
	High HDI	295	3.9686	0.5681	0.0331	

ANOVA test by marital status

The mean comparison related to the manager’s marital status shows that there is no difference between single and married managers in terms of significant correlation with any of the variables.

APPENDIX Table 0-8 ANOVA- Marital status

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Marital status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Single	422	5.6322	0.7265	0.0354	0.262
	Married	135	5.7860	0.7403	0.0637	
Knowledge Discovery	Single	422	4.2660	0.5282	0.0257	0.925
	Married	135	4.2222	0.5864	0.0505	
Respect for Otherness	Single	422	4.1872	0.5735	0.0279	0.075
	Married	135	4.2389	0.5953	0.0512	
Contextual Understanding	Single	422	3.9757	0.5910	0.0288	0.132
	Married	135	4.0074	0.6600	0.0568	
Cultural Mindfulness	Single	422	3.9076	0.5734	0.0279	1.001
	Married	135	3.9704	0.5673	0.0488	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Single	422	3.9627	0.5200	0.0253	0.568
	Married	135	4.0148	0.5753	0.0495	
Cultural Empathy	Single	422	4.0681	0.5858	0.0285	0.130
	Married	135	4.0833	0.6124	0.0527	
Polycentrism	Single	422	3.7577	0.6512	0.0317	0.230
	Married	135	3.8056	0.6942	0.0598	
Emotional Strength	Single	422	3.7020	0.6212	0.0302	0.000
	Married	135	3.7444	0.6518	0.0561	
Behavioural Flexibility	Single	422	3.9419	0.5779	0.0281	0.041
	Married	135	4.0556	0.5670	0.0488	
Communicative Awareness	Single	422	3.9716	0.6009	0.0293	0.044
	Married	135	3.9500	0.6137	0.0528	
Collaborative Dialogue	Single	422	3.8140	0.5749	0.0280	0.286
	Married	135	3.9074	0.5873	0.0505	
Social Rapport	Single	422	4.0640	0.5713	0.0278	0.068
	Married	135	4.0778	0.5934	0.0511	

ANOVA test by level of education

The mean comparison related to the manager's level of education shows that the managers who hold at least a master degree present higher levels of organizational readiness for change (f-distribution = 4.005), but also higher tolerance for ambiguity (f-distribution = 3.387), behavioural flexibility (f-distribution = 2.056) and communicative awareness (f-distribution = 5.820), whereas managers with only a bachelor degree show higher values in collaborative dialogue with (f-distribution = 4.981).

APPENDIX Table 0-9 ANOVA- Level of education

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Level of education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Bachelor or lower	225	5.6591	0.7707	0.0514	4.005
	Master or higher	332	5.6764	0.7060	0.0387	
Knowledge Discovery	Bachelor or lower	225	4.2078	0.5228	0.0349	0.257
	Master or higher	332	4.2877	0.5542	0.0304	
Respect for Otherness	Bachelor or lower	225	4.1811	0.5946	0.0396	0.298
	Master or higher	332	4.2123	0.5683	0.0312	
Contextual Understanding	Bachelor or lower	225	3.9289	0.6059	0.0404	0.822
	Master or higher	332	4.0203	0.6075	0.0333	
Cultural Mindfulness	Bachelor or lower	225	3.8789	0.5882	0.0392	1.981
	Master or higher	332	3.9526	0.5597	0.0307	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Bachelor or lower	225	3.9578	0.5624	0.0375	3.387
	Master or higher	332	3.9872	0.5142	0.0282	
Cultural Empathy	Bachelor or lower	225	4.0878	0.6072	0.0405	0.565
	Master or higher	332	4.0610	0.5819	0.0319	
Polycentrism	Bachelor or lower	225	3.7844	0.6941	0.0463	1.727
	Master or higher	332	3.7590	0.6395	0.0351	
Emotional Strength	Bachelor or lower	225	3.7022	0.6454	0.0430	0.040
	Master or higher	332	3.7191	0.6176	0.0339	
Behavioural Flexibility	Bachelor or lower	225	3.9533	0.6014	0.0401	2.056
	Master or higher	332	3.9804	0.5602	0.0307	
Communicative Awareness	Bachelor or lower	225	3.9389	0.6377	0.0425	5.820
	Master or higher	332	3.9849	0.5795	0.0318	
Collaborative Dialogue	Bachelor or lower	225	3.8400	0.6259	0.0417	4.981
	Master or higher	332	3.8343	0.5455	0.0299	
Social Rapport	Bachelor or lower	225	4.0444	0.5837	0.0389	0.376
	Master or higher	332	4.0828	0.5715	0.0314	

