

Fall | 2011

# Intercultural Effectiveness Scale

## Technical Report

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First published September 2008  
by The Kozai Group, Inc.  
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Typeset in Baskerville and Calibri

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1. Intercultural effectiveness -- measurement. 2. Intercultural interaction. 3. Global leadership. 4. Expatriate adjustment and performance.

## **SPECIFICATION OF THE CONTENT DOMAIN AND RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE INTERCULTURAL EFFECTIVENESS SCALE (IES)**

The 21st century is one of unremitting globalization. The bumper sticker wisdom that implores, “think globally, act locally,” has become a reality and a necessity for educators, businesspeople, politicians, scientists, journalists, entertainers, athletes, and inventors alike.

Globalization is an ever-increasing social complexity that arises from the ongoing integration of cultural, technological, political, social, and business processes that results in a teeming, unpredictable, ambiguous, ever-changing context that must be squarely faced by everyone—but especially educators and businesspeople (Lane, Maznevski, & Mendenhall, 2004).

For example, globalization has caused educators to consider how to develop in students of all ages a better understanding of the world and its various cultures, and the need to develop competencies within their students that will allow them to live and thrive in a complex, ever-changing, globalized environment. Similarly, globalization has caused many CEOs to aggressively reposition their companies to deal with the unparalleled cross-border trade and investment, continual and rapid change in technological advances, ongoing shifts in global products and consumers, higher global standards in production and quality, and the inherent unpredictability in markets that characterize the complexity we call “globalization.”

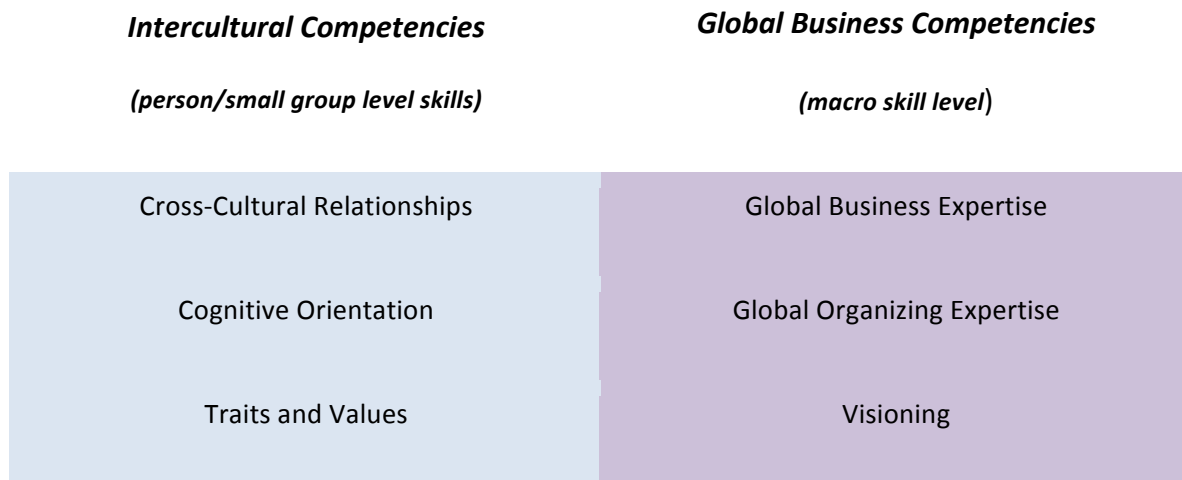
“How do we develop people who can thrive in the context of globalization?” First, it is necessary to understand and delineate the competencies associated with thriving in global contexts. What competencies do people possess who exhibit success in living and working in cross-culturally complex situations? And, what clues can these “global leaders” give us in terms of educating and developing people who can be successful in the age of globalization?

Since the early 1990s, an increasing number of scholars have been studying effective global leaders and attempting to delineate the competencies that are critical to their success. Reviews of this literature (Bird & Osland, 2004; Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall, 2001; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, 2008; Osland, Taylor, & Mendenhall, in press) find that social scientists have delineated over fifty competencies that influence global leadership effectiveness; however, many of these competencies overlap conceptually and are often separated only by semantic differences in the labels given them by researchers (Jokinen, 2005; Osland, 2008). The reviews also indicate clearly that global leadership is a multi-dimensional construct.

