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Brigitte K. Armon *Editors*

Internationalizing the Curriculum in Organizational Psychology

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Preface

Navigating the Age of Internationalization

The history of humankind can be roughly split into two narratives (Fernández-Armesto, 2006). The first story concerns the drive to seek out new territories. Shortly after standing erect for the first time, Homo sapiens began to leave East Africa behind and migrated to every habitable portion of the planet. For more than 150,000 years early explorers traversed landmasses, open seas, and ice bridges to found new communities and take advantage of the resources specific to those regions, settling in even as the lands moved apart. During this period, humans diverged and developed unique languages, cultures, and skills. The second story concerns the 10,000 years that followed and humankind's struggle to reconnect across the long expanses created by human migration. This period of time has been devoted to the challenge of tolerating, managing, and ultimately, capitalizing on cultural diversity. While seemingly contrary in purpose, both of these periods of divergence and convergence were a form of exploration.

Exploration defines human existence, and romanticized adventures comprise our history. There are many tales of explorers who sailed vast seas to plant flags in what they thought were untouched regions of the globe. Some of this early exploration was fueled by the pride of being the first person to accomplish a feat or by the drive to shed light on the previously unknown. However, much exploration has been goal driven. Early humans responded to changes in weather and climate by migrating to find regions more suitable to their way of living. As the populations grew, so did demand for hunting areas and fresh water. So while the adventurous spirit was a driver for exploration, the mundane need to fulfill the necessities of life had a much greater influence on human discovery. As society's needs and functioning became more complex, the scope of exploration expanded, and thus, international trade was born.

International business is indeed very old. Archeological artifacts suggest that trade across national borders and distinct geographic regions occurred more than 10,000 years ago (Smith, 2009). Global business strategies were developed as early as 3000 BCE. The first deliberate international trade strategies originated in the Ancient Sumer and Indus Valley Civilization (Frank & Gills, 1993). As trade expanded, so did the knowledge of the surrounding environment. From the Silk

Road (established in 300 BCE) to the international trade activities of the Portuguese and Spanish in the 15th century, international merchants mapped the unknown world. These explorers are responsible for not only economic growth and cultural exchange but also better understanding of the world.

A leisurely glance through Ehrenberg's (2005) *Mapping the World: An Illustrated History Of Cartography* demonstrates this point. Early maps used by international traders are oriented incorrectly, are out of proportion, have inaccurate coastlines, feature phantom islands, and lack entire continents. Second century explorers likely had great faith in the maps of that period. However, looking back the maps seem crude and almost child-like due to the lack of knowledge and understanding of the world as it existed then. But as explorers struck out across the planet in search of shorter trade routes and expanded markets, our understanding of the contours of our planet grew, and the accuracy of our maps also grew in relation to this improved understanding.

Rather than embrace the international nature of business, the field of Industrial Organizational (I/O) psychology has been reluctant to internationalize (Aycan & Kanungo, 2001). In the face of the rapid growth characteristic of the modern version of globalization, we contend this resistance will not do. Erez (1994) suggested that ignoring cross-cultural issues "limits our understanding of why motivational approaches and managerial practices are not always smoothly transferred across cultures" (p. 560), and that the current state of our science provides at best insufficient answers to the emerging questions of the modern world. Like the early explorers, we may be confidently operating on a map that does not correspond to the features of the world in which we practice and conduct research.

Gradually, we are seeing increases in international research collaboration and international membership of top professional associations (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008; Erez 2011; Gelfand et al. 2007; Kraut & Mondo, 2009; Ryan & Gelfand, 2012). Several researchers (e.g., Griffin & Kabanoff, 2002; Griffith & Wang, 2010; Griffith et al. 2013; McFarland 2004) note these trends and argue strongly for intensified internationalization efforts. Yet, although these calls for deeper internationalization have rung out for more than a decade, they have not spurred further action. Why? In part, the blame lies in the absence of the topic and its supporting activities in the curricula of leading postgraduate training institutions (Ryan & Gelfand, 2012). Most students who are exposed to international or cross cultural issues in I/O have benefited from the research interests of their advisors more so than formal training. Given the obvious need and the growing emphasis on internationalization in college education, this lack of systematic training curriculum is curious. Why are there not more curricula that train graduate students to effectively contribute to the global arena in which they live and work?

Our position is that the slow growth of internationalization and the lack of international curriculum are due to one fact: there are no maps. While governing bodies such of the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology, the European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology, and the European Network of Organizational and Work Psychologists provide guidelines for graduate education, little discipline specific guidance is available on internationalizing courses and training programs.

In the era of digital technology the concept of a map may seem quite antiquated. However, while we have traded our parchment for a variety of GPS-enabled devices, the original concept remains sound, and maps continue to be quite useful. Maps not only give us a sense of direction, they allow us to assess risk and allot resources. A route over a mountain range may be the shortest and quickest route but be fraught with danger and resource intensive. An alternate route may require less intense effort but, ultimately, take more time. Maps facilitate planning and allow for a common frame of reference both for travelers embarking on their first journey and for seasoned experts called on in times of trouble. They engender a feeling of certainty, while providing endless options. Maps do not dictate a single path to a destination, only choices between well-worn roads and less beaten paths. Maps provide possibilities and, for the most adventuresome, boundaries beyond which lie the unknown.

More and more, professionals recognize that the time has come to launch their journeys towards internationalization, yet without a map few know where to start and where to go from there. In an endeavor as costly, time consuming, and risky as internationalizing a graduate training program, the idea of starting from a blank slate would daunt even the most intrepid. Luckily, our discipline has a few explorers of its own.

Navigating the Age of Internationalization

The goal of this book is to leverage the expertise and insight of a group of pioneering researchers and practitioners in the emerging area of international I/O psychology. The authors have shared their experience and thoughts regarding the knowledge and skills that students must master in the twenty-first century, as well as their research on how we can develop students to be globally perceptive, culturally competent working professionals. The content of the book focuses on the internationalization of a training curriculum and will address topics including: the scope of subject matter and content, learning objectives and outcomes, global competencies, co-curricular activities, and experiential learning. The following chapters present current thinking on potential elements of an international curriculum and are summarized in four sections: context, curricula, competencies, and concrete action.

In the first section, Milton Hakel (Chap. 1) will introduce the impact of the current global business environment on I/O psychology. Challenging readers to expect surprises, Hakel uses research and experience to connect the new inevitability of change, the hallmark of modern globalization, to the field of I/O. After considering the realities of globalization, readers are guided through the practical and ethical considerations of developing truly international curricula and partnerships, with a focus on crossing the global North-South divide. The authors, Ishbel McWha, Gubela Mji, Malcolm MacLachlan, and Stuart Carr (Chap. 2), pay particular attention to the disparities and power imbalances which shape today's reality, reframing them as opportunities to craft elements of global and social awareness into I/O psychology and displace the hegemony of Western topics and perspectives.

Drawing attention to the impact of Western domination on research, Donald Truxillo & Franco Fraccaroli (Chap. 3) challenge the assumptions underlying much past I/O research, questioning the solidity of our paradigms. To that end, the chapter opens with an analysis of the different assumptions of North American and European I/O findings and philosophy, noting that when such differences exist between two relatively similar regions of the world, one can only expect the differences to increase with culture distance. To redress this issue the authors' put forth several suggestions, including less traditional ways of gaining and thinking about knowledge, as well as increased international research collaborations.

In the second section, four chapters address topics surrounding international curricula. Underlying all education efforts are certain assumptions and philosophies, which, implicitly or explicitly, shape the content and mode of instruction. To clarify the impact of those philosophies on globalization, Jessica Wildman, Rubina Qureshi, Maritza Salazar, and Eduardo Salas (Chap. 4) provide an overview of different regional education models from around the globe. Moreover, the authors do not stop at summarization. They synthesize these educational models in order to suggest an optimized international I/O curricula as well as a list of educational best practices.

The following chapter presents another alternative approach to an internationalized I/O curriculum, the Integrated International Learning model. As with the approach described above, Sharon Glazer, Carolina Moliner, and Carmen Carmona (Chap. 5) develop their model through the use of contrasts, including the difference between education and training, as well as differences between I/O psychology and business program models. This chapter also includes an overview of the tools through which programs may increase their internationalization.

Describing perhaps the pinnacle of internationalized curricula, the authors Isabel Martínez-Tur, José María Peiró, and Vincente Rodríguez (Chap. 6), describe the creation an international Master's program in Work, Organizational, and Personnel Psychology (WOP-P) under the European Union's Erasmus Mundus initiative. Detailing many decision points, both academic (e.g., the balance between global and local content) and logistical (e.g., credits and degrees), this chapter provides both a roadmap of the program's development as well as reflections from the years since the program's implementation.

To conclude this section, Matthew Monnot, Thad Barnowe, and Greg Youtz (Chap. 7) discuss one specific element of internationalized curricula: exchange programs. Perhaps one of the most quintessential internationalization efforts, they are, by no means, easy to establish. Thus, this chapter lays the necessary groundwork for establishing effective exchange programs, beginning by illuminating the concept itself. After highlighting the purposes and beneficiaries of such programs, Monnot, Barnowe, and Youtz offer an overview of specific issues in program development before concluding with a list of best practices.

Weaving a multi-media tale to open the competency section, Chap. 8 presents a set of skills for I/O psychologists to promote innovation, effectiveness, and diversity in cross-cultural contexts. Outside the box of more familiar competency models, the Kożusznik family team of authors includes such skills as storytelling, empathy, and play in their model for the upcoming century. Another mechanism for cross-cultural success, the ability to regulate one's own influence is additionally discussed.

   Narrowing the targets from all I/O professionals to consultants, Matthew O'Connell, Mei-Chuan Kung, and Esteban Tristan (Chap. 9) present a model of global consultant competencies to guide educators in training the next generation of practitioners. Writing both as experienced international consultants at Select International, Inc. and as productive researchers, they highlight 10 core competencies including building trust and embracing diversity. The authors also emphasize two additional strategies for building competent consultants: language training and branching outside of I/O.

   Addressing another specific set of professionals, Beverly Burke (Chap. 10) presents a guide to faculty re-training and development. Concentrating on several core areas, including current internationalization and global competencies, Burke seeks to aid faculty development through both a careful review of relevant research and a series of questions designed to engender self-assessment of present standing and desired outcomes. Throughout, Burke's own journey as internationalizing faculty serves to illustrate her advice.

   In the final section, we have grouped the chapters which present advice and relay experiential lessons regarding concrete internationalizing actions, including classroom activities, collaboration, and research efforts. Presenting a useful dual perspective on the topic, two chapters cover international classroom collaborations, representing two distinct approaches to this internationalization strategy. In Chap. 11, William Grabenya and Wenhua Yan offer practical advice and considerations in launching close collaborations with international colleagues based on several years of three-country classroom initiatives. This chapter highlights such concerns as culturally driven differences in goals and attitudes as well logistical challenges before concluding with lessons learned. In contrast, Vas Taras, Tim Muth, and Beth Gitlin (Chap. 12) describe the development and continuation of a larger, ongoing international business school project, the X-Culture project. This chapter also highlights challenges and considerations as well as the solutions utilized by the X-Culture project, providing interested readers with a clear view on the benefits, challenges, and best practices for both approaches to international classroom collaborations.

   Addressing the additional considerations presented by the increase in cross-cultural and intercultural research that must follow internationalization efforts, Kwok Leung, Jie Wang, and Hong Deng (Chap. 13) present four major theoretical and five major methodological issues facing researchers in these fields. These issues include: more theory-driven hypotheses, theoretical justification of sample countries, construct equivalence, comparable samples, and unique statistics. The authors close with best practices designed to mitigate these issues.

   In the final chapter of the section, Allen Kraut (Chap. 14) moves away from the theoretical and methodological aspects of research to provide guidance for navigating around the challenges of research in international organization. In essence, Chap. 13 (Leung's) chapter provides advice on how to theorize about and measure time orientation, while Chap. 14 describes how time orientation may impact the needs, preferences, and desires of one's international collaborators. The author also describes the impact organizational culture and communication on research projects, concluding with several examples of international organization based research.

   To conclude this map of the internationalization landscape, Francisco Avallone (Chap. 15) projects us forward into the future of the field. He considers the

dichotomies that have controlled the thinking in the field and suggests that future work psychologists must look beyond the traditional philosophical constraints with regards to research questions.

Reaching Our Destination

Our goal for the book is to provide a better map for those who wish to integrate international elements into their coursework or graduate program. By leveraging the combined experience and insights of the contributing authors it is our hope that those seeking to internationalize may have a better sense of the landscape and pitfalls that lie ahead. As with the maps of old, there may be uncharted waters that hold both new opportunities and unseen dangers. But, as we develop the next wave of globally competent I/O professionals, the next generation of explorers refine this first map, improving the education and training in our field.

With authors from 11 countries, this book was itself an experiment in internationalization. In these chapters you will find a diverse sample of thoughts, approaches, and methods to approach internationalizing our field. While a core of similarity runs through the chapters, a considerable amount of disagreement can be found. As an illustration, the name of our discipline differs across the world, with contributors using terms such as applied psychology, organizational psychology, work and organizational psychology, industrial organizational psychology, and "iWOP." Rather than impose a standardized label, we chose to retain this variation to remind us of the viability of multiple templates for internationalization. At the surface level, these varied labels may seem only semantically different. Moreover, what at the surface level may seem only semantic spilt hairs may, upon closer examination serve as reflections of subtle (or perhaps not so subtle) differences in the way our science is framed that are worth considering. For example, the field of work psychology may focus on the phenomenon of work as a distinct meaningful task separate from organizational life. Thus, uniformly applying the label organizational psychology (or any other label) may gloss over important differences.

Similarly the style and tone of the chapters vary considerably, reflecting both the cultures of the contributors and their unique personal touches. Some chapters contain the reductionist empirical style of the west, while others teach through metaphor and storytelling. Combined, we hope that the extra color of diverging views and approaches serves to illuminate both concrete actionable steps for internationalization as well as food for thought.

Conclusion

The entire world now operates as a single global economy, and this merging of concepts and cultures has led to increasing complexity and ambiguity. Improved communication technology has led to daily intercultural interactions as we collaborate

to solve problems and wage war for talent. The world grows smaller with each technological advance, and the safe notion of an isolated organization fades from memory. Without question, the age of internationalization is upon us.

If I/O psychology is to remain relevant and contribute to the success of modern organizations, we must broadly adopt and integrate an encompassing global perspective. To effectively integrate global concepts into our science and practice, I/O psychology must build these concepts into our training model. If we are successful at this endeavor, we will ultimately have a much more accurate map to guide us in our mission.

Griffith and Armon, 2013

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Part III Competencies

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Dr. Ishbel McWha, PhD is a Research Associate at Cornell University's School of Industrial and Labor Relations. Ishbel holds a PhD in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. She has a particular interest in Humanitarian Work Psychology—the application of I/O Psychology to international development, including poverty reduction, and decent work. In this vein, she worked extensively with local non-government organizations while living in India and Cambodia. Ishbel was the Project Manager of a DFID-ESRC funded research project, Project ADDUP, which brought together a multidisciplinary and international team of researchers to examine the impact of local-expatriate salary disparities on the performance and motivation of workers across six lower-income countries. As a result of this work Ishbel was recently awarded a SIOP Presidential Award for outstanding work that bridges the gap between science and practice. Ishbel's research has been published in peer-reviewed journals within both development and psychology, and has been presented both nationally and internationally to a wide range of audiences.

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Part I
Context

Chapter 1
Expect Surprises: I-O and the Global Business Environment

Milton D. Hakel

I have always appreciated what was given to me as an operational definition of culture: Culture is "the way we do things around here."

Culture is active, not passive. It is expressed in the doing. Thus, it becomes observable, and we can then use words to describe it.

Despite being expressed through activity, it goes largely unnoticed because we habituate to it. We take it for granted, to the point of not realizing its influence on our behavior, thinking, assumptions, and interpretations.

Culture provides key parts of the context in which focal events occur. It provides the background and significant facets of the setting—think of the stage in a theater production. Culture is visible not only in the physical artifacts on that stage but also in the action that takes place there. It is a social construction, an interpretation, and sometimes it is invoked as an explanation.

It is rare that culture per se is the focus, except, of course, among practitioners and scientists who concentrate on it. Even they, however, are embedded in cultures which sometimes go unnoticed.

For most of us, it is easy to ignore culture. When we do think about it, it is common to make easy and sometimes self-defeating assumptions about how fixed and immutable it is. What is needed are occasional wake-up calls and 'a-ha' experiences, in a word, surprises, to startle us out of comfortable and unexamined assumptions and theories.

Part of what differentiates the doing of science from other pursuits is the systematic testing of explanations. Theories, hypotheses, hunches, and assumptions come in for close scrutiny when doing science.

Occasionally paradigms shift. Think, for example, of the shift from the geocentric universe to the heliocentric one, which was subsequently supplanted by Einstein's conceptualization of space–time. The salience and weight of discrepant observations became so heavy that everything we knew was overthrown by successively better explanations.

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As discussed engagingly by McCall and Bobko (1990), discrepant observations often turn out to be surprising. The thesis to be asserted here is that progress in organizational psychology can be accelerated if we better learn to embrace surprises, to search for them preferentially, in short, to expect surprises. It is further asserted that the internationalization of learning and teaching in organizational psychology will provide a consistently richer vein of surprises than would business-as-usual in our already overcrowded curricula.

Will you find surprises in this chapter? Probably not, because you may have already had thoughts like these, and in any case genuine "a-ha" moments are rare. However, I hope this chapter will provoke you to think more deeply and analytically about how you learn and apply your knowledge, and then to incorporate that thinking into curriculum designs meant to educate the next generations of organizational psychologists. Will this chapter and book initiate a paradigm shift? Time will tell.

Well then, let us get down to business. First, I start with what is already well known—namely, that (1) business now lives in a global environment. This will give way to some stories about cultural and international (2) surprises I have encountered, as a stimulus for you to recall some of your own surprises. Next, some points for emphasis in the (3) internationalization of organizational psychology curricula are briefly surveyed. Then (4) academic barriers to learning will get some scrutiny—change will not come easily, but it will come.