ANOVA test by working experience as a manager

The mean comparison related to the manager’s working experience confirms that managers with more that 5 years of experience in a managing position have higher values on tolerance for ambiguity (f-distribution = 3.224) and communicative awareness (f -distribution = 2.651).

APPENDIX Table 0-10 ANOVA- Working experience as a manager

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Experience as a manager	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Less than 5 years	410	5.6024	0.7259	0.0358	0.179
	More than 5 years	147	5.8565	0.7193	0.0593	
Knowledge Discovery	Less than 5 years	410	4.2774	0.5354	0.0264	0.733
	More than 5 years	147	4.1939	0.5596	0.0462	
Respect for Otherness	Less than 5 years	410	4.1872	0.5709	0.0282	0.034
	More than 5 years	147	4.2347	0.6005	0.0495	
Contextual Understanding	Less than 5 years	410	3.9780	0.6044	0.0299	0.109
	More than 5 years	147	3.9983	0.6197	0.0511	
Cultural Mindfulness	Less than 5 years	410	3.8951	0.5610	0.0277	0.021
	More than 5 years	147	4.0000	0.5968	0.0492	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Less than 5 years	410	3.9530	0.5122	0.0253	3.224
	More than 5 years	147	4.0374	0.5877	0.0485	
Cultural Empathy	Less than 5 years	410	4.0396	0.5762	0.0285	1.236
	More than 5 years	147	4.1616	0.6267	0.0517	
Polycentrism	Less than 5 years	410	3.7366	0.6603	0.0326	0.128
	More than 5 years	147	3.8605	0.6589	0.0543	
Emotional Strength	Less than 5 years	410	3.6713	0.6226	0.0307	0.116
	More than 5 years	147	3.8265	0.6327	0.0522	
Behavioural Flexibility	Less than 5 years	410	3.9451	0.5730	0.0283	0.166
	More than 5 years	147	4.0374	0.5840	0.0482	
Communicative Awareness	Less than 5 years	410	3.9537	0.6136	0.0303	2.651
	More than 5 years	147	4.0017	0.5752	0.0474	
Collaborative Dialogue	Less than 5 years	410	3.8049	0.5724	0.0283	0.033
	More than 5 years	147	3.9252	0.5892	0.0486	
Social Rapport	Less than 5 years	410	4.0585	0.5726	0.0283	0.000
	More than 5 years	147	4.0918	0.5875	0.0485	

ANOVA test by level of management

The mean comparison related to the level of management confirms that top and middle level managers show higher values in contextual understanding (f-distribution = 2.548); higher levels of emotional strength (f-distribution = 2.296) and also communicative awareness (f-distribution = 3.149).