After analyzing the findings of the above reviews, we found that the framework developed by Mendenhall and Osland (2002) to categorize the numerous competencies found within the global leadership literature continues to be relevant to current research in the field, and elegantly conceptually organizes the numerous global leadership competencies into six core dimensions of competencies. They labeled these six dimensions, respectively: *cross-cultural relationship skills, traits and values, cognitive orientation, global business expertise, global organizing expertise, and visioning*

When these six dimensions of global leadership competencies were compared to the literature of expatriate effectiveness, it was found that there was a significant overlap between three of the competency dimensions of global leadership (*cross-cultural relationship skills, traits and values, cognitive orientation*) and the competencies that are important to living and working in a foreign country as an expatriate (Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall, 2001; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006; Osland, 2008).

The six competency dimensions can be conceptually divided between those that involve competencies directly related to intercultural interaction at the person and small group level, *cross-cultural relationships, cognitive orientation, traits and values* (which are critical to expatriate effectiveness), and those that involve the mastery of more macro, global business knowledge and skills (*global business expertise, global organizing expertise, visioning*).



### **AN OVERVIEW OF THE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCIES DIMENSIONS IN THE GLOBAL LEADERSHIP AND EXPATRIATION LITERATURES**

We will now present an overview of the major competencies that exist in the three domains of intercultural competencies above (*cross-cultural relationships, cognitive orientation, and traits and values*) from both the expatriate and global leadership research literature.

To explore the evolution of knowledge in the field of expatriation, we analyzed the reviews of the empirical expatriate literature since 1984 (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Gersten, 1990; Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004; Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Jordan & Cartwright, 1998; Kealey, 1996; Mendenhall, Kühlmann, Stahl, & Osland, 2002; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mol, Born, Willemsen, & Van der Molen, 2005; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1984; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Ronen, 1989; Stahl, 2001; Thomas, 1998; Thomas & Lazarova, 2006) to evaluate their assessment of the state of the field.

Additionally, due to the fact that the expatriate research literature is spread across various

disciplines, thus making it difficult for reviewers to comprehensively cover all extant empirical studies, we have included in the paper empirical studies that were not included in the aforementioned reviews or that were published after the appearance of these reviews. To assess the empirical literature of the global leadership field, we reviewed the following reviews of that literature (Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall, 2001; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, 2008; Osland, et. al., in press).

## EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT COMPETENCIES

The ability to adjust to the work, social, and general cultural dimensions of a new culture has been shown to influence subsequent productivity of the expatriate during his/her overseas assignment (Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). Successful expatriate adjustment predicts task completion and relationship building effectiveness during the overseas assignment (Harrison & Shaffer, 2005), thus an understanding of what competencies influence expatriate adjustment is critical to an understanding of enhancing individual performance in the global workplace.

We began our review of the expatriate literature with the review and categorization of competencies associated with expatriate adjustment conducted by Mendenhall & Oddou in 1985. Based upon their oft-cited review of the literature, Mendenhall & Oddou (1985) classified the numerous competencies that they found influenced expatriate adjustment into one of three categories: the *self-oriented dimension*, the *others-oriented dimension*, and the *perceptual dimension*. These three dimensions align conceptually with the three dimensions of intercultural competencies we have noted above; specifically, *others-oriented* = *cross-cultural relationships*, *perceptual dimension* = *cognitive orientation*, *self-oriented dimension* = *traits and values*.

The *self-oriented* dimension includes “activities and attributes that serve to strengthen the expatriate’s self-esteem, self-confidence, and mental hygiene” (1985: 40). The *others-oriented* dimension includes “activities and attributes that enhance the expatriate’s ability to interact effectively with host-nationals” (1985: 41), while the *perceptual* dimension contains cognitive processes that facilitate an expatriate’s “ability to understand why foreigners behave the way they do,” thus enhancing their “ability to make correct attributions about the reasons or causes of host-nationals’ behavior” (1985: 42).