The Global Business Environment

One needs to read only a couple of issues of *The Economist* or any other news and business publication to confirm what is already widely known, that business is an international, global affair. However, reading is unnecessary to reach that conclusion—just walk through a supermarket and notice the countries of origin of the products on sale there or visit a car dealership but beware of the required 'domestic-content' label—Jensen (2001) reports "Only 35% of the parts in the new Buick Rendezvous—built in Ramos Arizpe, Mexico—are of American or Canadian origin. In contrast, most Toyota Camrys are assembled in Georgetown, Ky., with 65% domestic content."

International trade has been a key factor in local prosperity for millennia. William Bernstein's *A Splendid Exchange: How Trade Shaped the World* conveys and explores the history of globalization. Before reading it, I had thought that the French built the first Suez Canal, but Persian king Darius the Great built the first one about 500 BCE, and another was built by Arab engineers—it also endured for about 100 years (Bernstein 2008). I had only vaguely wondered about what propelled the journey of Marco Polo and the voyages of da Gama and Columbus. Bernstein supplies the backstory on how trade and restraint of trade drove exploration and competition. He details the eventual rise of corporations and brings the story up to our era with its confrontations between free traders and protectionists as epitomized in the 1999 'Battle of Seattle', where riots forced the early closure of a World Trade Organization

(WTO) meeting. In all, Bernstein's book is a splendid exposition of the human urge to profit by buying low and selling high, and, closer to organizational psychology, you can see therein the need to select, train, motivate, and manage the people engaged in economic activity.

There are very striking statistics on the growth of global trade. For instance, in 2010, world exports in merchandise and services totaled $ 19,109,000,000,000, a number that is nearly incomprehensible. As always, the question is: What does the number mean? Here the issue is growth; so you need to know that the total is 2.4 *times* larger than it was just one decade earlier ($ 7,977,700,000,000) and 7.9 *times* larger than in 1980 ($ 2,429,700,000,000).[1]

There are seas of numbers out there to describe economic output and growth, employment and productivity rates and changes, and flows of commerce between and within regions and nations. We know that there are currents and eddies in all these variables, but rather than try to provide a comprehensive cross section of them at this point in time (because every point in time eventually gets dated), I will merely supply in addition to the WTO website two uniform resource locators (URLs) that helped to satisfy my need to get answers about how much and how fast economic activity is changing: http://ucatlas.ucsc.edu/ is a university site focused on global inequalities and http://moritz.stefaner.eu/projects/global-trade-flows/ provides visualizations of trade data. I will discuss more about these two sites subsequently.

Words and statistics are likely to have only a marginal impact in persuading anyone that now is a good time to internationalize organizational psychology education. Especially within our own specializations, we are inundated with numbers and statistics, and a sometimes necessary coping strategy is ignoring them. Therefore, here is a different try. Look at the Earth at night. Chances are good that you can pick out your current location—it is likely to be in one of the highly lighted areas.

Figure 1.1 shows its case viscerally and instantaneously. Nighttime lighting here serves as a proxy, reflecting both population density and economic development. Alas, the picture is merely a snapshot. Again, the question is: What does it mean? You will have to imagine what it must have looked like in 1850 (before electric lighting), 1900, and 1950, and, for fun, think ahead to 2050 and 2100.

As organizational scientists, we are voracious collectors and interpreters of data, something that requires rare and specialized skill. We are so accustomed to thinking in quantitative terms that we forget that speaking about statistics is, to most listeners who are not organizational psychologists, to be speaking a foreign language. Who listens when hearing someone speaking in tongues? If no threat is perceived, attention wanders.

The world export trade numbers above introduce the problem—what do they mean? One way to try to comprehend $ 19,109,000,000,000 would be to erect a stack of dollar bills. How high would it be? Well, I would measure the thickness

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[1] These statistics come from the World Trade Organization, in particular from its Interactive Statistics Database (http://stat.wto.org/Home/WSDBHome.aspx?Language=E), and are calculated in constant US$.

Fig. 1.1 This photo mosaic from NASA of Earth at night serves as a substitute for thousands of words accompanied by hundreds of statistical tables showing the current extent of global economic activity

of a $ 1.00 bill, and then multiply that by 19,109,000,000,000, convert the result to miles (or kilometers if outside the USA or writing for scientists), and compare it to the distance to the moon. If you do the calculation and then travel the distance, the result would take you to the moon and back 3.3 times!

The problem here is that we have transformed an incomprehensible number into yet another incomprehensible number. Perhaps it is more entertaining, but that does not advance us much beyond the wandering of attention and cessation of listening that occurs when we launch into talking about statistics. Figure 1.1, on the other hand, offers a visualization, one which can transcend some of the abstractness of quantification.

Edward Tufte has done scientists and communicators everywhere a great favor with his books, the first of which is *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information* (Tufte 1983). It is a *tour de force* and a runaway commercial success, but it was rejected by conventional publishers before Tufte decided to self-publish. The two sites mentioned following the world export trade statistics above offer visualizations related to the focal topic, economic development. The University of California at Santa Cruz site (http://ucatlas.ucsc.edu/) portrays country and regional inequalities in several facets of economic development, such as health, education, sex ratios, foreign direct investment, etc. The Moritz Stefaner site (http://moritz. stefaner.eu/projects/global-trade-flows/) shows two particularly appealing time series renderings of global trade flows. Stefaner is an information designer (check out the Relations Browser on his site), and I commend his designs and the UC Santa Cruz site if economic development is a current interest. If data visualization is an additional current interest, browse to http://visual.ly to see a large collection of interactive sites.

We can expect further growth in the size and complexity of organizational psychology data sets; so, figuring out how to communicate our results and interpretations more compellingly is a continuing challenge. We need to be able to speak statistics fluently, and we also need to be able to translate it into understandable and comprehensible meanings.

Now, back to Fig. 1.1 and what it illuminates about the globalization of economic activity. There is a well-known association between urbanization and economic growth, and it is not just goods and capital that flow, but also people. In 1900, 13 % of the world's population lived in urban areas, and in 1950, 29 %. May 23, 2007, is the date on which a demographic milestone was reached—it signifies the start of the urban millennium: Over half of the world's population now lives in urban areas (UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2012). People migrate to improve their lives, and the biggest current migration is occurring within China. Spence (2011) describes China as needing to build a new Los Angeles *every year* to accommodate its annual flow of 15 million people from the countryside. Such statistics provoke discussion and controversy about population growth, health, and sustainability, and I was surprised to discover that city living is greener and more sustainable than the less dense rural variety, at least as asserted by Johnson (2007). Poverty and sustainability concerns are even starting to find expression within organizational psychology (e.g., Olson-Buchanan et al. 2013; Leading Edge Consortium 2012). These are, of course, global as well as local challenges.

Change is coming!

Let me turn to what at first may seem like a tangent. I grew up secure in the knowledge that genetic evolution proceeds slowly. My first awareness of scientific controversy goes back to the early 1950s and the story of Russian biologist Trofim Lysenko, who beginning in the 1920s argued that acquired characteristics could be inherited by subsequent generations. Controversy raged until his theory was discredited in the 1960s, and 'Lysenkoism' came to stand for distorting scientific findings into conformity with political ideology.

What I realize now is that my secure knowledge about the slow pace of genetic evolution had lulled me into thinking that other spheres of evolution proceed on the same timescale and therefore at a similar pace. However, clearly this is not the case for economic activity, nor more generally for human behavior. Indeed, for centuries agriculturalists have been speeding up genetic evolution through selective breeding. There is even evidence that human genetic evolution itself is accelerating, as shown in studies of mutation rates of single nucleotide polymorphisms (see http://news.nationalgeographic.com/news/2007/12/071211-human-evolution.html, also Hawks et al. 2007). Now, and much more aggressively, molecular biologists are manipulating segments of DNA in laboratories around the world.

At the outset, I mentioned paradigm shifts, noting the progression from Ptolemy to Copernicus to Einstein. Paradigm shifts are, of course, surprising. They occur in

complex, dynamic systems and are unexpected. Part of the fear aimed at molecular biologists who are manipulating segments of DNA to create genetically modified organisms comes from the possibility of catastrophe and various other unintended consequences.

Tipping points in complex systems can involve risks of unwanted collapse and/ or opportunities for positive change. Some good news is that scientists are now beginning to integrate observations and understand the behavior of complex systems. Scheffer et al. (2012) report findings in fields ranging from physics to economics with respect to anticipating critical transitions. They survey two bodies of previously unconnected research: fundamental architectural features that may cause ecological networks, financial markets, and other complex systems to have tipping points, and generic empirical indicators of proximity to such critical thresholds. As we evolve as an organizational science, let us keep in mind that the phenomena we seek to describe, predict, modify, and understand are complexly determined and that some paradigm shifts can be helpful.

I mentioned above Bernstein's account of the history of global trade and commerce, and let that suffice with respect to the evolution of business. The pace of evolution of human behavior accelerated dramatically about three centuries ago during a period now called The Enlightenment. It was an intellectual, philosophical, and eventually cultural movement that stressed reason, logic, criticism, and freedom of thought over superstition, blind faith, and obedience to authority. It provided the societal context in which modern science and engineering arose, bringing previously unimaginable enhancements to health, wealth, and happiness. Spence (2011) observes that before 1800, living standards were low and did not vary much around the world—the highest exceeded the lowest perhaps by a factor of 2. Since then living standards have diverged dramatically—by the year 2000, the ratio of per capita gross domestic product in the richest countries exceeded that in the poorest by more than a factor of 50. For the record, Spence is optimistic about the uphill battle that economic progress faces. I am optimistic too—advances in organizational psychology will play a part in achieving this progress.

I have always been drawn to visionaries, people such as Buckminster Fuller. Fuller invented the geodesic dome and wrote compellingly about 'spaceship earth'. He conjectured that the differences between rich and poor countries are not due to resource shortages (as Malthus and others asserted) but rather was due primarily to blockages and constraints in distribution (Fuller 1981).

Back in the 1980s, I came across another visionary, Robert Muller, then an Assistant Secretary General at the United Nations. He summarized many diverse strands of technological development and integrated them by arguing that the place of the human being in the grandiose scheme of creation has changed. He said that we ourselves have expanded it—we have multiplied our eyesight into the infinitely large and the infinitely small, through telescopes and microscopes; we have multiplied the capacity of our hands with machines; we have multiplied the capacity of our feet with airplanes, trains, and boats; and we have enlarged the capacity of our hearing with telephones, telecommunications, radio communications, and we are also able to tele-view things from the other side of the planet; and we have enlarged the

capacity of our brain through incredible computers and machines. He concluded, "So for all practical purposes, I would beg you to understand that we have become, through science and technology and the search for knowledge, a different species" (Muller n.d.). All this before the rise of personal computers and the Internet!

A Different Species, Really?

I commend to you a book by another visionary, physicist David Deutsch. It is *The Beginning of Infinity: Explanations that Transform the World* (Deutsch 2011). Progress in any pursuit comes through noticing discrepancies between theorized and actual observations, leading to the correction of error in one's knowledge. Deutsch's book is an audacious *tour de force* through fundamental fields of science, epistemology and the philosophy of science, the history of civilization, and also the theory of political institutions. Unlike the extreme reductionists, this physicist's 'theory of everything' examines and then integrates moral values, beauty, and art into the realm of knowledge and explanation. Yes, we have become a different species—read Deutsch.

Coming back to organizational psychology, what does being "a different species" have to do with anything? Well, it has to do with everything. It offers an expanded mindset, perhaps even a paradigm shift. If you are getting the impression that in using the word 'global' I am speaking more broadly than only about geography, nations, or cultures, then you are on the right track.

Measured over the duration of one's own experience, life seems to be pretty much what we have always observed and known it to be. Yes, the props on the stage keep changing, and it is certainly true that we have observed and experienced changes in ourselves and others as we have aged and matured. However, as already noted, we are creatures of habit, and what is remarkable is how much of "how we do things around here" in our present circumstances and activities we take for granted.

Do you remember from your student days seeing pictures of the paintings of horses and bison at Lascaux, made 17,000 years ago in a cave in southwestern France? The images themselves are quite sophisticated, and what I did not know until recently is that there are altogether 600 in the cave. As pictures in art history books or as slides in an art history course, for me they were interesting and ancient curiosities. Seen in person at Lascaux II, full sized and positioned relative to each other on the walls and ceilings exactly as they appear in the original site, they are astonishing. They were created over decades or perhaps even centuries, and I can see that at the site, the artists had met the need to select, train, motivate, and manage the people engaged in creating the paintings. The site could not have been built without hunter-gatherer surpluses that permitted the division of labor and specialization.

How do we break through our not-seeing? How can we manage to examine our experiences from multiple rather than just egocentric points of view? Let me commend the practice of reflecting on your knowledge and experiences and then

searching preferentially for anomalies. Examining closely what appears to be true in a given domain is the way to test that truth, regardless of whether it is theory, hypothesis, hunch, or assumption. Look for times when you are startled by surprises.

Encountering Surprises

Business at any scale, local, regional, national, or global, is embedded in culture. So is organizational psychology. Experiencing multinational, multicultural events can reveal faulty assumptions and faulty knowledge; so, here I want to recount three short culture-laden critical incidents, one from my time as a Fulbright Scholar in Bologna, Italy, the second from a colleague's visit in Norway, and the last occurred when a Russian visited the USA.

Bologna

I had the great good fortune in 1978 to receive a Fulbright Senior Research Scholar appointment to the University of Bologna, Europe's oldest university. My intent was to study the influence of political ideologies and kinship on organizational staffing, working with Prof. Enzo Spaltro. My wife and children accompanied me, and Enzo and his students and staff were superb hosts. They entertained us in their homes, and wanting to reciprocate their hospitality, we agreed to host an American dinner in our flat. Now, you need to know that in 1978 there was more than the usual amount of chaos in Italy, with the Red Brigades active and strikes and lockouts being favored tactics in labor-management relations—during my residency I was locked out of my campus office on 30 of 95 working days. You also need to know that the wait time for having a telephone installed was 6 months. Now, on the day of the American dinner I took the bus to my office, found the doors locked due to a strike, and then ran into two colleagues, one of whom was invited to the dinner. Minding my manners and wanting to avoid rudeness or insult to the uninvited colleague, I said nothing about the invitation (I could not bring myself to say 'See you tonight, Marco!') and took the next bus back to the flat. The rest of the day passed quickly, and we were ready promptly at 7:00 p.m. In those days, nothing in Italy started on time, so we were not alarmed when no one arrived by 7:30 p.m., although by 8:00 p.m. we were beginning to get a bit worried. However, at 9:00 p.m. we were alarmed and upset at being snubbed, because until then we had no reason to think that anything was amiss. Finally, at 9:45 p.m. one of the guests arrived and was, because he had been out of town all day, surprised to find that no other guests were present. He left and quickly made a phone call, and then returned to clue us in about a local cultural nuance—on the day of an event, the host is expected to reconfirm the invitation. It turned out that I had been seen on campus, but because I had no phone at the flat, guests called and asked Marco about the event and he truthfully replied that I had

said nothing to him, and, therefore, it must have been canceled. With this crucial bit of information, the dinner was rescheduled and we agreed that it had been an interesting learning experience.

Norway

A distinguished clinical psychologist colleague spent several months in Norway, lecturing, consulting, and touring. Early in his visit, he and his wife were the guests of honor at a sumptuous dinner. The evening was marvelous, with an excellent meal and then desserts, coffee, and after dinner drinks. Guests told story after story, and the evening continued well into the night and then into the early hours of the next day. Having been vigilant for several hours, watching the hostess and host for some signal that the evening was coming to a close, my friend could bear it no longer and apologized to the other guests and the host and hostess, saying that the evening was truly wonderful but he was so exhausted that, as much as he would like to, he could go on no longer. The party finished swiftly, and the next day my friend learned that it is the role of the guest of honor, not the host or hostess, to bring such events to a close.

The Russian Visitor

A social psychology colleague made a visit to Russia and offered to host a Russian colleague he had visited back home in Ohio. An extended exchange visit occurred, and the Russian quickly got a reputation as a falling down drunk, "incapable of holding his liquor." This had not been a visible problem in Russia, and eventually a key cultural difference came to light: We all knew the Russian etiquette with vodka—when served, you toss back the entire shot in one gulp; what we did not know is that in Russia the host would serve another shot in about an hour. In the USA, though, when a host sees an empty glass it is quickly refilled.

The takeaway from these stories should not be that a seminar about cultural customs ought to be added to doctoral curricula. These three anecdotes are in part stories about consumption. Consumption is a universal—all people eat and drink. However, how this consumption behavior is expressed differs across cultures. The same thing can be said of work, which is also a universal. The way we work, organize, lead, select, train, motivate, and manage people is expressed differently across cultures.

In the general case, surprises such as those occurring in these culture-laden incidents can point to discovery of new knowledge and better explanations. Pursuing one's calling, as a professional engineer, scientist, technologist, teacher, leader, follower, partner, manager, entrepreneur, assistant, or, for that matter, as a citizen, parent, and spouse, inevitably immerses one in the making, testing, and improvement of explanations. Day in and day out, we engage in trying to make sense of the world and our places in it. We are creatures of habit, and mostly this helps us succeed in our callings. However, sometimes habitual interpretations prevent us from learning

more deeply from our experiences. My point in telling these stories is to ask you now to consider your own experience by recalling incidents in which you were certain that you understood "the way we do things around here," only later to realize that you were wrong. Recalling such instances may provoke an expanded mindset.

Internationalizing Organizational Psychology

The case for internationalizing education and training in organizational psychology is easy to assert: Business went global long ago, so we need to go global too.

Of course, some amount of internationalization has already happened. The International Association of Applied Psychology was founded in 1920, and when divisions were first organized in 1978 within it, organizational psychologists led the way and became its Division 1. Much more recently, work and organizational psychologists in Europe have created a specialization in our field within the European Union's Erasmus Mundus program. Presently under construction is a certificate program in work and organizational psychology, one that will provide entry-level credentials for professional practice throughout the European Union. What can North Americans learn from these initiatives that can inform education and training in organizational psychology in the USA and Canada? What can Europeans learn from North American practices? And what of organizational psychologists in the majority world?