APPENDIX Table 0-11 ANOVA- Level of management

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Level of managemet	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	First level manager	216	5.5499	0.7223	0.0491	0.332
	Middle and top level manager	341	5.7452	0.7293	0.0395	
Knowledge Discovery	First level manager	216	4.2465	0.5719	0.0389	1.738
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.2610	0.5241	0.0284	
Respect for Otherness	First level manager	216	4.1447	0.5957	0.0405	0.630
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.2346	0.5658	0.0306	
Contextual Understanding	First level manager	216	3.9514	0.6375	0.0434	2.548
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.0037	0.5886	0.0319	
Cultural Mindfulness	First level manager	216	3.8715	0.5970	0.0406	1.774
	Middle and top level manager	341	3.9553	0.5541	0.0300	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	First level manager	216	3.9190	0.5357	0.0365	0.240
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.0110	0.5304	0.0287	
Cultural Empathy	First level manager	216	4.0035	0.6253	0.0425	0.749
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.1151	0.5663	0.0307	
Polycentrism	First level manager	216	3.7083	0.6669	0.0454	0.012
	Middle and top level manager	341	3.8079	0.6562	0.0355	
Emotional Strength	First level manager	216	3.6424	0.6771	0.0461	5.296
	Middle and top level manager	341	3.7566	0.5923	0.0321	
Behavioural Flexibility	First level manager	216	3.9398	0.5715	0.0389	0.080
	Middle and top level manager	341	3.9883	0.5802	0.0314	
Communicative Awareness	First level manager	216	3.8947	0.6317	0.0430	3.149
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.0117	0.5815	0.0315	
Collaborative Dialogue	First level manager	216	3.7778	0.5790	0.0394	0.074
	Middle and top level manager	341	3.8739	0.5764	0.0312	
Social Rapport	First level manager	216	4.0012	0.5977	0.0407	0.001
	Middle and top level manager	341	4.1092	0.5590	0.0303	

ANOVA test by intercultural training

The mean comparison related intercultural training shows that managers who have had some kind of intercultural training are stronger in organizational readiness for change (f-distribution = 1.962) and cultural mindfulness (f -distribution = 2.069); whereas managers who never had intercultural training present higher level of respect for otherness (f-distribution = 3.283).

APPENDIX Table 0-12 ANOVA- Intercultural training

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Intercultural training	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Never had Intercultural Training	69	5.6441	0.6190	0.0745	1.962
	Had Intercultural Training	488	5.6730	0.7473	0.0338	
Knowledge Discovery	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.3333	0.4994	0.0601	0.558
	Had Intercultural Training	488	4.2444	0.5481	0.0248	
Respect for Otherness	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.2971	0.5168	0.0622	3.283
	Had Intercultural Training	488	4.1860	0.5861	0.0265	
Contextual Understanding	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.9275	0.5973	0.0719	0.062
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.9913	0.6097	0.0276	
Cultural Mindfulness	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.9130	0.5142	0.0619	2.069
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.9242	0.5802	0.0263	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.0761	0.4950	0.0596	0.320
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.9611	0.5381	0.0244	
Cultural Empathy	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.0580	0.5943	0.0715	0.481
	Had Intercultural Training	488	4.0738	0.5921	0.0268	
Polycentrism	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.8732	0.6354	0.0765	0.027
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.7546	0.6645	0.0301	
Emotional Strength	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.6558	0.7111	0.0856	1.472
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.7203	0.6162	0.0279	
Behavioural Flexibility	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.0580	0.5881	0.0708	0.130
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.9570	0.5747	0.0260	
Communicative Awareness	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.9420	0.6376	0.0768	1.193
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.9698	0.5992	0.0271	
Collaborative Dialogue	Never had Intercultural Training	69	3.8442	0.5147	0.0620	0.971
	Had Intercultural Training	488	3.8356	0.5878	0.0266	
Social Rapport	Never had Intercultural Training	69	4.0688	0.5686	0.0685	0.042
	Had Intercultural Training	488	4.0671	0.5779	0.0262	

ANOVA test by intercultural training “exposure”

The mean comparison related to the intercultural training exposure confirms that managers who have had high intercultural training exposure present more respect for otherness (f-distribution = 2.681); as well as a considerable high cultural empathy (f-distribution = 7.750); emotional strength (f-distribution = 7.593); and a relatively high communicative awareness (f-distribution = 3.740); whereas managers with low intercultural training exposure have no real impact in any of the variables.