This categorization has been a fruitful one over time in the literature (Thomas, 1998) and is, in part, the basis for the most rigorously tested, influential and robust model of expatriate adjustment in the field, *The International Adjustment Model (IA)*, which was developed by J. Stewart Black, Mark E. Mendenhall, and Gary R. Oddou in 1991 (for reviews and empirical validation of this model see: Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Mendenhall, Kühlmann, Stahl, & Osland, 2002; Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999).

In their IA model, Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou. (1991) renamed Mendenhall and Oddou’s (1985) earlier categories. *Self-orientation* was relabeled, *self-efficacy*, reflecting the degree to which an individual believes he or she has the ability to succeed in new tasks and settings (Bandura, 1977). The other two dimensions, *others-oriented* and *perceptual*, were respectively re-labeled as *relational* and

*perceptual* in the IA model.

These three dimensions constituted the *Individual* dimension of Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou's 1991 model, which focused on traits and competencies that had been shown in the literature to positively influence heightened levels of success in interacting with people from other cultures in overseas or cross-culturally significant settings. This *Individual* dimension constituted one of four dimensions of direct determinants of expatriate adjustment (the others were labeled: *job*, *organizational*, and *nonwork*) in the IA model.

A comprehensive meta-analysis of the IA model by Bhaskar-Shrinivas and colleagues (2005) of over 50 determinants of expatriate adjustment using data from 8,474 expatriates in 66 studies emphasized the "centrality, criticality, and complexity of adjustment, strongly supporting Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou's (1991) model (p. 257)." They also concluded that the "meta-analytic findings attest to the importance of some individual factors--overall self-efficacy and relational skills - - in predicting expatriate adjustment. The variance explained by the latter exceeded that explained by other predictors by 30 percent (p. 272)." Thus, competencies associated with Mendenhall and Oddou's 1985's categorization were found to have a powerful influence on a person's ability to be successful in cross-cultural and global milieus.

To summarize, the research suggests that the content domain of global competencies can be usefully summarized using three broad facets or dimensions for individuals: the *cognitive/perceptual*, *other/relationship*, and *self/self-efficacy* domains (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et. al., 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Black et. al., 1991; Thomas, 1998: 247).

For clarity and pedagogical purposes for use with students, these three dimensions have been re-titled the *Continuous Learning*, *Interpersonal Engagement*, and *Hardiness* domains in the *Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)*.

These three major competency dimensions will be reviewed below, along with their two, major sub-facets; a discussion of the empirical support for each sub-facet from the extant literature is included as well.

The first dimension that will be reviewed is the *Continuous Learning* dimension.

## **CONTINUOUS LEARNING**

Based on their review of the pre-1985 research on expatriate adjustment Mendenhall & Oddou (1985) concluded that, in large part, those who learned to adapt to foreign cultures were able to do the following:

1. Make correct attributions regarding host nationals' behavior;
2. Be nonjudgmental when evaluating host nationals' behavior;
3. Make loose vs. rigid evaluations of host nationals' behavior;
4. Update and modify cognitive schema regarding the host culture;
5. Seek out information to better process host national cultural stimuli.

Reviews of the empirical literature support this perceptual dimension as a forceful influencer of intercultural effectiveness. (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Gersten, 1990; Kealey, 1996; Boyacigiller, Beechler, Taylor, & Levy, 2004; Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1984; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Osland, et. al, 2006; Ronen, 1989; Stahl, 2001)).

Individuals' perceptual orientation toward the world of culture, and others from different cultures, influences their effectiveness in their cross-cultural social and business interactions. The *IES* dimension of *Continuous Learning* examines how people cognitively approach cultural differences. It assesses the degree to which individuals engage the world by continually seeking to understand themselves and also learn about the activities, behavior, and events that occur in the foreign environment.