In practice, though, internationalization has barely begun. Curricula are already crowded with courses, research projects, practicum requirements, and examinations. A reasonable question from faculty is "what should we stop doing so that we can internationalize?"

Notice the zero-sum assumption that is tacit in the question. While it is true that resources of time and energy are limited, the key issue for us is how we should best use the time and energy that is available to us. How can we better engage and use our present resources?

An answer asserted throughout this volume is to develop not just an expanded mindset but a global one. Organizational psychology is a field of applied science. It is built upon keen observation, intervention, and experimentation. It is embedded in local, corporate, regional, national, and global cultures. The way to sharpen its practice at every scale is thus to examine whatever happens to be your current professional focus in multiple cultural settings from multiple points of view.

A simple strategy for doing this is to select diverse international students into master's and doctoral programs *and then to make sure* that their perspectives and experiences are drawn into the mix of doing organizational psychology practice and research. Transmission of content is not enough—keep in mind that learning goes beyond knowing to being able to *do* what one knows.

A stronger strategy is to go for immersions, as in internships and exchanges. As a new assistant professor at Ohio State decades ago, I wrote to many industrial psychologists in an attempt to find summer internships on their staffs for my students. Lew Albright at Kaiser Aluminum wrote back with a clear rejection, arguing that

the students would be better served by working on loading docks or in factories—that is where they could best learn about the psychology of working, rather than on a corporate staff. It took me several years to understand and appreciate his advice.

My Fulbright time in Bologna was so enlightening, mostly in ways that I had not anticipated. I learned much that I had not intended to learn and that I did not know I needed to learn. I was an accomplished researcher, and subsequently in retrospect it was easy although somewhat unwelcome to see my frightful naivety about conducting research and even what questions I thought were worth pursuit. It was an eye-opening and mind-opening experience.

Internships and exchanges are costly, disruptive, and rare. Nevertheless, I wish that every student could have them. As it is, by the time students come to our graduate programs, they are already ruined, that is, highly socialized in how to succeed in the undergraduate educational system. Breaking them out of the memorize-it-and-dump-it-on-the-test syndrome needed to achieve the grade point average required for graduate school admission is such a waste, both of undergraduate time and energy as well as lost opportunities in the first years of graduate study. It is not easy to become an autonomous critical thinker, researcher, and problem solver, that is, a professional WIO[2] psychologist. The well-intended "No Child Left Behind" achievement-testing regime for American public education is not producing the capable and engaged learners that we want in our graduate programs. If I had Bill Gates' billions, I would use those funds to support a worldwide program of student exchanges for 16-year-olds. This would work wonders for openness to experience, resiliency, and self-reliant problem solving.

Oh yes, faculty members need exchanges and internships too—what a great focus for a sabbatical or faculty improvement leave.

One other suggestion—the rise of social networking technologies via the Internet offers huge opportunities if we can be savvy enough to grab them. Many educational institutions now provide part (or even all) of their programs online. Course management systems now make it possible to convene ad hoc groups and virtual teams from wherever there are Internet connections. Skype and other synchronous communication tools have conquered distance and costs. It is easy to imagine that soon we will see informal and even formal international linkages develop among graduate programs in organizational psychology.

Whatever strategies are enacted, reflection is a key tactic to include in them (King and Kitchener 1994, 2004). It is known in some circles as metacognition, in others as formative assessment, and in the military as an After Action Review. Simply put, it is a feedback gathered in a structured review or debrief process by the participants and those responsible for an activity. The feedback is used for analyzing *what* happened, *why* it happened, and *how* it can be done better. Reflection can help you to discover surprises.

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[2] WIO stands for work, industrial, and organizational. Acronyms are often foreign languages to outsiders, and I use it here just to illustrate the earlier point about comprehension of unfamiliar languages.

Academic Barriers

The zero-sum objection to curricular change was voiced above, and it was not given its full due. Pay attention now because there is going to be a test. Universities are complex institutions, and resource constraints are real. Clark Kerr (King 1998) pointed out that 70 Western institutions have existed continuously since 1530. Here is a test that requires a write-in response: Name them.

OK, the easiest correct answer to call to mind is the Roman Catholic Church. The Lutheran Church is a second. Then there are two parliaments, those of Iceland and the Isle of Man. The other 66 are universities.

When I first encountered this information, I was despondent because I was already well experienced in the glacial pace of change in universities, and it cemented my view that 'we never change'. Subsequent reflection put more a positive spin on it—universities do evolve, albeit slowly, and the proof is in their endurance.

Critiques of educational practices abound. The oldest I know of comes from Plato, writing about how new technology will bring the downfall of education. In 370 BCE, there was tremendous controversy about the use of written records in teaching, and Plato quotes Socrates as saying in *Phaedrus*, "Writing will create forgetfulness in the learners' souls, because they will not use their memories; they will trust to the external written characters and not remember of themselves ….They will appear to be omniscient and will generally know nothing" (Plato 370 BCE).

My favorite lament about academia comes from Abraham Maslow (1954): "… education makes little effort to teach individuals to examine reality directly and freshly. Rather it gives them a complete set of prefabricated spectacles with which to look at the world in every aspect, such as what to believe, what to like, what to approve of, what to feel guilty about. Rarely is each person's individuality made much of, rarely is he or she encouraged to be bold enough to see reality in his or her own style, or to be iconoclastic or different. Proof for the contention of stereotyping in higher education can be obtained in practically any college catalog, in which all of shifting, ineffable, and mysterious reality is neatly divided into three credit slices which, by some miraculous coincidence, are exactly 15 weeks long, and which fall apart neatly, as a tangerine does, into completely independent and mutually exclusive departments. If ever there was a perfect example of a set of categories imposed *upon* reality rather than *by* reality, this is it" (Maslow 1954, p. 254).

We do indeed live within highly structured social and institutional environments. Denominating what students are to learn into credit hours and courses, arranging those activities into effective and efficient sequences, and engaging students in those activities is a never-ending challenge. Pile on top of that the competition for faculty lines and the cycles of review and approval by educational administrators and bureaucrats in accreditation and licensing authorities and you can see that change cannot come quickly or easily. More problematic still is the presumption that learning worth certificating comes mainly in classrooms and bears academic credit evaluated with letter grades.

For well over a decade, researchers in many fields have been systematically studying how people learn (e.g., Bransford et al. 1999; Mestre 2005). The research has

attracted a great deal of interest, and the National Science Foundation has funded a series of Science of Learning Centers. To date, however, few of the new findings have been applied. Halpern and Hakel (2003, pp. 37–38) report "We have found precious little evidence that content experts in the learning sciences actually apply the principles they teach in their own classrooms. Like virtually all college faculty, they teach the way they were taught. But, ironically (and embarrassingly), it would be difficult to design an educational model that is more at odds with the findings of current research about human cognition than the one being used today at most colleges and universities."

Without a doubt, curricular gridlock and academic inertia are downers. Nevertheless, I continue to be optimistic about the improvement of educational practices, both in general and also within organizational psychology. Over my five decades of involvement in this field, I have seen it develop from its selection technology-centered dustbowl empiricist period into a fully fledged multifaceted applied science. Its globalization is proceeding apace, and a nascent Alliance for Organizational Psychology has been created as a global federation (http://www.allianceorgpsych.org/). We can expect that the Alliance will enable interested practitioners and scientists to collaborate without regard to distance and national borders. The Alliance offers social networking tools on its website to the members of its federated organizations, and it can provide a setting in which it will be possible to achieve the "small wins" (Weick 1984) needed to conquer intercontinental distances.

Last Words

Marco Polo and other explorers and traders traveled the world and brought back silk, spices, and other wonders and surprises. In doing so, they initiated global business and changed the world.

Margaret Mead (n.d.) is reported to have said, "Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has."

Work, industrial, and organizational psychology has been developing steadily for a century, and it falls to us and our successors to make it a global enterprise, geographically, culturally, and intellectually. Is organizational psychology soon to experience a paradigm shift? Surely, there are signs that we are approaching a tipping point, and this volume is one of them.

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Chapter 2
Challenges and opportunities to developing South–North program partnerships

Ishbel McWha, Gubela Mji, Malcolm MacLachlan and Stuart C. Carr

Introduction

This chapter poses a number of practical and ethical considerations to developing internationally focused organizational psychology curricula, and partnering with programs in other countries. We focus on the differences, disparities, and power imbalances within our discipline, and reframe them as valuable learning opportunities to develop a new generation of globally and socially aware organizational psychologists. In this chapter, we will argue that organizational psychology has historically tended to focus on the needs of organizations in the wealthier, often "Western" world (sometimes referred to as "the North") and that, as we move forward in developing an international organizational psychology curriculum, there are critical considerations about the nature of organizational psychology in different contexts, specifically lower income settings (sometimes called "the South"), which must be taken into consideration.

In the title of this chapter, we very intentionally chose to flip the North–South distinction to *South–North*, to reflect the important need to "out" potential implicit paradigms of dominance which exist in many societies around the globe. Throughout this chapter, our preference is to use the terms "higher income" and "lower income" settings when referring to countries sometimes labeled as "Western"/ "non-Western" or "North"/ "South." However, in some places we have chosen to revert to the terms "North" and "South", or "Western" and "non-Western" in order to provide

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clarity and facilitate the reader's understanding of the discussion. The potential implications of using these different terms are explored later in the chapter.

Responding to an Emerging Global Social Consciousness

The advancement of the Internet has facilitated an increasingly interconnected world in which individuals are becoming global citizens. Workers are experiencing greater mobility than ever to move across national borders, and organizations are progressively relying on teams from individuals working in all corners of the globe. The internationalization of work is certainly not a new phenomenon and has arguably been around since the dawn of human history. What is newer, however, is the emergence of a global social consciousness (Marsella 1998).

Organizations are increasingly placing a value on corporate social responsibility (CSR) policies and practices, and consumers seem to be showing support for those companies that do (Porter and Kramer 2006). The media tells stories of poor and indecent working conditions for workers in large corporations, and, as a result, discretionary consumers with disposable income talk of boycotting their products. A recent (2012) example is the worldwide call to boycott Apple products because of allegations of abuse at a Chinese factory Apple used to make its phones and computers.[1]

In addition, organizations are increasingly creating CSR programs to engage staff in pro-bono community development projects. These projects not only potentially help to create a socially responsible "reputation" for the organization but may also conceivably increase organizational "buy-in" (engagement) from the staff they send on these programs because of transformative experiences they may have (Dickmann and Harris 2005).

For example, the International Business Machines Corporation (IBM)'s Corporate Services Corp (CSC) program gives IBM employees a service-learning experience in lower income settings by engaging in community-driven projects that focus on the intersection of business, technology, and society (Osicki and Carr 2010). In this chapter, we wish to discuss the need not only for an international focus in our curriculum but also for a pro-social focus.

"Internationalization" of Work

The focus is first turned to the need for organizational psychology as a discipline to respond to the increasing internationalization of work. Ryan and Gelfand (2012) recently undertook a "state-of-the-field" review within the US context, whereby they comprehensively reviewed conference presentations, publications in leading journals, undergraduate textbooks and graduate course syllabi, for coverage of

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[1] See http://www.guardian.co.uk/technology/2012/jan/29/apple-faces-boycott-worker-abuses.

cross-cultural topics, as well as exploring the internationalization of journal reader-ships, association membership, members' research foci, and multinational journal article authorships. In reviewing these, Ryan and Gelfand (2012) found evidence that organizational psychology research and practice has already shifted into the international arena; however, in reviewing the content of undergraduate textbooks and graduate syllabi, the authors found no evidence within the US context that the curricula themselves reflect an increasingly international scope.

For example, with very few exceptions (e.g., Landy and Conte 2010), Ryan and Gelfand (2012) found that popular undergraduate textbooks rarely covered the topic of culture beyond a brief mention, and that culture was not infused into all US grad-uate courses but was rather offered as a class in its own right. By singling out cross-cultural practice as something distinct from everyday organizational psychology work, and not integrating the material into their regular courses, faculty in the USA may be failing to prepare students to meet the needs of the international nature of work they will face when they enter an ever-diversifying multicultural workforce. A more systematic inclusion of cross-cultural issues within and throughout graduate organizational psychology classes, in *addition* to offering more detailed courses in culture, might be one way to help students to meet the demands of an increasingly internationalized workplace more effectively, ethically, and professionally

A key shortcoming of Ryan and Gelfand's (2012) review is their focus on cross-cultural issues as the only aspect of internationalization, without consideration of other equally important elements, like economic and political diversity. "Culture" does not exist in a vacuum, or in a stand-alone test tube, but rather is braided through, constitutes, and is constituted by the social, economic, political, and geographical contexts in which people live and work. Culture is also as much about "us" and "how we do things" as it is about "them" and "how they do things" (MacLachlan 2006). Thus, we cannot "do culture" without understanding the contexts in which people live, nor can we "do psychology" without understanding how the process of interaction between different groups affects outcomes. Sociocultural, socioeconom-ic, sociopolitical, and socio-geographical diversity are embedded within all work contexts as a result of the internationalization of work, and must be integrated into all organizational psychology classes.

Growing Demand for a Pro-social Focus in Organizational Psychology

Let us turn now to the need for inclusion of a pro-social focus in organizational psychology. Encouraged by the expansion of organizational psychology into ar-eas such as CSR (e.g., Aguilera et al. 2007) and cross-cultural organizational psy-chology (e.g., Erez 1994), students are looking for organizational psychology to take the next step and tackle some of the world's big problems, like global poverty and inequality (Carr et al. 2008). The widespread growth of "humanitarian work

psychology" (HWP) in recent years has begun to respond to such needs and demands (e.g., Berry et al. 2011; Carr et al. 2012; McWha et al. 2013).

Humanitarian work psychology refers to the application of organizational psychology to deliberate and organized efforts to enhance human welfare.[2] As such, HWP incorporates both the application of humanitarian principles to organizational psychology work, including for example promotion of fair and just working conditions for all workers, as well as the application of organizational psychology principles to humanitarian work, including disaster relief, poverty reduction, and sustainable development (Carr et al. 2012, 2013; McWha et al. 2013). This area of organizational psychology focuses critically on the potential application of some of organizational psychology's tools and theories to help solve some of the world's most pressing problems, such as poverty, empowerment of marginalized groups, disaster relief, and decent work, as well as the potential for these demands to change the nature of organizational psychology itself—for example, by stimulating new theory.

In 2009, the Global Task Force for Humanitarian Work Psychology (a steering committee of organizational practitioners, academics, and students with a broad representation of low- to high-income countries) was established. The Task Force aimed to raise awareness of, and establish a niche for, the many and diverse organizational psychologists from across the globe who are interfacing with deliberate and organized efforts to enhance human welfare, at both national and international levels, and both within humanitarian settings as well as in all settings where individuals are marginalized and their right to decent work is threatened.

In September 2012, the Task Force transitioned into the Global Organisation for Humanitarian Work Psychology (GOHWP).[3] GOHWP continues the work begun by the Task Force to promote HWP, and aims to provide a space for organizational psychologists interested in HWP to come together and be supported in their efforts. Over 100 individuals from more than 20 countries applied to be founding members of GOHWP, and the organization continues to grow.

Conference presentations in this area have consistently attracted great interest from students and faculty alike, who often leave these symposia asking how they can get involved in these types of projects.

In recognizing such interest, the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP—the world's largest membership organization for those individuals practicing and teaching organizational psychology)[4] has begun to take action. SIOP recently gained nongovernmental organization (NGO) consultative status with the United Nations Economic and Social Committee and is developing an agenda to facilitate the application of organizational psychology tools in the programs and projects of the United Nations (UN) (Scott 2012). Further, SIOP's 2011–2012 president, Adrienne Colella, committed her year as president to exploring the "impact" of organizational psychology on individuals, organizations, and society, out of which the 2012–2013 president, Doug Reynolds, then focused on developing an online

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[2] See http://www.gohwp.org.

[3] See previous URL.

[4] See http://www.siop.org.

forum to facilitate members undertaking pro-bono organizational psychology project work. The demand for a globally focused, socially conscious shift in organizational psychology is there, and the field appears to be willing to respond. A crucial first step in making this response is to explore the existing dynamics of dominance and power that are present within the discipline.

Addressing Dominance and Power in Organizational Psychology

Historically, there has been a tendency in organizational psychology to focus on the "developed", "First", or "Western" world. These terms privilege particular interpretations of the world: "developed" often conveys a preference for technological sophistication and high incomes; the "West" is hard to find on a globe unless you assume one part is more central; and "First" and "Third" speak for themselves by implying that those countries considered "First World" are rated higher than those in the "Third World" on some unstated judgment scale. While such terminology may be implicitly pejorative, this is not to say that those who use it wish or intend to be so but, rather, that the discourses with which they are most familiar frame the situation in a particular way.

Within organizational psychology, this framing may be a particular challenge as much of the intellectual source for the discipline, as well as its successful application, has been within high-income, often "Western," countries (Henrich et al. 2010; Mpofu 2002). This fact is not a criticism, but, rather, a candid recognition that can allow us to more clearly address the challenges of developing a truly international curriculum for the discipline. Therefore, organizational psychology has largely been applied in high-income country settings where much of the world's resources are centered and where demand for the skills of organizational psychologists has tended to focus around improving the efficiency and productivity of organizations and their staff within the for-profit sector.

While we have suggested above that the development of humanitarian work psychology may be seen as reflecting the "pro-socialization" of organizational psychology more generally, its emergence also reflects recognition of the relative paucity of organizational psychology work in many low-income countries (Berry et al. 2011; Carr and MacLachlan 1998;). While there are many understandable practical reasons for this dearth, we believe that there are also attitudinal reasons that are very relevant to the development of an international curriculum.

At a general level, contemporary psychology has largely emerged from higher income areas of the world and as a result has tended to be privileged as authentic and mainstream (MacLachlan 2006). While other psychologies are certainly seen as interesting, they are also marginalized as "Folk" or "Indigenous" psychologies and perceived as less widely applicable. In a truly internationalized curriculum, an organizational psychology that can speak to the lived experience of the world's largest populations (for instance, India and China) is likely to be of most service.