APPENDIX Table 0-13 ANOVA- Intercultural training exposure

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Intercultural training exposure	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Low ITE exposure	270	5.5475	0.7269	0.0442	0.064
	High ITE exposure	287	5.7841	0.7197	0.0425	
Knowledge Discovery	Low ITE exposure	270	4.2454	0.5498	0.0335	0.017
	High ITE exposure	287	4.2648	0.5367	0.0317	
Respect for Otherness	Low ITE exposure	270	4.1750	0.6068	0.0369	2.681
	High ITE exposure	287	4.2230	0.5511	0.0325	
Contextual Understanding	Low ITE exposure	270	3.9194	0.6309	0.0384	0.959
	High ITE exposure	287	4.0436	0.5804	0.0343	
Cultural Mindfulness	Low ITE exposure	270	3.8556	0.5670	0.0345	0.027
	High ITE exposure	287	3.9861	0.5705	0.0337	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Low ITE exposure	270	3.9352	0.5470	0.0333	0.625
	High ITE exposure	287	4.0131	0.5193	0.0307	
Cultural Empathy	Low ITE exposure	270	4.0176	0.6513	0.0396	7.750
	High ITE exposure	287	4.1228	0.5259	0.0310	
Polycentrism	Low ITE exposure	270	3.7389	0.6598	0.0402	0.189
	High ITE exposure	287	3.7979	0.6632	0.0391	
Emotional Strength	Low ITE exposure	270	3.6407	0.6697	0.0408	7.593
	High ITE exposure	287	3.7796	0.5801	0.0342	
Behavioural Flexibility	Low ITE exposure	270	3.9565	0.5822	0.0354	0.020
	High ITE exposure	287	3.9817	0.5724	0.0338	
Communicative Awareness	Low ITE exposure	270	3.9176	0.6288	0.0383	3.740
	High ITE exposure	287	4.0122	0.5762	0.0340	
Collaborative Dialogue	Low ITE exposure	270	3.7741	0.5942	0.0362	0.272
	High ITE exposure	287	3.8955	0.5586	0.0330	
Social Rapport	Low ITE exposure	270	4.0278	0.5928	0.0361	0.322
	High ITE exposure	287	4.1045	0.5586	0.0330	

ANOVA test by multicultural experience

The mean comparison related to the individual multicultural experience shows that managers with vast multicultural experience have strong cognitive capabilities such as knowledge discovery (f-distribution = 2.939) as well as a very high value in respect for otherness (f-distribution = 6.275). Managers with low multicultural experience show no real impact in any of the other variables.

APPENDIX Table 0-14 ANOVA- Multicultural experience

Group Statistics						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
	Multicultural experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F
Organizational Readiness for Change	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	5.6491	0.7380	0.0329	0.244
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	5.8625	0.6496	0.0892	
Knowledge Discovery	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	4.2247	0.5468	0.0244	2.939
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.5472	0.4015	0.0551	
Respect for Otherness	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	4.1696	0.5858	0.0261	6.275
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.4858	0.4114	0.0565	
Contextual Understanding	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.9425	0.6031	0.0269	0.083
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.3726	0.5133	0.0705	
Cultural Mindfulness	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.8983	0.5670	0.0253	0.033
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.1557	0.5722	0.0786	
Tolerance for Ambiguity	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.9489	0.5346	0.0238	0.758
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.2264	0.4606	0.0633	
Cultural Empathy	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	4.0630	0.5916	0.0264	0.555
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.1557	0.5929	0.0814	
Polycentrism	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.7436	0.6608	0.0294	0.197
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.0142	0.6229	0.0856	
Emotional Strength	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.6875	0.6249	0.0278	0.000
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	3.9481	0.6189	0.0850	
Behavioural Flexibility	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.9449	0.5778	0.0257	0.142
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.2028	0.5167	0.0710	
Communicative Awareness	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.9499	0.5989	0.0267	0.714
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.1226	0.6310	0.0867	
Collaborative Dialogue	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	3.8095	0.5804	0.0259	1.074
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.0943	0.4981	0.0684	
Social Rapport	Limited Multicultural Experience	504	4.0372	0.5779	0.0257	1.173
	Vast Multicultural Experience	53	4.3538	0.4765	0.0654	