The dimension of *Continuous Learning* is therefore assessed in the *IES* by measuring two important cognitive variables: *Self-Awareness* and *Exploration*. These variables influence intercultural success in an individual by acting as internal motivators to learn about why people in other cultures behave and think the way they do. People who consistently strive to learn new things about cultures and people are more successful at living and working effectively with people from other cultures than individuals who are comfortable with what they already know.

**Self Awareness (SA)** refers to the degree to which people are aware of: 1) their strengths and weaknesses in interpersonal skills, 2) their own philosophies and values, 3) how past experiences have helped shape them into who they are as a person, and 4) the impact their values and behavior have on relationships with others.

Self awareness influences one's ability to continuously learn as well as how one learns. High scorers are extremely aware of their own values, strengths and limitations, and behavioral tendencies and how they impact and affect others; they are constantly evaluating themselves and this process in their lives. Low scorers report little concern or interest in knowing themselves or how their behavioral tendencies affect other people, and are not very interested in trying to understand their experiences. High self-awareness provides a foundation for strategically acquiring new competencies and skills, whereas low self-awareness promotes self-deception and arrogance. For example, if I am aware that I am not very good at developing relationships, but I am going to Japan where I know it is key to doing so, I might be more likely to pay careful attention to how people address one another and make a greater effort to interact with people.

Jokinen (2005) categorizes this competency as being one of the primary competencies that is fundamental to effectively work with people from other cultures. Similarly, Varner and Palmer (2005) argue that, "conscious cultural self-knowledge is a crucial variable in adapting to other cultures (p. 1)."

Goldsmith, Greenberg, Robertson, & Hu-Chan (2003) include self-awareness as an important competency in the *personal mastery* component of their global leadership model. One of the important benefits, according to Goldsmith, et. al, (2003) regarding this competency is that it allows one to strategically involve others in one's work to complement one's personal weaknesses. Wills and Barnham (1994) found that emotional self-awareness was an important predictor of intercultural

effectiveness, and Chen (1987) found that it related to intercultural communication competence.

Similarly, Bird and Osland (2004) concluded that one of the byproducts of the competency of self-awareness, a sense of humility, is an important competency for successful intercultural interaction.

These findings are in harmony with the research literature in domestic management where self-awareness has been found to be one of the crucial competencies possessed by effective managers (Whetten & Cameron, 2005).

**Exploration (E)** reflects an openness towards, and an active pursuit of understanding ideas, values, norms, situations, and behaviors that are new and different. It involves the willingness to seek to understand the underlying reasons for cultural differences and to avoid stereotyping people from other cultures. It also includes one's capacity to actively take advantage of opportunities for growth and learning. It reflects a fundamental inquisitiveness, curiosity, an inner desire to learn new things, and the ability to learn from mistakes and to make adjustments to your personal strategies to ensure success in social and work settings.

Tucker, Bonial, and Lahti (2004: 230) conceptualize it as "the capability to accept new ideas and see more than one's own way of approaching and solving problems." It is akin to the Big Five dimension of *Intellectance* or *Openness to Experience*, which reflects the "breadth, depth, originality, and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 121)." Shaffer, et. al. (2006) state that individuals high in *Intellectance*, as well as exhibiting other tendencies, are "more curious and eager to learn" new information about others and themselves (p. 113.); in their research it predicted expatriate work adjustment, contextual performance, and task performance.

This competency also emerged in reviews of the global leadership literature (Bird & Osland, 2004; Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, 2008) and has also found support in work by Kealey and his associates (Hudson & Inkson, 2006; Kealey, 1989, 1994, 1996; Kealey & Ruben, 1983) and others in the expatriate literature (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Mol, et. al., 2005; Moro Bueno & Tubbs, 2004; Ronen, 1989; Sinangil & Ones, 1997; Kühlmann & Stahl, 1996, 1998; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1984).