A challenge for organizational psychology is to create the spaces for mutual learning, and mutual benefit, within and between different cultures and regions (e.g., glocalization; Carr, et al., 2008). Let us briefly consider the psychology of why this may be both a challenge and an opportunity.

Social dominance theory (Sidanius and Pratto 1999) helps to explain why and how inequality thrives, possibly in all societies. According to the theory, issues of power exist inherently at all levels within all societies—including individual, group, organizational, institutional, and cultural levels, and all levels interact to affect the overall system. The theory posits that societies are largely structured into group-based social hierarchies, which tend to favor dominant groups over subordinate groups (Pratto et al. 2006). Hierarchies are underpinned by social status and power, with dominant groups enjoying greater status and power than other groups. With status and power come other privileges such as access to and control of material and symbolic resources, and the ability to create structures within society which protect and sustain their dominance (Sidanius and Pratto 1999). According to this model, community and human development requires people and groups to learn to transcend the pull of self-interest.

One of the critical ingredients of the social dominance theory is *legitimizing myths* which underpin group hierarchies and societal imbalances. These myths suggest the inherent superiority of one group over another and are often facilitated by perceived (or constructed) dichotomies: black and white, rich and poor, able and disabled, men and women, urban and rural, and so on. This dominance is pervasive and resistant to change. For instance, even in contexts of very explicit commitment to discourses of equity, such as a policy of "Health for All" within the health sector, some groups are preferred over others, and many vulnerable groups continue to be excluded from the very health policies that have—arguably—been developed to help them (Amin et al. 2011; MacLachlan et al. 2012).

According to social dominance theory, without necessarily realizing it, dominant groups usually do not like giving up the privileges they receive as a result of their dominant position. Further, dominant group members may find it difficult to understand and accept that they constitute such a "dominant" group, and many group members may be unaware of the injustice they propagate. In such instances, Paulo Freire (e.g., Freire 1970) suggests one first step to address dominance using a process of conscientization whereby people become aware of what they represent and how society treats them. As a discipline, then, a critical first step is to engage in discussion both within the discipline as well as with the community about the dominance which may exist within the field and the impact that it might have *on* the field.

In a similar vein, but at an institutional rather than a disciplinary level, Farmer (2003) talks about "structural violence" as a way to describe how an institution's social structure can affect the well-being of its members, for example, through institutionalized racism, sexism, or ageism. Structural violence can become embedded within an institution such that it can appear invisible. In the same way, the Bias Free Framework (Burke and Pupulin 2009) can be used to make institutions, companies, teams, or individuals aware of implicit hierarchies by which they operate. This framework consists of 19 questions that help users to identify, analyze, and

eliminate existing biases that help maintain social hierarchies. It is based on a three-dimensional matrix that covers the type of hierarchy (e.g., age, gender, disability, geographical location, etc.), the type of application (e.g., program, policy, research, etc.), and the bias problem and its related solution.

The creation of terms and frameworks like "structural violence" and the Bias Free Framework are calls for more reflexivity in the process of learning to become, or practicing as, an organizational psychologist. While we suggest such methods in the context of poverty-related work, they may be of much broader value to the organizational psychology curriculum more generally (MacLachlan 1991).

In the case of organizational psychology, the ideas of individualism, democracy, choice, and freedom (although often conflated) may be seen by some as intrinsically and self-evidently "better for all". As a result, ideas associated with these constructs—such as large differences in income or access to health and education—may also come to be seen as self-evident truths. This resultant tolerance for inequality might, thus, increase the possibility of "Western" psychology's assumed rightful dominance.

While subtle attitudinal barriers can be difficult to address directly, organizational psychology can actively try and promote alternative, distinctive as well as integrative perspectives, and, in doing so, create awareness of the diverse and varied nature of work across the globe. For instance, in terms of research and publication, journals can feature special issues. As an example, in 2010 eight peer-reviewed journals and one peer-reviewed book joined forces to participate in a "Global Special Issue on Psychology and Poverty Reduction".[5]

In addition, mainstream journals can have target articles and actively seek out commentators from very different contexts and cultures to those who have written papers. An example of one journal which already takes this approach is the journal "Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice", which regularly puts out calls for commentary responses to focal articles. Further, authors themselves can integrate commentaries into their papers to help fully explore the meaning of a study's results (Aguinis et al. 2010). For example, in a recent paper Rupp et al. (2013) asked expert practitioners for feedback on the practical significance of their research findings and integrated the feedback, verbatim, into the discussion section of the paper. Finally, prominent professional societies can support new journals that explicitly address the challenges described above. Some professional societies already do this. For example, The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (SPSSI) supports one such journal—the Journal of Social Issues—and the International Association for Research in Economic Psychology (IAREP) supports another—the Journal of Economic Psychology.

In terms of curriculum development, e-based learning offers the potential to have more teachers and learners in the same "classroom" and for them to much more fluidly position themselves across these roles, by giving equal weight to the context, content, and process of organizational psychology (MacLachlan et al. 2010)

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[5] For details, see http://poverty.massey.ac.nz/#global_issue.

and examining these subjects across different settings and conditions, culturally, economically, and politically.

Of course, organizational psychology is not the only discipline to be underpinned by an implicit dominance; the field of global development itself has been criticized for using rhetoric that implies the superiority of the "developers" over those nations being "developed" (MacLachlan et al. 2010). The description of nations as "developing" or "developed" may arguably belittle those individuals from so-called developing nations, by assuming they should and do wish to "improve" by being more like those in the "developed" world and at the same time may imply that those individuals in the "developed" world have reached an end state requiring no further development. In addition, framing nations in such a way also has the potential to hamper research and mutual learning by implying that developing nations are somehow substandard (Jackson 2002) and that research from such nations may be less trustworthy than that originating in "developed" countries (Ryan and Gelfand 2012).

As already highlighted, there are many terms used interchangeably to describe lower income and higher income settings, including developing vs. developed, First World vs. Third World, North vs. South, Western vs. non-Western, Minority vs. Majority, and core vs. periphery. An implied difference between countries, cultures, and economies, and an assumed ability to dichotomize the globe, underpins all of these terms. All (including those we use ourselves) are arguably rife with underlying judgments, generalizations, and stereotypes and, in that sense, may privilege one part of the world over the other and some particular groups within societies over others.

While writing this chapter, we engaged in debate about the relative appropriateness of each of these terms, with a feeling that none are satisfactory. As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, we chose to flip the North–South distinction to South–North in the title, to reflect the important need to "out" such paradigms of dominance. Throughout the chapter, to highlight these paradigms and to facilitate the reader's understanding of the discussion, we use the terms "South" and "North" when talking about aspects of partnership development. We also use the term "Western" when discussing the origins of, and dominant ideologies within, psychology. However, wherever possible, our preference in our writing is to use the terms higher income, middle-income, and lower income settings.

The dominance of "Western" psychology is reflected in the constructs commonly used in organizational psychology and the research examples that tend to be published and cited in curricula. In the remainder of this section, we explore these two areas (constructs and research) in more detail and unravel the implications of the historical dominance as organizational psychology moves forward into a new era of internationalization.

Construct Comparability and Measurement Equivalency

Cross-cultural psychology has begun to infuse certain areas of organizational psychology, for example, global virtual teams (e.g., Gibbs 2009; Leung and Peterson 2011; McWha et al. 2012; Stahl et al. 2010) as well as expatriate assignments,

including both multinational corporations (e.g., Caligiuri 2000; Farh et al. 2010; Liu and Shaffer 2005; Mendenhall and Oddou 1985) and international aid organizations (e.g., Carr et al. 2008; Carr et al. 2010; Hudson and Inkson 2007; MacLachlan and Carr 2005; McWha and MacLachlan 2011). However, despite this infusion, there is often an implicit assumption by some organizational psychologists that organizational constructs can be relatively seamlessly exported/imported to non-Western cultures. In this section, we discuss the need to carefully consider the appropriateness of using existing constructs and measures in different settings, and the potential need to develop context-relevant constructs and measures either in addition to or instead of existing constructs and measures.

In developing an internationalized curriculum for organizational psychology, faculty must recognize that the curriculum taught in the USA and Western Europe cannot be seamlessly exported/imported into other settings. The content taught in these local settings may be appropriate for the context in which it is taught but cannot simply be taken into a global arena without consideration of other contexts and different ways of doing things. As an aside, it is important to note that, as societies continue to become increasingly multicultural, organizational psychologists must continue to reflect on our constructs to ensure their relevance within more diverse local contexts, as well as global contexts. Just as organizations looking to expand into new country settings cannot do so without stopping to think about (and listen to) the cultural and human capital differences within a "foreign" context, so also organizational psychology courses cannot be exported to/imported into different country settings without these same considerations (i.e., developing locally appropriate measures and broadening constructs).

Ultimately, instead of exporting "Western" psychology principles as they stand, faculty and students should continue to push the boundaries of organizational psychology by conducting research focused on different contexts, thereby helping transform the discipline into a truly international discipline representing the contexts and constructs of all countries and people.

A first step in this process, perhaps, is to actively support colleagues in all parts of the globe by creating South–North partnerships. In talking about South–North partnerships, we mean fostering linkages between faculty in different regions of the world that are based on equality and mutual respect (McWha et al. 2012). Such relationships can be leveraged to develop curricula which are both locally and globally relevant and research collaborations which have the potential to enhance our mutual understanding of the similarities and differences across different sociocultural, socioeconomic, sociopolitical, and socio-geographical settings.

The dominance of "Western" psychology (as discussed in the previous section) means that current organizational psychology curricula tend to be dominated by constructs originating from higher income contexts, typically the USA, the UK, and Western Europe. The inclusion of *guanxi* in mainstream organizational psychology (e.g., Mao 2006; Varma et al. 2009) is one example of where the discipline has been flexible to include constructs of importance in other cultures, but such examples are uncommon.

Much contemporary organizational research has embraced the need to recognize and control for covariates relating to individual, group, and national culture. Researchers are becoming more sophisticated at controlling for these levels in the data through using statistical techniques like hierarchical linear modeling (Klein and Kozlowski 2000). Yet, such research often still forgets the need to consider the equivalency of constructs across different contexts. Bias and equivalence are important concepts considered in cross-cultural assessment, and refer to the need to ensure that constructs, methods, and items are not specific to one language or culture, that words and phrases have the same meaning once translated, and that methods are consistent across cultures (de Klerk 2008; Byrne et al. 2009).

In response to calls to consider construct comparability across contexts (e.g., Rousseau and Fried 2001), some organizational researchers have begun to explore whether certain constructs might be universally relevant (e.g., self-efficacy; Scholz et al. 2002), and others relevant only in particular contexts. For example, in terms of organizational citizenship behavior in China, Farh et al. (2004) found five dimensions which overlapped with the US-based literature, but that there were other dimensions of import, including one completely absent in the Western literature (interpersonal harmony). Another example is that we have found the concept of *ubuntu* to be of particular relevance to strengthening networking in Africa, although it is rarely used in Western settings (Mji et al. 2011). Ubuntu refers to a social system of interrelatedness where people's humanity is determined not by their personal qualities but in terms of how they relate to others in their community. The idea that "a person is a person through other persons" encapsulates the essence of the *ubuntu* philosophy, contrasting sharply with more individualized Western understandings of the person, and having real implications for how individuals, organizations, and communities interrelate.

There may be constructs (like Farh et al.'s finding of the "interpersonal harmony" dimension of organizational citizenship behavior) that are culture specific, that is, constructs that are highly important in some settings but not others (Gelfand et al. 2001). Importantly, some constructs might be highly important in *only* non-Western contexts (e.g., *ubuntu*), but they must not be automatically discarded by researchers solely due to their absence in research undertaken in Western settings. Rather, the range of constructs should be broadened to include all globally and locally relevant content and contexts.

Beyond the constructs themselves, there are other aspects of the research process that must be considered for appropriateness in different settings, such as the equivalency of measures. Research instruments should be carefully validated for use in different settings; students must be taught that they cannot assume that a measure validated in one country will measure the same things in different countries. Often, this process will involve translation of the measure into other languages, in which case they must always be back-translated into their original language to ensure consistency (Brislin 1980). Similarly, factor analytic techniques can establish if items co-relate in the same way among different people in different contexts. The validity and reliability of a measure is, therefore, always a product of the intrinsic features of the instrument and the characteristics of the people responding to it, and the

context they are in. Questionnaires are valid and reliable *for people*, not in and of themselves. This truth does not negate the possibility of universal applicability of constructs or measures but does require this universality to be empirically demonstrated, rather than assumed.

Finally, consideration must also be given to the existence of potential cultural response sets, that is, respondents from different cultures might consistently respond to a rating scale in a particular way, such as the tendency towards more extreme or acquiescent responding (Hui and Triandis 1989; Cheung and Rensvold 2000). Research from cross-cultural psychology teaches us that these response styles might allow for similar patterns of responses for individuals with different absolute scores.

When creating South–North partnerships to develop curricula or undertake joint research projects, it is critical that construct comparability and measure equivalency are addressed. This need may be particularly true for academics in the South who are developing curricula themselves; textbooks and syllabi from the USA, UK, or Western Europe cannot necessarily be transported from other settings. All academics must recognize the need to draw from locally relevant literature and to ensure that the constructs and theories being taught take into consideration, and apply to, the local context.

Citing Research Examples

In addition to the need to teach students about ensuring comparability of constructs, and equivalency of measures, we should infuse curricula with examples of research which come from diverse areas—both in terms of different organizational types and structures (for profit, not for profit, multinational, subsidiary, etc.), as well as from different cultural, economic, political, and national settings. Research examples typically used in organizational psychology courses, and in mainstream textbooks, largely come from higher income "Western" settings, with little reflection of the types of challenges organizations in other countries face. Often the location of the research is not specified, as if it did not really matter (when in fact most of the research comes from a minority of settings globally).

An example of one such challenge is dual salaries between local and expatriate workers. Within the international aid sector, and particularly within lower income settings, a dual salary system is commonly implemented. A dual salary system is one in which an organization has two established remuneration scales—one for local workers and one for expatriate workers. There are a range of reasons organizations utilize such a system, including the perceived or assumed need to attract and retain qualified expatriate talent from more resource-rich sectors and markets globally, in order to facilitate "capacity building" and "skills transfer" to local staff. Largely ignored, until now, is the unintended psychological impact of this system on the workers themselves, as well as the (team) work.

Project ADDUP (Are Development Discrepancies Undermining Performance) is a recent research study undertaken across six countries and led by a team of organizational psychologists (Carr et al. 2010; Munthali et al. 2010; Marai et al. 2010;

Zhou et al. 2010). Project ADDUP explored the linkages between pay and a range of outcome variables, including demotivation due to pay, feelings of pay justice, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and self-assessed ability. Data were gathered across the government, aid, commercial, and education sectors of six countries selected for their geographic and economic diversity: two island economies in Oceania (Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands), two landlocked economies in Africa (Malaŵi and Uganda), and two "emerging" economies in Asia (China and India; see Carr et al. 2010, for a full description).

Respondents in each of the project sites were asked to report their salary and benefits in order to gauge the extent of the pay differences between local and expatriate workers. As expected, expatriate workers consistently earned more than local workers across all project sites. Pay differences ranged from 10:1 in the Solomon Islands, and 8.5:1 in Papua New Guinea (Marai et al. 2010), to 1.9:1 in China (Zhou et al. 2010), with an overall pay ratio of 4:1. Further, the pay ratio exceeded what respondents reported being able to tolerate (mode=2–3:1). Perhaps of most concern, however, was that, while 81 % of expatriate respondents reported their pay was sufficient to meet their everyday needs, an equivalent proportion of local respondents said that their pay was *not* sufficient to meet their everyday needs.

In light of these figures, then, what is the impact on workers in terms of the outcome measures mentioned above? In the same study, Carr et al. (2010) found that local workers undertook significantly more pay comparison than their expatriate colleagues, experienced significantly more thoughts of quitting, and reported feeling more injustice and demotivation due to the differences in pay between the two groups. Further, they reported being significantly less satisfied/engaged at work.

One of the most notable findings of this study was the critical moderating role found for organizations. In organizations where workers reported often comparing their pay with their colleagues, workers also reported being more demotivated ($r=0.37$) and experiencing feelings of injustice ($r=0.85$). Further, workers reported thinking more about leaving their organization in organizations with overall higher levels of demotivation ($r=0.59$), injustice ($r=0.37$), and comparison ($r=0.46$). Organizations, and by implication the climate and culture they foster, may, therefore, have a critical role to play in the success of aid organizations in terms of both terms of staff performance and capacity building.

Hence, the management practices of aid organizations appear to have potential unintended negative consequences for the achievement of their goal of building local capacity and reducing poverty (directly through decent livable wages for workers and their families, and indirectly through incentivizing human and other services). While these findings may be unsurprising to many readers given the existing literature around pay motivation (e.g., Bloom 1999; Pfeffer and Langton 1993; Shaw et al. 2002; Siegel and Hambrick 2005), what is surprising is that organizational psychologists have not explored before this phenomenon within the aid context—where pay disparities are arguably more salient than elsewhere. Disparities may be more salient in the aid context because of the existence of dual salary systems (as discussed above), which make salary differences between local and expatriate workers explicit, and also because of the context of poverty within many

aid settings, where many local workers do not earn enough money to meet their everyday needs. The research gap (i.e., around understanding pay motivation in aid settings) reflects a need to raise awareness among current and future organizational psychologists of the critical role we can and should be playing in providing potential solutions to organizational problems in all settings, including noncorporate and non-Western settings. Incorporating research examples, such as this one in our curricula, is one way to highlight the value, potential, and scope for organizational psychologists' investigation into aid organizations.

Many students graduate with an awareness of today's globally connected world but with little knowledge of the challenges faced by organizations in lower income countries/low-wage economies. A discussion of these challenges is crucial for developing the next generation of graduates, more and more of whom will be charged with working in a global labor market.

Needs of Faculty and Students in Lower Income Settings

Organizational psychology needs to respond to the demands of a constantly evolving "global" business community. How do universities develop programs that respond to these demands? When reaching out internationally to teach joint courses, or to develop online curricula, it is critical to balance the local needs with the global. In this section, we reflect on some of the different needs faced by academics and students in lower income settings as well as some of the considerations that must be made when developing new partnerships in these settings.

Perhaps the most obvious challenge faced by faculty in lower income settings is access to resources. Limited access to resources can impact the ability of faculty in lower income settings to collaborate with those from higher income settings, both because faculty in lower income nations are often highly overcommitted already and because they often have very limited access to funding to attend conferences. Other challenges impede the ability of faculty in lower income settings to participate, including the digital divide, access to technology, and challenges to publishing in top-tier journals. Further, universities are often limited in the types of courses they have the resource capacity to offer. Many universities do not have the resources to offer a specialized organizational psychology degree. Moreover, some of those universities offering such a degree attempt to replicate the program content offered by schools in the USA and Europe by taking on their readings and course outlines, resulting in students learning about constructs and research (and potentially using measures in their organizations) that may not be relevant to their local context (see previous section for further discussion).

In establishing South–North program partnerships, it is critical to be cognizant of the power and dominance those partners from the North hold with regard to both students and educators of the South (Crampton et al. 2003). The history of colonization and dominance of the South by the North has created an environment in which individuals in the South perceive anything coming from the North as the director

and arbiter of their knowledge and progress (Singh-Manoux 2005). Partnerships must be underpinned by equity and inclusion, and, in order to do so, both partners must reflect on the culture, identity, knowledge, and history of each institution and acknowledge the potential impact of power imbalances on that partnership.

One example of how this power imbalance might manifest is an unnecessary level of admiration granted to individuals from the North by virtue of the environment they come from. Unless both partners recognize this potential and attempt to counterbalance it, the possibility of entering dialogue as equals may be undermined. A further manifestation is that there could be a perception that the partner from the North is a well-funded "expert", and, therefore, result in an implicit expectation that this partner will undertake the majority of the work related to supplying the intellect and funding for the project. Such a perception ultimately undermines the potential of each partner. Finally, another manifestation of power imbalances could be that the partner from the North might receive artificial responses during interactions with the partner from the South, thereby undermining the ability of partners to generate new ideas together. The local partner may lack confidence in their capability to meaningfully contribute to the discussion despite being holders of the knowledge of their own world, or, worse, they may have developed a perception of colleagues from the North through previous interactions that says "since you know it all, and have it all, then you might as well do it all".

For example, in one situation experienced by one of the authors in a lower income setting there was a need to capacitate local academics on specific skills to develop an academic program. The development of this program was funded by an international funding agency. A local expert was available and appeared to be an excellent choice to lead the project as she would have related and transferred her skills to local academics with an understanding and interpretation of concepts using local examples. Instead, in this situation, the local coordinator chose an international expert from a higher income setting who was linked to the funding of the project. Though it was more expensive to fly over and pay the international expert, the overall needs of the project funder took precedence and necessitated the local coordinator not to rock the boat by choosing the local expert when the international expert was available. By choosing the international expert, the local coordinator ensured that the funding for the project was not jeopardized. This type of approach, which is underpinned and driven by funding needs, usually leaves local experts unsure of themselves and their expertise, and questioning whether they are respected for the knowledge they have and the experiences they hold.

To address these challenges, it is critical to ensure a true partnership is developed whereby representatives from both institutions achieve an equal voice and actively engage in a mutual learning environment (McWha et al. 2012). Research undertaken within an organizational context suggests that relationships between local and international workers may be critical for the success of organizations in lower income settings (McWha and MacLachlan 2011). A first step in this process may be to bring together the concepts of what makes us all equal even if we dwell in different settings. While there are general differences in the ways people operate, there are core concepts such as laughter, singing, dancing, joy, anger, fear, love, conflicts, friendships, and others that link us all together. Transcending

the differences and focusing on the similarities unlocks our wealth of creativity and knowledge as well as the ability to develop meaningful, equal, and inclusive South–North partnerships.

People in lower income settings face a key challenge in gaining access to education, for reasons of poverty and lack of resources (Mji et al. 2009; Rummens 2009). Given that many educational programs in lower income countries are based on ideologies imported from "Western," higher income, settings in the North, the few that do gain access to education are sometimes defined by their community as "elitist"; they can be perceived to have lost reality of what is happening at the ground level in their communities in exchange for their increased knowledge of the locally irrelevant imported ideology. This imported education may barely resemble anything related to the lived experience of local people. Hence, the very education that was meant to enable these individuals to assist their communities may have the potential to further alienate and distance them from their people. Ultimately, over time, the feeling of alienation leads many to decide to leave for the enticing opportunities and better salaries in the North (Crampton et al. 2003).

Researchers such as Serpell (2007), Werner and Saunders (1997), and Mkhize (1973) have highlighted the challenges facing universities in postcolonial states, such as many nations in Africa, in adapting former colonial-style education to meet the needs and aspirations of the local people. These authors have argued that education should afford students more opportunities to test formal "Western" theories against an African reality, and vice versa, in order to prepare them for the challenges they will face at work after graduation. Students should be invited to compare and integrate academic theories and perspectives with indigenous interpretations of experience. For instance, psychology students should be encouraged to consider the extent to which "Western" theories should be accepted, modified, or rejected in contexts outside the "West" (MacLachlan and Carr 1994).

Mkhize (1973) expresses concern for vertical programs that present a top-down one-way transfer of knowledge, ideas, values, and practices from so-called "developed" to so-called "developing" societies. He describes this process as a form of *cultural colonization* and asserts that the "developed" world continues to produce and market knowledge and technology to "developing" societies while the latter remains a mere consumer of Western ideas and technology. The end product may be irrelevant to the needs of the local populations, for example, eliminating poverty, improving literacy, and enhancing development. Mkhize (1973) extends this argument by saying that African indigenous frameworks for education are ignored, because, along with the people who espouse them, they belong to the category of marginalized knowledge. This disenfranchisement creates a class of African elites, as mentioned by Werner and Saunders (1997), whose views and lifestyles are similar to their middle-class "Western" mentors and different from those perspectives of their own "traditional" societies.

Despite this somewhat bleak view of the education system in African settings, we echo Crampton et al. (2003) in proposing that higher education has an important role to play in community development and transformation. The higher education sector empowers our teachers, social workers, psychologists, policy makers, and other social group actors to influence existing structures by either validating them

or challenging the existing order and acting as change agents (Fulcher 1989). These individuals have the potential to positively influence the current world, as well as the future.

Students and educators from higher income settings can assist students from lower income settings, and vice versa, in creating this positive transformation by encouraging and reinforcing local knowledge as an important source of learning. In doing so, they will not only move past the role of cultural tourist but also assist local students to appreciate their own culture and knowledge systems (Fulcher 1989).

In summary, in establishing South–North partnerships it is critical to recognize the implicit power and dominance afforded to partners from the North, often due to distribution of resources, as well as aspects of history, including colonization. Both partners must proactively make a commitment to true equality and inclusion from the outset. The increased global mobility of people has created exciting possibilities for sharing by people from different backgrounds with similar interests and concerns and has the potential to enable equal opportunity for all individuals to participate in sharing a range of resources, including developmental, educational, and economic resources (Rummens 2009). While cross-cultural psychology has begun to infuse certain areas of organizational psychology, balancing the needs and knowledge of the South with that of the North represents a critical challenge. Such a balance might be attained through the inclusion and infusion of local knowledge systems that are lying dormant in communities who instead embrace the "advanced" educational technologies of the North. Finding this balance between local and global is essential for meaningful and equal partnerships to occur (Crampton, et al. 2003).

Global Service Learning: Infusing International Experiences into Academic Curricula

In this chapter, so far, we have highlighted some of the implicit so-called "Western" underpinnings in our discipline, so that the faculty might be cognizant of the potential role this dominance can play in developing an international organizational psychology curriculum. We now wish to turn to a discussion of the importance of infusing practical international experiences into curriculum, for example, by providing students an opportunity to engage in meaningful international experiences first hand in a safe and structured way. Such experiences have the potential to expand students' worldviews and teach them to reflect on their role as global citizens.

Global service learning (GSL) is an increasingly popular approach utilized by universities to raise awareness of international contexts and help shape students into global citizens. GSL is a relatively new pedagogical approach to developing international student experiences, which borrows from the domains of service learning, study abroad, and international education (Bringle et al. 2011).It is often offered as an alternative to summer internship programs students in the USA engage in. Many students are looking for opportunities to spend their summer abroad, and, increasingly, they are looking for options to contribute to local communities. GSL provides one such opportunity in a structured, meaningful, and transformative way.

Global service learning is defined as:

> a structured academic experience in another country in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that addresses identified community needs; (b) learn from direct interaction and cross-cultural dialogue with others; and (c) reflect on the experience in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a deeper understanding of global and intercultural issues, a broader appreciation of the host country and the discipline, and an enhanced sense of their own responsibilities as citizens, locally and globally. (Bringle and Hatcher 2011, p. 19)

According to Bringle and Hatcher (2011), there are four key elements of GSL programs through which students engage in a process of learning through service. The first key element is that GSL is an academic activity, not a volunteer opportunity. This fact means that students often receive course credit for participation in the program, and that faculty assume a key role in the program through identifying and assessing learning outcomes and collaborating with community partners to ensure that activities both inside and outside the classroom meet the academic goals of the course. Further, faculty members often accompany students on all or part of the program, to guide and support them through the service-learning experience.

Second, the community service activities themselves must be educationally meaningful within the context of the program and must be identified in collaboration with community partners to ensure that the activities are of mutual value. In this way, GSL goes beyond students traveling abroad to assist with manual labor but engages the students meaningfully in the activities. Further, and crucially, it explicitly recognizes and involves community partners as equal partners—far from individuals or universities in the North prescribing what activities students will work on, a crucial element of GSL is that the program is developed collaboratively, and community partners themselves identify which of their needs the students can help to fill.

A third important element of the GSL approach is the concept of reflection (Ash and Clayton 2004, 2009). Structured reflection activities are integrated into the program to facilitate interpretation of program and academic activities, as they happen. Students are encouraged to critically reflect both on the activities they engage in as part of the program, as well as on their own context and values. These reflection activities include considering the impact of their presence in the international setting, as well as the impact of the international experience on their own lives. As such, students should be encouraged to think about not just the content of what they do, but also the context, and the process—the "how"—of what they do (MacLachlan et al. 2010). Interview research by Eyler and Giles (1999) suggests that the more rigorous the reflection on service learning in terms of quality and quantity of reflection, the better the academic learning outcomes. Further, more rigorous reflection predicted openness to new ideas, problem solving, and critical thinking.

One approach to guiding the reflection process which some readers may find useful is the DEAL Model (Ash and Clayton 2009). DEAL is short for (1) Describe, (2) Examine, and (3) Articulate Learning (see Fig. 2.1). This model guides students through a process of prompts to assist them in describing their experience in an objective and detailed manner, to step beyond description and examine how their experience links to the learning outcomes of the program, and finally to articulate
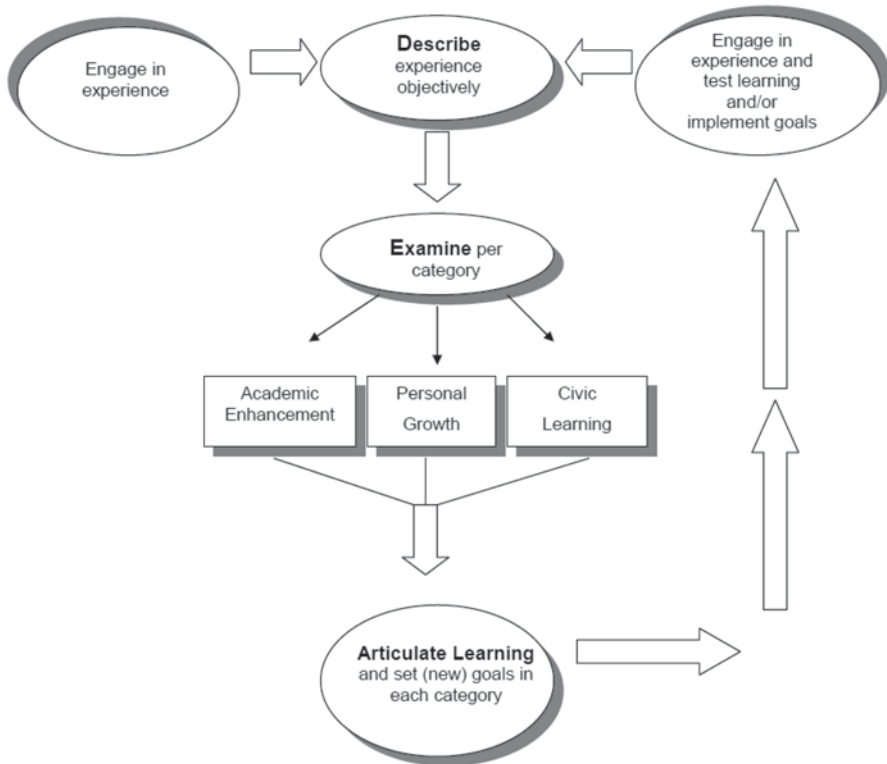
Fig. 2.1 Ash and Clayton's schematic overview of the DEAL model for critical reflection

their learning through answering four questions: (a) What did I learn? (b) How did I learn it? (c) Why does it matter? and (d) What will I do in light of it? The DEAL model can be applied in a variety of media, for example, online, in person, through written assignments, group discussion, etc., but however it is implemented it is designed to assist students to use their reflection as a vehicle *for* learning, rather than an expression *of* learning after it has already occurred (see Ash and Clayton 2009 for full details of this model).

The fourth key element of GSL programs is a strong emphasis on civic responsibility as a central objective. Through a combination of the elements of academic learning, reflection, and service, students attain an understanding of their role as global citizens, both within their local home environment, as well as globally. To this end, GSL programs are often described as being *transformative* experiences (Kiely 2004). Students return with a greater understanding of the connection between their actions at home, and the condition of others around the globe, as well as a deeper understanding of themselves.

Over and above these four key elements, an important emphasis is placed on preparing students for the international experience. Students are taught about the principles of GSL, and of reflection, and are guided to reflect on the culture of their own institution, their cultural background, and some of the issues of dominance

and power discussed earlier in this chapter. Students are taught the importance of humility and of recognizing that there are many different perspectives on any topic. In doing so, they learn the importance of listening and observing local and indigenous practices, without attempting to impose their own way of thinking. While the knowledge that students gain in these areas is crucial for the success of their international experience, students also attain lifelong learning about working in diverse settings, and being global citizens. Longitudinal research suggests that students who engage in GSL initiatives carry this learning with them, long after they have graduated from university and moved into the workforce (Kiely 2004).

GSL programs are not designed to be one-way programs, that is, they are not designed singularly for students from the North to travel to the South to engage in service. On the contrary, programs are designed to be mutually beneficial, both in the sense that the students make a meaningful contribution to the local community and in that students from the South can be brought to the North to engage in similar activities—in terms of both academic learning and providing service to communities in the North. The underlying principles of the program are the same, regardless of where the students are traveling, and the learning can be equally transformative.

The transformative learning that students gain from participating in GSL activities sets them up to work effectively within international contexts in the future. Further, incorporating GSL activities within our organizational psychology curricula meets the demand for a practical, socially responsible aspect to our discipline and provides students an opportunity to practice their skills within an international context.

GSL in Practice: The ILR-SVYM Program, India

> This past month has been a life-changing experience for me. I learned more about India, disability studies, and myself each day that I was here. Working in India… epitomizes Global Service Learning, as it has brought purpose to the studies I do at home. (Cornell University ILR-SVYM student participant, 2011)

One example of a successful GSL program is the ILR–SVYM program, developed and implemented jointly by the Swami Vivekananda Youth Movement[6] (SVYM; an NGO in Southern India) and the Cornell University School of Industrial and Labor Relations[7] (ILR). These two institutions have been jointly implementing a GSL program in Karnataka State, South India for the past 3 years.

Initiated by a Cornell faculty member who had previously worked at SVYM, this program has grown since its inception, with eight ILR students participating in the program's pilot year (2011), expanding to 16 ILR students just the year after. A faculty member from the ILR School International Programs office accompanies the students to India for the first 2 weeks of the trip.

Typically, GSL programs are structured in one of two ways, either learning and service activities are integrated throughout the duration of the program or students

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[6] See http://www.svym.org/index.html.

[7] See http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/.

engage first in an intensive learning program (often 2 weeks long) followed by their service experience. The benefit of the latter structure is that a group of students can be brought together for the initial learning portion and then broken up into smaller groups and sent to different locations to complete their service.

It is this latter structure which is utilized in the ILR–SVYM program. For the first 2 weeks, all students attend the "learning" portion of the program at SVYM in Mysore. This portion of the program consists of participation in three courses: (1) Indian Civilization and Culture, (2) Gender Relations in India, and (3) Indian Labor History and Current Workforce. In addition to these three courses, students have the opportunity to take classes in yoga and Kannada (the official language of Karnataka) and participate in some local outings.

After the 2-week immersion in learning about Indian culture and context, the students spend 4 weeks working on a project in an area predetermined by SVYM. Students typically work in pairs in different locations across South India. The projects are all related to topics the students study within the ILR school, including, for example, labor market research, disability studies, gender and diversity issues, child labor, and human resource management. Students may be assigned readings prior to the trip in order to ensure they have the necessary background knowledge in an area.

Student assessment includes an independent study paper, completed in the Fall semester following the program under faculty supervision and graded jointly by ILR and SVYM. In addition to the academic paper, students are required to submit two five-page reflective papers, one while in India and the other on their return to the USA.

GSL programs require considerable work and commitment from faculty, particularly in terms of establishing relationships with program partners, identifying appropriate lodging and locations for service activities, setting learning outcomes, and supporting students while they are on their international experience. Faculty must also understand the GSL approach, as outlined earlier in this chapter, and be committed to ensuring that any GSL experience meets the four key elements outlined by Bringle and Hatcher (2011). While a successful GSL program requires intensive effort, however, these experiences have the potential to be very meaningful and transformative for students, both through expanding their horizons in terms of social justice and also in terms of providing context and meaning for their studies back home. We know from longitudinal research that this positive transformative impact remains well beyond graduation from university and entry to the workforce (Kiely 2004).