Based upon interviews with 90 senior executives and 40 nominated global leaders in 50 companies located in Europe, North America, and Asia, Black, Morrison & Gregersen (1999) found that inquisitiveness was the most important global competency within the constellation of competencies identified in their study. Also, Black & Gregersen (1991) found that individuals who took the initiative to learn about the new culture to which they were assigned to live and work in had higher levels of intercultural adjustment than did expatriates who did not do take such initiative or who relied only on company-provided training. Kealey (1996; 87) cited this as a primary competency in his review, stating that:

Being intrigued about different cultures and wanting to learn about them is associated with effective collaboration across cultures...this interest usually leads to a sincere desire to get to know the country, its people, and its traditions.

The extended effect of inquisitiveness is often that it leads to a preparation and a motivation to exhibit or improve competencies associated with the *Interpersonal Engagement* dimension. The next section will review the *Interpersonal Engagement* dimension along with its two associated competencies, *Global Mindset* and *Relationship Interest*.

## INTERPERSONAL ENGAGEMENT

In their review of the research, Mendenhall & Oddou (1985: 41) found that a the ability to develop positive relationships with host-nationals, “emerged as an important factor in successful overseas adjustment (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Brein & David, 1971, 1973; Hammer, et. al., 1978; Harris, 1973; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Ratiu, 1983), accounting for large portions of the variance in the factor analytic studies studying adjustment (Hammer, et. al., 1978; Harris, 1973).” Strong relationships with people from the new culture also become sources of information to help one understand the new culture and are sources of social support. The development of positive relationships is a critical aspect of effective intercultural job performance (Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Mol et. al., 2005). Developing positive relationships depends in large part on one’s interest in learning about people from other cultures, their customs, values, etc. The more information that is known about them, the greater the common ground that can then become a more solid basis for an effective relationship. This dimension, therefore, is assessed in the IES using two scales, *Global Mindset* and *Relationship Interest*.

**Global Mindset (GM)** measures the degree to which one is interested in, and seeks to actively learn about, other cultures and the people that live in them. This learning can take place from such things as newspapers, the Internet, movies, foreign media outlets, course electives in school, or television documentaries. The degree to which one actively seeks these outlets, by one’s own choice, to expand personal knowledge about people and their cultures, reflects the strength of one’s global mindset. It provides the basis upon which one can interact more effectively with people from other cultures.

To be effective in a global or cross-cultural milieu, it is necessary to have a perspective of time and space that extends beyond one’s local milieu (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Boyacigiller, et. al., 2004; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Flango & Brumbaugh, 1974; Goldberg, 1976). This is an important orientation for global leaders to possess (Boyacigiller, et. al., 2004; Levy, et. al., 2007), and emerged in reviews of the literature on effective global leadership competencies (Bird & Osland, 2004; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002; Osland, et. al., 2006; Osland, 2008).

Our conceptualization of global mindset reflects the notion of cosmopolitanism of Levy, et. al. (2007) who argue, after reviewing the literature in this area, that cosmopolitanism “represents a state of mind that is manifested as an orientation toward the outside, the Other...a willingness to explore and learn from alternative systems of meaning held by others (p. 240).” Similarly, in the expatriate and immigrant adjustment literature, an interest in foreign cultures appears as a contributing variable to adaptation (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Hudson & Inkson, 2006; Hull, 1978; Klineberg & Hull, 1979; Pruitt, 1978; Ronen, 1989; Ward & Searle, 1991; also see Ward, 1996).

**Relationship Interest (RI)** refers to the degree to which people have a desire and willingness to initiate and maintain relationships with people from other cultures. People high on this dimension will work hard to develop relationships with others; Mendenhall & Oddou (1985) defined this competency as “the ability to develop long-lasting friendships with host nationals” (p. 41). Black et. al., (1999) describe it as the ability to “emotionally connect with others.”

This relationship between relationship development and adjustment to foreign cultures has remained constant in the literature since the publication of Mendenhall & Oddou’s 1985 review and categorization of the intercultural competencies that positively influence cross-cultural adjustment. In all of the reviews in both the global leadership and expatriate adjustment literature that we reviewed, the ability to create and maintain relationships with individuals in cross-cultural/global settings was found to be a key competency domain (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et. al, 2005; Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Jordan & Cartwright, 1998; Harrison, et. al., 2004; Kealey, 1996; Mendenhall, et. al, 2002; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mol, et. al, 2005; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1984; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Osland, 2008; Ronen, 1989; Stahl, 2001; Thomas, 1998; Thomas & Lazarova, 2006).