Conclusion

This chapter addresses the increasing internationalization of work by highlighting the challenges internationalization presents for a discipline embracing the scientist–practitioner paradigm. This paradigm has generally, and often unwittingly, privileged "Western," "Northern," "industrialized," or "developed" country knowledge and practices, resulting in overly simplistic assumptions about their binary opposites, which have usually been constructed as inferior and/or "other." Yet, inter-

nationalization presents real opportunities to revise curricula in order to promote the inclusion of difference: different knowledge sources, different content, different processes, and different cultures and contexts.

These challenges can also help to further develop the pro-social potential for our discipline. While the social dominance of a Western perspective will not disappear overnight, it does not necessarily mean that this privileged position must disempower others; dominance can also be used to facilitate the empowerment of other perspectives. Furthermore, by embracing new initiatives in learning, such as GSL programs, organizational psychology, its students, and practitioners may be able to learn as much from addressing "difference" as they can contribute to enhancing the life and work of those in different cultures and contexts from our discipline's origins.

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Chapter 3
The Science of a Global Organizational Psychology: Differing Approaches and Assumptions

Donald M. Truxillo and Franco Fraccaroli

It is a virtual truism to say that the world is getting more interconnected and that workers now need to work more closely with colleagues from all parts of the world. At the same time, work organizations commonly employ workers from around the globe, and teams are now routinely made up of workers from multiple continents—and cultures.

These changes spring from several sources. Economic and political conditions are such that people move to countries where they perceive greater opportunities. Such migration brings with it the need for these workers to adapt to different cultures and for employers to understand these workers so as to utilize their skills. All told, workers from different cultures can have profound differences in their economic expectations and culture, such that approaches to managing these employees—from selection and training them to motivating and helping them manage stress—can be ineffective, to the extent that these approaches ignore cultural differences and ways of thinking.

Moreover, new technologies facilitate teams of people to work more remotely, without physical contact. However, this type of collaboration (teleconferences; exchanges by e-mail; working on the same project via virtual meetings, telework, computer-supported team works, etc.) also introduces a psychosocial confrontation between cultures, style of working, work habits, and social rules. Organizations and workers must also cope with new problems of coordination, evaluation, and management of workers. "The dissolution of the unity of work in time and space" (Frese 2008) is a process that obliges researchers and practitioners to think cross-culturally.

Therein lies the rub: Much of Industrial, Work, and Organizational (I-W/O) psychology research has been dominated by a very small percentage of the world population in industrialized countries, particularly North America and Europe

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(Tsui et al. 2007). This imbalance affects research's basic conceptualization of "work" and the relationships and psychological constructs involved. Arnett (2008), in articulating a similar concern, bemoaned the fact that much of psychology as a whole is dominated by the USA, despite comprising only about 5 % of the world population. Additional viewpoints and paradigms are needed to understand people's relationship with work and to test whether basic I-W/O assumptions, constructs, and interrelationships hold.

In this chapter, we begin to scratch the surface of these challenges in differences in I-W/O psychology science. We start by focusing on differences between our scientific assumptions in North America and Europe, noting that if such large differences are found here, disparities should only be greater with other parts of the globe that differ culturally, politically, and economically from America and Europe. From there, we briefly review the literature on cross-cultural research, making key points regarding issues that we as researchers must address to make our work relevant to more of the world's population. We next discuss differences in ways of gaining knowledge. We also make two key points that international collaborations are an important way to make headway on this issue and that practice could critically inform our research because, by necessity, our practice may be far ahead of our science in terms of acknowledging cultural differences. Finally, we discuss ways forward.

US and European Work Psychology: Differences in Focus

In general, over the last 50 years, there has been a strong process of cross-pollination between the I-W/O psychology in Europe and the USA. Scientists from both schools pursue similar research and intervention topics (i.e., training, selection, teamwork, motivation, etc.) and use many of the same research methods and approaches. However, despite this "long-term process" of coming together, some differences persist (see Truxillo and Fraccaroli 2011, for a discussion of these differences). European and US approaches to I-W/O psychology make quite different assumptions in terms of whom they serve and whose interests they serve. In short, I-W/O psychology—at least in the USA—is often a servant of management, at least in comparison to European Work Psychology, which focuses more on the interests of workers. In Europe, the name of the field, "Work and Organizational" psychology, showcases the importance of work, which can be studied without consideration of the employer. In other words, part of this difference between Europe and the USA is even found in disciplinary names. In contrast, the focus in the USA is on "Industrial and Organizational" with the goal of advancing the interests of the employing organization.

There are several examples of these differences between the USA and European I-W/O psychology (Truxillo and Fraccaroli 2011). For example, the topic of "applicant reactions" has developed over the last 20 years (e.g., Truxillo and Bauer 2011). In Europe, a broad approach to the applicant's experience of the selection

process has been evolving for quite some time, and this approach has looked at the job applicant as a complete individual who is impacted by the experience of going through a selection process (e.g., Salgado et al. 2010), with a focus on "social validity" (Schuler 1993) and treating applicants with respect. In contrast, the interest in applicant reactions in the USA has focused largely on how such reactions impact the organization, for instance, through reductions in litigation or increases in applicant attraction to the organization. In short, the European approach has acknowledged that the selection process is important not only to employers but also to individuals, not only in terms of employment outcomes but also in considering their dignity. Another example is the examination of the meaning of work (e.g., MOW; International Research Team 1987) by European scholars. By its nature, the MOW literature is more focused on the interests of the individual person rather than on that of the employer. Work values and MOW are important elements which derive from cultural and social origins of people, also connected with ideological and cultural beliefs of people (Furnham 1977) and can affect a worker's work and professional history, career choices, and level of work involvement regardless of the employer.

This attention to MOW and the psychological functions that work could fulfill for individuals can be related to the "occupational psychology" tradition—mostly European—that studies attitudes and values in relation to the positions of people in the labor market. Examples of research topics in this subfield include psychological antecedents and consequences of unemployment, job search behavior, and career and vocational choices. A similar example would be the milestone research of Jahoda (1982) on the psychological function of work. Further, these topics are also psychological aspects of work in general that are studied independently from one particular work organization and industry.

Another example is the approach to the study of work motivation. A long tradition of research and intervention in the USA has been devoted to the study of motivation in a particular job or organization, including human resource (HR) management characteristics that could improve or inhibit the motivation of workers. Examples including the Hackman and Oldham (1976) model of job design, now revisited by researchers such as Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), and the goal setting theory of Locke and Latham (1985) also focused on the viewpoint of management. In this case, motivation is analyzed as a consequence of organizational choices. In Europe, the study of work motivation processes are more connected with an action theory (Frese and Zapf 1994), which tries to understand self-regulation and self-evaluation of people in goal-oriented behavior. In this case, motivation is more related to the active role of an individual that interacts proactively with the organizational context.

Finally, we point to the area of occupational health psychology (OHP) as an example of research that attends to the individual's experience, which originated from both European and North American roots and is now growing worldwide. In contrast to the examples presented above, OHP emphasizes on both the organization and the individual. For instance, it strives to understand work experience in terms of well-being and to identify the psychological risks to individuals at work (Warr 2007) as well as examine variables of interest to the employer, the employee, and even the employee's family life (e.g., Hammer et al. 2011). In short, OHP

legitimizes the study of the whole person. OHP, in fact, includes studying how an individual with specific expectations, values, and psychological resources encounters the world of work and how this encounter can produce healthy or unhealthy outcomes. Family and friends, relationships, personal and social characteristics, individual aspirations, and future time perspectives could be variables to study in promoting a person-oriented approach.

We see OHP as an example of research in which increased collaboration between Europeans and Americans has led to important paradigmatic shifts in the field of I-W/O psychology, resulting in a more complete view of how workers contribute to organizational success and also how they experience work as part of their whole life.

In short, the internationalization of I-W/O has already begun to reduce paradigmatic differences between the USA and Europe and resulted in increased research into the worker not only to fulfill the needs of the employer but also to understand the worker as a complete, integrated person (Truxillo and Fraccaroli 2011). However, as profound as the differences and assumptions are between US and European I-W/O researchers, they are differences that are realized within some of the world's most highly industrialized societies (the USA and Europe) and within two geographic regions which are dominated by "Western" cultural values such as liberal capitalism and which have a developed economy. Thus, we note that differences with nonindustrialized countries are bound to be even more profound, and bridging these gaps will bring even a greater change to the way that we view and approach I-W/O research and eventually understand the importance of work to individual outcomes and to organizational success.

What Does "Applied" Mean for a Global I-W/O/W Psychology? What Are the Potential Settings for this Work?

The differences in I-W/O psychology with regard to focus and the intended beneficiary—the individual employee or the organization—raise the question of what is meant by "applied settings." Judging by most introductory I-W/O psychology texts, for most Western I-W/O researchers this generally means working for a corporation, consulting firm, or government entity. In reality, a number of possibilities are notably missing from this range of work settings. For example, in recent years there has been a growing interest in Humanitarian Work Psychology (e.g., Olson-Buchanan et al. 2013), recognizing that work psychology may have the potential to advance the interests not only of corporations but also of individuals and societies in need as well. Similarly, the Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology (SIOP) has recently achieved nongovernmental group (NGO) status, recognized by the United Nations (UN) as a possible instrument to benefit and support governments, societies, and countries worldwide. In keeping with this development, I-W/Os now may even support local organizations after natural disasters such as Hurricane Katrina (Rizzuto 2008). Although this broadened scope of work has begun

to develop only recently in the history of I-W/O psychology, we believe that these recent strands may represent a substantial change in the way that I-W/O psychologists think of their work and whose interests it serves.

This illustrates an important point: I-W/O psychology researchers can gain important perspectives from being aware of the needs of practice. Specifically, practice issues that arise as work psychologists operate in different countries and cultures can not only help inform our field about the differing workplace problems that psychologists are asked to help solve but also identify and recognize what may be profoundly different ways of experiencing work and its relations to other aspects of life from around the world. Such work has begun in professional publications such as SIOP's The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist (*TIP*) column focusing on I-W/O psychology professional issues in different countries and practice.

Similarly, in recent years there is a growing interest of I-W/O psychology on several social issues that are beyond the corporate business interests. Consider, for instance, the attention to imbalances in the demographic distribution of the workforce (older workers and late career), issues related to the mismatch between the educational system and work opportunities (over-skilled and underemployed workers), the promotion of work as an opportunity for social integration for people with disabilities (work and organizational accommodations to promote integration into the workforce), and the challenge of reducing discrimination and inequality in workplace (the reduction of sexism and ageism and the promotion of equal opportunities independent of race, ideology, and sexual orientation). In all of these examples, it is possible to notice the interest of I-W/O psychologists in improving the quality of the relationship between the individual and the workplace, even though this improvement might not directly benefit the organizational or corporate rationale.

In addition, diversity in the makeup of our professional organizations will lead to the integration of diverse viewpoints and, as a result, diverse methods. As Tsui (2007) points out, the internationalization of the membership of the Academy of Management is a rich resource for its members. The recent establishment of the Alliance for Organizational Psychology (AOP), which at this writing includes the charter members in SIOP, European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP), and International Association for Applied Psychology (IAAP), but whose membership is set to expand, I-W/O psychology will be able to share experience in research and practice among psychologists worldwide.

A Global Science of I-W/O Psychology: Differences in Context and Individual Experience

It is sometimes difficult to consider a *global* I-W/O psychology, either for research activities or for the interventions, because of the great differences in context. The work conditions of people living in different geographical areas are in some cases incomparable in terms of the quality of physical conditions, the stability of the job position, safety, and a multitude of other issues. These differences are sometimes

amplified by the labor market characteristics in different countries: rights and contractual rules, flexibility in terms of entry and exit from a job position, level of employability for various working people, and the degree of union influence in the workplace.

One can suppose that the meaning of words such as "work" and "career" and the centrality of the job in the people's lives could be very different from one cultural setting to another. These differences could affect the way people invest energies in a job and the degree to which they consider work activities to be central in their definition of personal identity. Furthermore, the experience of work could be analyzed through different lenses such as through macro-level economic differences (for instance, advanced industrialized countries, like the USA and European Union (EU), versus developing economies, like some Asian or South American areas), or institutional differences (to study the effects of different laws, rules, or labor market characteristics), or cultural differences (cultural, ideological, and religious factors). For developing this type of comparative research, the cross-cultural organizational psychology and organizational behavior literature can play a pivotal role.

Tsui et al. (2007) define cross-cultural organizational psychology or behavior as "… the study of individual behavior or team processes in which national cultural characteristics play a major role as independent or moderating variables" (p. 428). However, the internationalization of I-W/O psychology is hampered by the difficulty in comparing different contexts and cultures. These difficulties are amplified by the fact that paradigms and cultural models in research and interventions are dominated by hegemonic points of view developed primarily in Western countries. As noted by Gelfand, Leslie, and Fehe (2008), "*[cross-cultural organizational psychology] remains a U.S. export business*" (p. 494). Gelfand et al. also help to identify some specific barriers for the development of a "truly global" organizational psychology.

First, research questions in organizational psychology prioritize a vision of the individual as an independent person. The "cultural model of the self" represents individuals as able to define their own internal attributes, to make vocational choices following their personal needs and pursuing happiness and well-being, and to be driven by personal characteristics such as attitudes, abilities, and personality. However, in this model, contextual constraints, social norms, and social interaction are mostly neglected.

Second, research questions in organizational psychology assume a post-materialistic worldview. The organizational psychology research and interventions are oriented towards values such as self-expression, subjective well-being, and quality of life. However, in the world at large, vast numbers of people at work and in organizational settings must deal with some materialist values. For instance, it is interesting to note that in much of Western I-W/O psychology, the greatest attention is devoted to job satisfaction and well-being, with less attention to the quality of working life or, until recently, of simply having *decent work* (e.g., freedom from dirty and unsafe work, unfavorable working hours, harassment, and so on; *International Labor Organization* 2012). Similarly, the concept of "retirement" (e.g., Wang 2007, 2012) may have a different (or little) meaning where there is little or minimal retirement

system, or when the cessation of work only occurs when a person is physically or mentally unable to continue.

Third, research questions in organizational psychology assume a separation between work and other life domains. The dominant model, described by Gelfand et al. (2008) as "protestant relational ideology," uses, as a starting point, a low integration between organizational life and other life domains such as family, friendship, and religion. In actuality, this hardly reflects the way many, or perhaps most, people in the world actually exist, living in small, highly integrated communities. Indeed, this lack of integration among life domains has been largely rejected in recent decades with increased recognition of the importance of nonwork domains on work, including the domains of spouses, elders, and children (e.g., Hammer et al. 2011).

Taken together, these issues suggest that some voices and cultural perspectives in the field of organizational psychology are often ignored. They should be included in the questions and in the issues managed by I-W/O psychologists. Most notably, the voices and cultural perspectives from nonindustrialized countries, or from countries where the domains of work and organizational life are more closely connected with other values (e.g., spirituality, collective meaning of achievement), may be absent from much of the current I-W/O psychology literature.

Cultural Differences: Challenges in Meaning and Measurement

As specific examples, it is possible to identify some issues related to cultural differences in the meaning and interpretation of concepts which are widespread in the I-W/O psychology literature. For example, the concept of motives, goals, feedback, job satisfaction, and job characteristics can have quite different meanings in different cultural and economic contexts**.** Similarly, there are serious issues in the different ways of interpreting the relationship between the individual and the organization. For instance, the meaning of commonplace concepts such as organizational commitment, psychological contract, organizational justice, and organizational citizenship behavior can have quite different meanings (e.g., Gelfand et al. 2007)—and may not even have any real meaning in certain cultural contexts.

Glazer and Beehr (2005) present a good example of differences in the culture surrounding job and organizational characteristics. They compare the effects of three role stressors on intentions to leave in four countries (the USA, UK, Italy, and Hungary). These four countries were chosen because of their different cultural values and economic structures, differences presumed to influence the workplace social context. Specifically, the authors examined a stress model that included role stressors as predictors, anxiety and organizational commitment as mediators, and turnover intentions as the outcome of the stress process. They compared the structural equivalence of this model in nurses from these four countries. On the one hand, their results supported the portability between countries of the general stress model:

Some work characteristics such as roles are stressors, which lead to a personal variable (anxiety), leading to an individual–organization link (organizational commitment) and organizational behavior (intention to leave). However, they found that culture and economic characteristics for each country partially affect the strength to which variables are related. For instance, the intention to leave the organization among US nurses is more likely a result of anxiety level than it is among the Hungarian nurses. This difference across countries in the relationship between variables could reflect the differences in availability of viable job alternatives and opportunities. In other words, the same job characteristic could have differential impacts on organizational behavior, depending on job market features in the specific context.

A second example of differences related to the individual–organization link could be drawn from the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature. In a study conducted in Taiwan by Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) on the relationship between organizational justice and OCB, the authors consider that in different cultural contexts in Taiwan (traditionality versus modernity), the perception of organizational justice could play a different role in explaining OCB. In the modernity cultural context, such as that dominates Western countries, the perception of justice is a strong predictor of OCB; people who perceived high distributive and procedural justice are more likely to behave in terms of extra-role behavior, altruism, and other OCB dimensions. The emphasis on instrumental exchange is dominant in this modernity cultural model. In the traditionality model, in contrast, people's organizational behavior is more directed by prescribed roles, and the central focus is not necessarily on the equity of the exchange but on the principles of respect, authority, and an expressive relationship. The authors found partial confirmation of these hypotheses: Traditionality moderated the relationship between fairness perceptions and OCB. For tradition-oriented people, cultural values such as an expressive tie with the organization explained attachment with the organization (measured by OCB), but justice perceptions did not.