Reviews of the literature have also shown specifically that the development of relationships is critical to cross-cultural effectiveness and adjustment, though this dimension has been classified using different terminology, such as *people orientation* (Shaffer, et. al., 2006) *interaction management* (Ruben & Kealey, 1979), *relationship building* (Kealey, 1996), *outgoingness* or *extraversion* (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Ronen, 1989), *relational abilities* (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998; Thomas, 1998), *sociability* and *interest in other people* (Kealey & Ruben, 1983; Stahl, 2001), *interpersonal skills* (Hechanova, et. al., 2003) and *intercultural competence* (Dinges & Baldwin, 1996). Global leadership literature reviews similarly note that this is an important competency for effective intercultural interaction (Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002).

Empirical studies continue to sustain the role of relationship development, and its attendant skills such as communication competence, as being critical to expatriate adjustment and intercultural competence (Arthur & Bennett, 1997; Bikson, Treverton, Moini, & Lindstrom, 2003; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Cui & Awa, 1992; Cui & Van Den Berg, 1991; Hammer, 1987; Hechanova, et. al., 2003; Kuhlmann & Stahl, 1996, 1998; Martin, 1987; Martin & Hammer, 1989; Shaffer, et. al., 2006; Sinangil & Ones, 1997; Sudweeks, Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, & Nishida, 1990; Thomas, 1998; Torbiorn, 1982).

For example, Waxin (2004) found that “social orientation” had a significant overall effect on French, German, Korean, and Scandinavian expatriates’ ability to adjust productively to interacting with Indians. Similarly, Tucker, Bonial, & Lathi (2004) found that the dimension in their model, *social interpersonal style*, which was made up of the variables of “interpersonal interest” and “social adaptability” was significantly related to intercultural adjustment in their sample of corporate expatriates.

Tsang (2001) argued that *extroversion*, which is positively related to *sociability* and *interpersonal involvement* would be positively related to general and interaction adjustment in his sample of expatriates. This hypothesis was supported in his findings, reinforcing similar findings from past studies (Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1993). Social support, a

variable in Tsang's 2001 that he defined as "help received from other people when encountering difficulties in coping with a new environment (p. 356)," is similar to the aspect of relationship development, and was also found to significantly influence general and interaction adjustment in his study (Tsang, 2001).

Mendenhall & Oddou (1985) noted that exercise of relationship development had the effect of establishing friendships with host nationals who then took on mentoring roles to the expatriate, guiding "the neophyte through the intricacies and complexity of the new organization or culture, protecting him/her against faux pas and helping him/her enact appropriate behaviors." (p. 41-42). Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et. al., (2005) found strong support for this competency in their meta-analytic review of the expatriate adjustment literature, where they found that the variance explained by [relational skills] exceeded that explained by other predictors by 30 percent." (p. 272).

In the next section, we will review the last major domain area, *Hardiness*, followed by a detailed look at its two competencies, *Open-mindedness* and *Emotional Resilience*.

## HARDINESS

To work effectively with those who are different from us and adapt to the new environment, it is crucial to be open to differences and avoid being judgmental. Being open increases our chances for developing positive relationships in the foreign culture. It increases our desire to learn more and better understand the host culture. In sum, it helps build bridges rather than build walls. Therefore, Openness is key to working effectively with people who are different from us. However, regardless of how adept we are at acculturating, there will always be differences that will cause some frustration and stress. Not always knowing what to do and not always being able to perform at our normal level are stressful experiences for us; as a result, our ability to withstand stress and the hardships and remain calm is also critical.

Activities and attributes that serve to strengthen the expatriate's self-esteem, self-confidence, and mental hygiene are therefore key to intercultural effectiveness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985, pg. 40). We have typed people's ability to effectively manage their emotions and stress, along with the ability to be open-minded and nonjudgmental about ideas and behaviors that are new as the *Hardiness* dimension.

Subsequent reviews of both the global leadership and the expatriate literature support the validity of this dimension as an important contributor to intercultural effectiveness. Various variables have been linked to intercultural effectiveness in this domain; common variables receiving general support in the reviews of the literature include: *coping with stress* (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Jordan & Cartwright, 1998; Kealey, 1996; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Ronen, 1989; Thomas, 1998), *psychological hardiness* (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Caligiuri, 2000; Kealey, 1996; Mendenhall, 2001; Osland & Mendenhall, 2002; Osland, 2008; Ronen, 1989), *self-confidence* (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et. al., 2005; Goldsmith, et. al., 2003; Hechanova, et. al., 2003; Jordan & Cartwright, 1998; Kealey, 1996), and *optimism* (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Caligiuri, 2004; Jokinen, 2005; Kealey, 1996; Kuhlmann & Stahl, 1996, 1998; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Ronen, 1989).

**Positive Regard (PR)** refers to the extent to which one is inclined to withhold or suspend judgment about persons or situations or behavior that is new or unfamiliar. It measures the degree to which one thinks positively about people from other cultures. If people are rigid or use only their own culture as the standard for evaluating cultural differences, then they will be less effective working with people from other cultures. Waiting to understand the situation or person before making a judgment or strong attributions enhances intercultural effectiveness; the opposite tendency, making snap judgments about situations or people—and being reluctant to change those judgments—is not efficacious in cross-cultural interactions. *Positive Regard* also assists individuals in avoiding getting upset, stressed, frustrated, or angry when they encounter situations, people, behavior, and ideas that are different from which they are accustomed.

Black (1990) and Shaffer et. al. (2006) referred to the obverse of this competency as *ethnocentrism*, “the propensity to view one’s own cultural traditions and behaviors as right and those of others as wrong (p. 114)” and argued that this mindset interferes with making accurate perceptions in cross-cultural encounters. Shaffer et. al. (2006) found that *ethnocentrism* negatively predicted interaction adjustment and contextual performance, and strongly influenced withdrawal from assignment cognitions in their sample of expatriates.

Aspects of this competency appear both in the global leadership and in the expatriate literature as being related to intercultural effectiveness (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Cui & Awa, 1992; Gersten, 1990; Ronen, 1989; Sinangil & Ones, 1997; Hudson & Inkson, 2006; Kühlmann & Stahl, 1996, 1998; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Moro Bueno & Tubbs, 2004; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1984).

**Emotional Resilience (ER)** refers to the extent to which a person has emotional strength and resilience to cope with challenging cross-cultural situations. Emotional resilience reflects the psychological hardiness that allows a global manager to carry on through difficult challenges. Individuals who can manage and control their emotions are also better equipped to deploy other global competencies than those who are low in emotional resilience.

This competency emerged in Mendenhall & Osland’s 2002 review of the global leadership literature, and in Bird & Osland’s 2004 review of global competencies. Emotional resilience is a common indicator of intercultural effectiveness in the expatriate literature as well (Arthur & Bennett, 1995, 1997; Caligiuri, 2000; Kealey, 1996; Ronen, 1989).

Emotional resilience is akin to the ability to carry on in the face of adversity, *perseverance*, which is described by Kealy (1996) in his review of the literature as being an important attribute of working in foreign cultures. He classifies it as being a key predictor of success in a cross-cultural/global work setting. Kelley and Meyers (1992) assert from their research that:

The emotionally resilient person has the ability to deal with stress feelings in a constructive way and to “bounce back” from them. Emotionally resilient people . . . have confidence in their ability to cope with ambiguity . . . and have a positive sense of humor and self-regard.

## SUMMARY

The body of theoretical and empirical research in global leadership competencies and development, and in expatriate adjustment and performance, provide strong support for the conceptual formulation of a three dimensional framework as represented in the *Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)*. Specifically, *Continuous Learning*, *Interpersonal Engagement* and *Hardiness* constitute three distinctive though related domains. Moreover, each of these competencies can be broken down into separate competencies, each of which captures an important aspect of overall intercultural competency.

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