Farh et al. (1997) provide an example of another important topic in the field of cross-cultural organizational research: the methodological and epistemological aspects related to the questionnaires adopted in different linguistic and cultural contexts. The most widespread procedure for conducting cross-cultural studies begins with an established and validated measure of a concept and then translating it into the required language, using translation and back-translation (Brislin 1970), often referred to as the adoption/adaption process. This procedure clears up the primary linguistic issues (i.e., linguistic correspondence between two instruments to promote construct validity). For instance, the Tsui et al.'s (2007) analysis of 93 cross-cultural organizational behavior research studies showed that a large number of studies use this procedure to guarantee the internal validity. However, this procedure does not resolve issues pertaining to culture, namely, that the same notion could have different structures and meaning in different contexts. The Fahr et al. study, for instance, demonstrated that the measurement of OCB could be enriched in the Taiwanese context by some additional dimensions: In addition to the traditional dimensions of OCB including altruism and identification, they also found some other culturally specific dimensions such as sportsmanship and courtesy.

This last point could be further developed by considering the emic and the etic concepts used in cross-cultural organizational psychology (e.g., Gelfand et al. 2008). The distinction between emic and etic approaches derives from the field of linguistics. The seminal work by Pike (1967) describes the etic approach as the study of behavior and culture from outside of a particular system. In contrast, the emic viewpoint results from studying behavior and culture from inside and based on the particular system. Berry (1969) subsequently applied the emic and etic concepts to the study of cross-cultural psychology. He pointed out the value of an emic perspective for psychologists, which allows for the understanding of individuals within their own context and daily activities (with specific attitudes, motives, and personality; Berry 1989). But in addition to taking this emic approach, cross-cultural psychologists need to make generalizations across cultural groups by comparing these groups using etic approaches. There is also a third approach to the study of phenomena in a cultural context: a "derived etic" approach. This involves the comparison between the two emic perspectives and using only the filtered common constructs of the two cultures for analysis. The three approaches allow for the identification of communalities and differences across cultures (Morris et al. 1999).

In cross-cultural organizational psychology (or at least in much of I/O psychology), this distinction describes emics as the component of a concept (or behavior) that is specific to a culture compared with etics which are the universal, cross-cultural components of a concept or behavior. Going back to the previous point, the general notion of OCB could be considered to be an etic concept, given that all of the components of OCB established in Western studies do not hold up in China (Farh et al. 2004). In short, this cross-cultural literature on etics and emics identifies some of the hazards and challenges of cross-cultural research. Certain concepts identified in one culture may have a very different meaning in another culture, or may in fact be meaningless.

This last point, referred to as measurement equivalence between different national or cultural contexts, may be the more critical one. Specifically, Tsui et al. (2007) recommend that researchers "ensure construct validity beyond back translation and measurement equivalence" (p. 466). The authors show that the most frequently used tests for verifying invariance in cross-cultural studies are configural, that is, demonstrating structural equivalence using multi-sample confirmatory factor analysis. This is a good but not sufficient way to study intercultural invariance. In fact, the application of these statistical analyses is not sufficient to promote context-specific measurements. These analyses, in fact, produce a pseudo-etic approach; they start from an emic perspective (using a questionnaire produced in a specific culture, typically the US), and then through a translation approach, the researchers identify which part of the original scale is applicable to another culture, cutting the rest of the scale. As a result, the equivalence approach does not solve the emic, context-specific assumptions.

Farh, Cannella, and Lee (2006) describe some alternative approaches to the construction of measures that try to preserve cultural specificity. They consider two main dimensions that can define the construction of a scale: the source and the expectations of cultural specificity. The first well-known approach, simple *translation*

from the original language, is characteristic of the use of an existing scale and by a low expectation of cultural specificity (''imposed'' etic approach; Berry 1989). The second approach, *adaptation*, also involves the translation of a scale that already exists, but with some alteration to consider (and to add) some specific cultural aspects, creating higher expectations of cultural specificity. The third approach, *decontextualization*, involves the creation of a new scale not based on existing ones, with an etic perspective (universal and culturally invariant dimensions; or the ''derived'' etic approach, Berry 1989). The fourth approach, *contextualization*, implies the assembly of a new scale with a higher expectation of cultural specificity (emic approach). This last approach is considered more appropriate for the study of culturally specific aspects and for understanding differences in structural aspects across cultures. At the same time, such a procedure consumes time, and scales developed in this way may not be appropriate for culture comparisons, resulting in difficulty communicating the finding to well-established journals.

Gelfand et al. (2008) note that although levels of analysis research (e.g., individual level versus unit level) have grown in recent years, it has received relatively little attention in cross-cultural organizational psychology—which is unfortunate because of its relevance and because a lack of such research can lead to confusion. For instance, different studies, all purporting to study ''culture'' may be measuring it quite differently, say, at the individual level or at the country level (i.e., using country as a surrogate for culture). This distinction represents an important limitation. Assuming that cultural measures (e.g., individualism) are isomorphic across individual- and unit levels is likely untrue and can lead to serious confusion. Gelfand et al. provide detailed recommendations for incorporating levels of analysis into cross-cultural organizational psychology research.

Beyond Simple Cultural Differences: Polycontextuality, Ways of Knowing, and Indigenous Research

Tsui et al. (2007) provide an excellent, practical list of recommended steps forward for research in our field, such as considering both emic and etic approaches (not just back-translation) in considering construct measurement and the need to examine issues across levels, and we point the readers to this source for a thorough discussion. In addition, we highlight two recommendations from Tsui et al. (2007) that seem to be key to moving forward in cross-cultural research in I-W/O psychology and which should benefit I-W/O psychology as a whole.

The first recommendation is to use a ''polycontextual approach'' (Von Glinow et al. 2004). Von Glinow et al. describe how to incorporate multiple contexts, such as economic, historic, and political contexts, which will lead to a holistic and valid understanding of that phenomenon (Tsui et al. 2008). For instance, Shapiro, Von Glinow, and Xiao (2007) point out that much of the research in our field relies on verbal media at the expense of ignoring body language; in contrast, polycontextually sensitive research methods would include many ways of knowing to achieve an

understanding of culture. Noting that nation and culture are not synonymous—that there may be multiple cultures and cultural values within a single nation—and that many factors besides culture affect organizational behavior within a country, Tsui et al. (2007) advocate for the use of polycontextual research, taking into account factors beyond culture in order to understand the effects of culture on a phenomenon within a particular nation. In short, Tsui et al. argue that these multiple contexts (such as their cultural, industry, and economic contexts) affect how workers perceive and react to their jobs and employers and how they behave in work organizations. These contexts lead to different ways of knowing, including knowing that is drawn from the physical environment (e.g., space and time), various communication media (e.g., verbal and nonverbal), sensory factors (e.g., visual and auditory), psychological factors (e.g., cognitive and affective), and philosophical approaches (e.g., spiritual and moral; Tsui et al. 2007). These different ways of knowing lead in turn to different ways in which employees interpret work. For example, "team work" may mean different things in different nations, cultures, and industries. These different ways of knowing and interpretations of work among employees are particularly challenging for researchers, who must also draw upon multiple disciplines (e.g., economics and history). For instance, we argue that a non-American would need more than a solid background in psychometrics and American culture to understand selection practice in the USA, but would also need to understand American politics, history (e.g., the civil rights movement), and law. Finally, researchers may need to supplement certain media frequently used in Western research, such as the written survey, or dispense with it entirely, as other methods, such as interviews and observations, may allow for better understanding of the multiple contexts and the behavior within it. These multiple contextual factors besides culture, such as industry, economy, and politics, can neutralize or enhance the effects of culture and thus should be taken into account in research

Second, Tsui and colleagues (Tsui, 2004; Tsui et al., 2007) emphasize the importance of what they describe as indigenous research, which they define as "country- or context-specific research that involves a high degree of contextualization or even polycontextualization when studying novel contexts. Such research does not aim to test an existing theory but strives to derive new theories of phenomena in their specific contexts" (p. 468). In short, indigenous research would involve a fairly different approach to conducting cross-cultural research. Rather than starting with an existing (often Western) theory and extending it to novel contexts, indigenous research would involve the development of new theory within the novel context, even taking into account a polycontextual approach. This indigenous research allows for the recognition of factors that may not have been taken into account by existing theory, given that the existing theory is a function of its original culture. Moreover, as indigenous research is often only published within its own language, teams of researchers using multiple indigenous approaches allow not only for the development of more complete, universal theories but also for the sharing of otherwise narrowly disseminated research across linguistic borders. Similarly, Gelfand and her colleagues (2007) point out the need for indigenous research to be a high priority for organizational behavior as a field, as in this way the researchers will be

able to capture emic (i.e., culture specific) concepts that might otherwise be missed. Capturing emic concepts is important not only for cross-cultural research projects specifically but also for the development of a more universal organizational psychology (Gelfand et al. 2008).

Conclusion and Recommendations

In our discussion, we have illustrated some differences in the approaches to research used by European and North American researchers. We have also used the literature on cross-cultural and cross-country research as a springboard for understanding differences in scientific approaches to I-W/O psychology. With this material in mind, we make a number of summary recommendations and provide additional insights for researchers working across borders.

First, in today's interconnected world, researchers should reach out to those working in other countries to assemble international teams. Language permitting, researchers should look outside of their own country and academic discipline to examine the literature related to their area of study. Studying issues only from the standpoint of North American or European employment situations is to ignore the vast majority of workers on the planet. To expand our deeper understanding of people's relationships at work, we need to look beyond our borders and challenge our assumptions about the factors affecting behavior at work. Speaking from our own experience, such work requires that researchers dig in and become close to their phenomenon and culture of interest, but this process can be immensely satisfying on multiple levels. We draw on a quote from Tsui et al. (2007) to illustrate:

> High-quality, high-impact research is the result of the scholars' deep knowledge about the phenomena they study. This is true of cross-national research as well. International studies are not for those who cannot depart from the comfort of their homes or who dislike flying for more than a few hours. Good local knowledge cannot be attained in a matter of days, weeks, or even months. We encourage scholars of any nation to spend their sabbatical year (not months) in the country that they would most like to study. An extended stay may not only deepen knowledge; it could build friendships and trust that are critical for successful and rewarding partnerships lasting for many years. Knowledge about a phenomenon does not result from a single study but requires a program of research that continues for years or even decades. Wonderful friendships may emerge from cross-national collaborations.

Second, we encourage researchers to "go native" (Tsui et al. 2007) and to study their phenomena from the standpoint of other cultures. Drawing from anthropology may be particularly helpful. Such research means not only more than just using psychometrically equivalent measures—certainly a critical issue—but also to possibly put aside established (i.e., Western) theories and look for theoretical developments within a country or culture. Such an approach can lead to the recognition of concepts that only exist in certain cultures or the elimination of fallacious applications of assumptions and constructs that do not exist in particular cultures.

Third, we underscore the recommendation to incorporate different ways of knowing into cross-cultural research activities (Tsui et al. 2007). For example, for North

American researchers this practice may mean moving away from written surveys and moving towards other research approaches such as observations and interviews. The culture and the country should guide the research approach.

Fourth, it is important to recognize that country and culture are not synonymous, and moreover, many other factors within a given country may affect workers' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors (e.g., Gelfand et al. 2008; Tsui et al. 2007). Within a country, there can be many cultural norms, and multiple factors besides culture such as politics and economics (Tsui et al. 2007) can affect worker behavior. Taking into account (and measuring) these multiple contexts (polycontextualization; Tsui et al. 2007; von Glinow et al. 2004) will supplement understanding in the range of factors that can account for differences across countries.

Fifth, researchers should increase efforts to redress such methodological concerns as measurement equivalence, levels of analysis issues, and isomorphism. A detailed discussion of how to address these is beyond the scope of this chapter—other authors have addressed these in detail (e.g., Gelfand et al. 2007, 2008; Morris et al. 1999; Tsui et al. 2007; van der Vivjer and Hambleton 1996; van der Vivjer and Tanzer 1998), but we simply name these issues here.

Sixth, as a field we need to move forward in training our next generation of researchers and explicitly incorporating these issues into graduate training. This training would include the importance of understanding the phenomena examined by I-W/O researchers from multiple perspectives and how this training can lead to better theoretical advancement, the range of factors that can affect ways of knowing across countries and cultures, and the implications for the practice of I-W/O psychology. It is important for this mindset to be incorporated into researchers' thinking early on. To avoid training new researchers to recognize these issues around globalization leaves our profession vulnerable to being less relevant and without the tools needed to deal with the world of work in the twenty-first century.

Finally, our professional organizations can act as a rich source of understanding differences in work phenomena across cultures and differences in approaching our science. Tsui (2007) notes that the increased international membership in the Academy of Management is an excellent resource for its members as a whole. Recent internationalization efforts by SIOP, EAWOP, and IAAP—manifested in the establishment of the AOP—recognize these issues and provide the resources needed to facilitate international collaborations, which often result in increased understanding of differences in scientific approaches and research issues. SIOP's recent involvement as an NGO for the UN recognizes the role our research and practice can play around the world. The establishment of the Global Organization for Humanitarian Work Psychology will help support a role in novel contexts and with different goals in mind.

In conclusion, there are many reasons to promote international research in I-W/O psychology. These reasons include the increased visibility of our field and solving real, practical problems in the work of people around the world. Moreover, such work will also lead to important differences in the way that researchers *think about* their theories, which can only enrich our understanding of the factors that affect people's relationship with their work and how their work fits in with their lives

as a whole. Such international work will lead to paradigmatic shifts in our assumptions about our theory, practice, and the way we approach our research.

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Part II
Curricula

Chapter 4
Educational Approaches Across Cultures: Consequences for International I/O Programs

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Approaches to education and training vary drastically across cultures and regions. Education systems differ widely in terms of the foundational philosophies for teaching and training, the formal organization and regulation regarding certification and degree conferral, and the informal expectations for faculty and students. These differences in norms, values, and practices have the potential to create challenges for schools hoping to develop a truly international industrial/organizational (I/O) curriculum that includes international exchanges and experiences. For example, collaboration between programs can be difficult when the official titles of programs differ, the content of the curricula across regions differs, and the "needs" of the students differ across programs. Can students transfer credits from one program to another? How does research collaboration occur when some programs emphasize coursework while others emphasize only research? In an effort to inform the development of international I/O programs, this chapter aims to critically analyze the dominant approaches to graduate training across a few exemplar cultures and to distill suggestions regarding the internationalization of I/O education.

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Toward this aim, the chapter is divided into three primary sections. First, a brief summary of the education systems and philosophies in several different global regions are presented. These regions were selected to represent a wide range of influential areas where I/O psychology either currently exists or may eventually expand. Second, these education models are critically integrated with a focus on how various aspects of the education systems from around the world can be combined to provide the best of all worlds for international I/O curricula. Third, we conclude the chapter with a summary of the suggestions that can be gleaned from this analysis, with a focus on how the elements of the education models can be combined to influence curriculum content, training of students, and educational and research-oriented collaboration between programs.

Education Systems Across the Globe

"The aim of teaching is simple: it is to make student learning possible" (Ramsden 1992, p. 5). While the aim is simple, the act of teaching is complex because it involves a combination of perspectives. It is not a value-free activity, but is undertaken within one or more possible paradigms or worldviews. This paradigm, defined as "an internally consistent orientation from which a conceptual and operational approach to functioning in the world is constructed" (Pearse 1983, p. 158), influences the way teaching and learning are conducted. Making explicit one's own definitions and paradigm(s) of education can illuminate the choices made in teaching.

In the following section, descriptions of the educational systems and philosophies from a sampling of regions across the globe are presented. It should be noted that this list is in no way comprehensive, as there are many more relevant regions and models than can be feasibly discussed in the space of one chapter. Instead, we selected regions based on a desire to capitalize on the personal experience of the authors while also attempting to represent major geographical regions including Western, Latin, European, Asian, and Middle Eastern.

It should be noted that in many regions, the education model that is formally accepted by professional associations and academic communities as a whole often are not completely reflected in the actual state of individual education programs: There is a significant amount of variation in how much, and how well, education models are utilized in particular schools and programs. Therefore, the models described below are meant to illustrate the types of differences that can and often, but not always, exist across regional education systems and the potential impact those differences can have on internationalizing I/O programs. Given that the USA does house the majority of existing I/O programs (Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 2012), we begin with a description of the education system and philosophy in the USA.

USA: The Scientist–Practitioner Model

Most universities within the USA confer three levels of higher education degrees: bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees. In terms of expectations, a bachelor's degree generally is designed to take 4 years to complete and is aimed at providing students with either a basic background in an academic area in preparation for graduate training or a more technical and specialized education for entry into industry. Most master's degrees are intended to take 1–2 years beyond the bachelor's degree depending on the rate of coursework, whereas most doctoral degrees are designed to take 4 or more years beyond the bachelor's degree and represent the highest level of certification available in most fields. In terms of content, most bachelor's degrees are heavily coursework focused, most master's degrees either coursework or practical experience focused, and most doctoral degrees are mostly research focused with varying amounts of coursework. In general, all levels of education include some amount of formalized coursework.

In the USA, a large portion of postbaccalaureate programs in psychology are built around a model of education known as the scientist–practitioner, or alternatively the Boulder, model (Belar and Perry 1992). The scientist–practitioner model was developed at a psychology conference in 1949 (Jones and Mehr 2007). Originally, it was intended for clinical psychology programs, but now has been applied to many other areas of psychology education as well. The model generally suggests that all psychology students should be trained in both the practical applications of their field (e.g., counseling, consulting) as well as the complex research methods necessary to conduct and analyze the science behind the practice. The basic assumption behind this model is that science and practice continually inform one another. In other words, science exists primarily because it provides a systematic and predictive way in which to solve problems in the practical arena, while practice should be the inspiration behind the development of scientific questions. One of the primary goals of this model is to provide students with broad experience and knowledge in their field. Another is to bridge the all-too-common gap between scientific research and professional practice. The model is considered holistic, and emphasis within program content is supposed to be placed on integrated science and practice.

Interestingly, a recent panel at the Annual meeting of the Society for Industrial–Organizational Psychology (SIOP) suggested that the scientist–practitioner model has been readily adopted as a model for the field of I/O psychology as a whole rather than as a model for education, and that there is a large amount of variance in the design of I/O graduate programs (Rupp and Beal 2007). Generally, master's programs lean toward the practice side of the equation while doctoral programs lean toward research and science. In other words, although the field often claims to adopt a balanced and integrated scientist–practitioner model, the reality of most I/O graduate programs is that there is a mostly scientist or mostly practitioner approach rather than a truly integrated one. However, this model is still the most widely discussed from a formal education standpoint, and most programs are making efforts to maintain some focus on both sides of the equation. Therefore, it can be assumed that for the most part, when dealing with I/O psychology programs developed and

conducted within the USA or by US institutions, the scientist–practitioner model is the primary driver behind the design of the program.

There are advantages and disadvantages to the scientist–practitioner model as it is intended to be implemented. The primary advantage of the scientist–practitioner model is if advanced scientific skills (e.g., knowledge of and experience with the scientific process) are truly developed during education, then graduates should have the ability to apply the scientific method to all aspects of their practice and adjust practices over time as new evidence is uncovered. This type of adaptive ability allows the graduates to remain relevant, and accurate, as new science is developed rather than relying on outdated lessons and being unable to change along with science and evidence. In fact, the heavy emphasis on scientific research skills in most I/O programs is often what makes I/O psychology graduates more appealing than individuals with backgrounds that are similar in content (e.g., human resources, [HR]) that do not usually train students to have the same ability to design, develop, conduct, and analyze research.

The primary disadvantage of the model is that it requires time-consuming, careful integration of science and practice in both classroom experiences and practical training. That means both academic instructors in the classroom and practitioners supervising internships must buy into the integrated model and have the skills necessary to simultaneously teach and encourage integrated science and practice. It also means that programs designed to encourage the scientist–practitioner model must include content and experiences that address both the science and the practice behind I/O psychology, which can result in extended amounts of coursework and make programs longer than students would like to remain in school.

Europe: Student-Centered Learning

In the past, the vast majority of European universities were completely funded by the state and students did not pay fees to attend. Master's degrees took around 6 years to complete, while doctoral degrees often took 10 or more years, much longer than the expected time to graduate from the corresponding degrees in the USA. Recently, the Bologna model has begun to emerge as the dominant model of education in Europe, and was originally a declaration signed by 29 countries in 1999 (Lunt 2005). The declaration pledged that the 29 countries would restructure their educational programs in a systematic way. One of the largest changes set about by the Bologna declaration was a transition to a three-tiered degree structure that is similar to the one seen in North America: the conferral of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees. According to a report completed by the European University Association, it was only in the last decade that the master's degree was added as a separate qualification (Sursock et al. 2010). Yet this change has spread quickly, and now 95 % of surveyed participants in Europe reported that their institution has either a two- or three-cycle structure (Sursock et al. 2010).

The primary purpose of the Bologna process was to "harmonize" the education system across Europe. In other words, the goal was to make higher education more consistent and exchangeable across European universities. This means that for the

purposes of international I/O programs, there is some level of similarity between the education systems of the nations that have signed the Bologna declaration. For example, internationalization has recently been recognized as the most critical change driver that will have an impact on European higher education in the next 5 years. This means that many European institutions will recognize the relevance of programs that focus on internationalization, making the time ripe for collaboration between international I/O programs in the USA and Europe.

Due to the Bologna process, there has been a shift in European education systems from a teacher-oriented approach to education toward what is referred to as a "student-centered" learning approach (Sursock et al. 2010). This education philosophy emphasizes learners as individuals who have diverse backgrounds, experiences, and learning styles that must be taken into account when designing curricula. The teacher is seen as a facilitator of the learning process rather than just a provider of information, and the focus of education is on building critical thinking skills and developing a deeper understanding of material. There is a de-emphasis on the simple transfer of knowledge from teacher to student. Students are no longer seen as customers or recipients of a service, but are instead seen as active participants who share the responsibility of learning with teachers.

The transition to the Bologna model has made European higher education somewhat more similar to US education, but there are still clear differences between the models. One of the starkest remaining distinctions between US and European higher education models is the fact that in most European universities, doctoral-level education is generally synonymous with research. There is a much smaller, almost nonexistent, emphasis on practical experience and formal coursework. Many European doctoral programs require little to no coursework, and instead are fully focused on independent research projects conducted by the student. Most doctoral programs are organized around a one-to-one apprenticeship model in which doctoral students are matched to productive scholars in their field of study with whom they spend several years developing one large-scale piece of original research (Sursock et al. 2010). In fact, in some European programs, doctoral degrees are only conferred once a student's research results in significant support for an innovative research question. This is very different from US programs in which doctoral students can and often do graduate after completing a dissertation project that ends in non-results as long as the findings are adequately explained. There has been a slight push to make European doctoral degrees more internationally competitive and, as a result, a small number of programs have begun to introduce more coursework and other practical training experiences, but the primary emphasis is still the individual mentor–mentee relationship and the resulting original research.

UAE: Transmission, Practical, and Emancipatory Models

The UAE is one of the rising economies within the Middle East, and as a result, the educational system there has been growing quickly. According to the UAE embassy

(Embassy of the United Arab Emirates, 2012), the education system in the UAE is relatively new compared to the other regions discussed in this chapter. It was not until the 1960s and 1970s that a government-sponsored school building program really pushed forward the development of the education system. Today, however, the UAE has a well-established K–12 education system as well as a system of public and private universities. Citizens of the UAE can attend public universities for free, and most students that complete secondary school apply for admission to a university. Furthermore, the president of the UAE, His Highness Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan, has expressed the belief that education is one of the most important investments that the country can make in its future.

Because this system has been developed recently under a strong Western influence, the university system is actually set up very similarly to the US educational system, with bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees available that take approximately the same amount of time to complete. In fact, many of the programs at the larger public universities such as UAE University are internationally accredited. Most universities also require that students have a minimum score on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) exam to be admitted, which means many students have some proficiency in English. This would likely make collaborations between the UAE and other English-speaking cultures easier. Furthermore, there are several international universities that have established campuses or programs in the UAE, such as New York University, Johns Hopkins, and University of Washington, among others. Although there currently are not any work or organizational psychology programs offered in the UAE, there are business schools and programs, and the nature of the educational system overall seems ripe for future possibilities.

An analysis of educational models in use in the UAE reveals three basic approaches to education: (1) transmission models, (2) practical models, and (3) emancipatory models. The transmission model of training characterizes teaching as the imparting of knowledge and dictates that the activity of the learner is the absorption of knowledge. The teacher is seen as an authority and a master of knowledge who transmits the facts largely with the assumption that students are like empty vessels and they can fill them with their knowledge. In this model, knowledge is considered as an entity that exists and can be transferred to the students. The learners' role is to passively receive the information, store it in their mind, and regurgitate when asked (i.e., within examinations). The transmission model has been most significantly championed by Friere (1970), who uses an analogy to explain the characteristics of transmission model as a "banking" model of education. He analyzes the role of the teacher as a "bank clerk" (Freire 1970, p. 350) whose "task is to fill the students with the contents of his narration—contents which are detached from reality, disconnected from the totality that engendered them and could give them significance" (p. 257). Most commonly, higher education in UAE uses the lecture approach of education based on the transmission model, especially in a setting of a very large number of students.

The practical model is very similar to the student-centered learning model used in the Europe. The practical model suggests that knowledge has a social component—individuals' interactions with their environment are critical and must not be left out of education. It is assumed that individuals lead very different lives and

the purpose of learning is to allow people to organize what they have experienced. Thus, rather than "knowing" cold facts about reality, learning should provide individuals with beliefs about the world in which they live. The practical model regards education and training as an active acquisition of knowledge. Therefore, learning needs to be organized in a way that allows the learners to interact with other learners, exchange their experiences, make full use of the environment, and maximize their learning with adult support. Such learning focuses on personal and social adjustment, the maintenance of motivation, and the acquisition and retention of new concepts. Friere (1970) suggested the problem posing approach, which falls under the practical paradigm, as an alternative to the banking approach of the transmission paradigm. This approach encourages students to think and tackle problems presented to them on their own.

Finally, the emancipatory training model is based on the interest of society as a whole, and not on the completion of the curriculum. The major aim is to unite everyone for an education that will empower all levels of society. The idea behind the emancipation model of training is that a society consisting of emancipated (i.e., independent) individuals is desirable. Education techniques based on the emancipatory model include guided reflections, challenging established perspectives on the bases of reasoning and evidence, re-conceptualizing the purpose of education, and questioning seemingly accepted beliefs and practices. The emancipatory model also argues that it is vital for the learners to think philosophically. Ethnology can help learners to understand different cultures better, which would help to promote tolerance, respect, and understanding. Emancipatory education also strives to enable people to realize their personal interests and how to make use of the tools that society provides (for example, the rights as a citizen or worker) to defend or advocate for those interests.

Brazil: A Sociocultural Perspective

Over the last 25 years, the growth of psychological education in Brazil has been rapid. Over 150 undergraduate psychology programs exist, all of which are accredited by the Brazilian Ministry of Education (Hutz et al. 2006). Compared to the USA, Brazil's degree structure is more complex with multiple levels of doctoral degrees attainable by those who pursue their education beyond undergraduate education program. There are three types of undergraduate degrees: Technology, Licentiate, and the bachelor's degree. The Brazilian Technological degree requires 2–3 years of full-time study, the Licentiate is a 3–4-year program that enables individuals to be employed as elementary or secondary school teachers. The Brazilian bachelor degree requires between 3 and 6 years of full-time study and allows individuals to work as professionals in specific areas (e.g., lawyer, economist, physician, and psychologist).

Beyond the bachelor's degree, there are four levels of postbaccalaureate degrees that can be awarded: master's, doctoral, postdoctoral, and, finally, Livre-docência, which is very similar to the German Habilitation and the pinnacle postgraduate

degree awarded. Master's degrees require 1–2 years of additional full-time study and are an additional qualification for both better jobs and those pursuing a PhD. The doctoral degree requires 3–4 years for completion and, unlike the degrees in the USA, is considered a stepping stone for academic life. Beyond the doctoral degree are the postdoctoral degree and the Livre-docência; the postdoctoral degree is not an academic title but instead it denotes excellency in a field of knowledge acquired through supervised post-doctorate research and the Livre-docência is a pinnacle degree that is considered a higher level of scholarship than the research doctorate. It requires candidates to write a professional thesis, based on independent research.

Compared to the USA, the Brazilian system provides extremely broad psychological education and allows the student flexibility to self-select into specializations of interest through their chosen internship. Students receive extensive coursework in nearly every psychological discipline from neurophysiology and psychobiology, through social, developmental, and clinical psychologies, and organizational and health psychology (Hutz et al. 2006). Upon graduation, graduates can apply for licensure and practice in any area they feel prepared for. The licensure program's goal is to produce flexible, competent psychologists who can work in a variety of areas to benefit Brazilian society as a whole. This has had the side effect of producing practitioners who are largely divorced from scientific research which is the domain of graduate-level researchers.

A sociocultural orientation is prevalent among psychology practitioners in Brazil (Hutz et al. 2006). Similarly to Vygotskian social interactionism, the sociocultural orientation "emphasizes the influence of the environment and social conditions on human development and seeks to improve individual mental health in tandem with the social, environmental, and economic conditions that directly influence it" (Hutz et al. 2006, p. 13). This approach has parallels to the emancipatory approach used in the UAE in that it focuses on the well-being of society as a whole and the place of the educated individual within that whole. In other words, people influence society and society influences people, and the entire system of influence must be considered when trying to study human psychology. Brazilian universities often provide psychological training that emphasizes this sociocultural perspective.

China: A Focus on Science and Research

The education system in the People's Republic of China is a government-run public system. Similar to many Western education systems, most students attend primary school, middle school, and high school before moving on to the university system around the age of 18. Participation in the education system is required for all citizens through middle school, but not beyond. The university system does offer master's and doctoral programs, though a search of many university websites indicates that most of the organizationally relevant degrees are actually HR-oriented and tend to reside within business schools and include business content. However, there is a considerable amount of overlap in some of the HR degrees and traditional

I/O degrees such as courses on research design and data analysis, HR management, compensation theory, career theory, job analysis, and performance evaluation, among others. Overall, the higher education system in China is the largest in the world, awarding more degrees than the USA and India combined (Baker 2007).

Culturally, Chinese families highly value education and children often are put under enormous pressure to succeed and compete in the academic world (Bennett 2012). More recently, as the education level of the population level has risen and consequently more students are qualifying for universities, many Chinese have begun to value American and European degrees over degrees earned within China. This has resulted in a large portion of Chinese students pursuing degrees abroad. There are also many foreign students studying in China, with the government estimates in 2010 stating that over 260,000 overseas students were studying in mainland (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, n. d.a). This suggests that the idea of international exchange and education is quite accepted within the Chinese education system, and scholarships and other programs exist to support study-abroad efforts. In fact, the ministry of education has a specific department of international cooperation and exchanges to help manage study-abroad efforts.

The Four Modernizations, a set of goals to strengthen agriculture, industry, national defense, and science and technology, were set forth by Zhou Enlai (Ching 1984). Because of the Four Modernizations, the development of science and technology has become one of the primary foci within the Chinese education system. Although humanities are still considered important, they are not seen as equally important to science and technology. In 1981, the Ministry of Education developed policy regarding the standards to be met for various levels of education (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, n. d.b). Specifically, at all levels of education including bachelor's, master's, and doctoral, students are required to acquire the skills necessary to undertake rigorous scientific research or specialized technical work. In fact, doctoral students not only are required to complete and defend a research-based dissertation and clearly demonstrate the ability to undertake independent scientific research, but also must have already made significant creative achievements in science or in special technology in order to earn their degree. This harkens back to the rigorous standards of European doctoral degrees in the past. These rigorous requirements are a clear indicator of the emphasis placed on scientific research and innovation that exists within the Chinese education system.

Educational Model Integration

In an effort to incorporate diverse perspectives when designing and developing international I/O psychology programs, we integrate the primary components of the above-discussed models of education into a set of suggestions for designing international I/O programs. We suggest that the advantages of each model or system can be utilized both separately and together to result in a well-rounded, effective, and innovative program. For example, the scientist–practitioner model pro-

vides more instruction regarding the content of the program than the method or approach for disseminating that content. The scientist–practitioner model used in the USA would suggest that international I/O programs should focus on providing knowledge and skills regarding both the science and practice of international I/O psychology. The transmission model of education in the UAE emphasizes the basic relaying of knowledge from teachers to students, which is a necessary, though insufficient, part of any educational program. The student-centered learning from Europe and the practical and emancipatory models from the UAE are very similar in that they encourage critical thinking skills and experiential learning rather than simple transmission-style dictation of information from the teacher to the student. The student-centered learning approach heavily emphasizes small groups as a forum for encouraging students to learn from one another, whereas the emancipatory model focuses on developing individuals into autonomous, reflective philosophers who can approach any situation with a critical eye. The sociocultural approach in Brazil emphasizes a focus on the interaction between psychologists and their surrounding environments, and the research-focused approach in China suggests that a clear grasp of research and scientific principles is necessary to earn a higher degree.

An analysis of the themes behind each educational model reveals two basic dimensions upon which to consider the design of international I/O programs: (1) the content of the competencies to be covered within the program and (2) the teaching method or strategy used to provide that content. Based on the scientist–practitioner model and the fact that this chapter is currently interested in guiding the *internationalization* of I/O programs, the content that needs to be integrated into existing programs is the science and practice of international I/O. Based on all of the education models together, these competency areas should be developed through a combination of: didactic learning, experiential learning, critical thinking, personal reflection, and group work (see Table 4.1). In the following sections, specific recommendations will be given for how to best implement the various teaching methods and cover the science and practice of international I/O psychology (Table 4.2). It should be reemphasized that these recommendations are specifically focused on how to incorporate international content and competencies into existing I/O programs and not on how to build an I/O program from the ground up. It is assumed that the basic I/O competencies are already covered, and the program is looking for direction on how to incorporate more international content into that program.

Didactic Learning

The transmission model and the scientist–practitioner model emphasize the necessity of providing students with the most recent knowledge regarding the field of I/O psychology. Given that this book and chapter are specifically interested in internationalizing the content of I/O programs, this would mean that students will need to be provided with the most recent knowledge regarding international I/O psychology. One of the most common methods for transmitting knowledge is through

Table 4.1 Suggestions for international I/O programs based on models of education

		Educational techniques				
		Didactic learning	Experiential learning	Critical thinking	Personal reflection	Group work
INTERNATIONAL I/O COMPETENCIES	Science	Coursework on international I/O, culture in I/O, cross-cultural research methods, etc.	Experience conducting cross-cultural research, overseas research exchanges	Directed critical analysis of international I/O research publications	Periodic guided reflection on one's own culture, other cultures, international experiences	Research conducted within international teams either during exchanges or virtually
	Practice	Coursework on practical activities (e.g., job analysis) and consulting skills in international contexts	International internships or exchanges supervised by scientist–practitioners, case studies of international firms in class	Directed application of scientific method in practical international contexts	Periodic guided reflection on international or other culturally relevant experiences	Practical consulting activities conducted within international peer groups

Table 4.2 Summary of suggestions for the development of international I/O programs

Suggestions	Tips for implementation
International I/O programs should include, at a minimum, coursework that provides knowledge on science, practice, and cultural issues within international I/O	Include a multicourse sequence of research methods training
	Begin the program with survey courses that broadly cover topic areas in I/O
	Integrate international issues throughout all courses as much as possible
	Include electives that focus specifically on international and cultural issues in depth
Consider competency and certification requirements from various global regions when designing the content of international I/O curricula	If the program is US-based, use the SIOP guidelines as a baseline for competencies to be covered
	Consider faculty and student research interests and potential graduate placement when determining other regions' competency requirements to cover
	Compare each region's required competencies for overlap in order to minimize extra requirements
Include opportunities for international experiential learning such as overseas research assignments, research assistantships, and/or practical internships	Develop relationships with multiple programs in various locations
	Provide exchange opportunities for students to engage in coursework, research, or practice in these partner locations
	If travel is not feasible, form virtual research or project teams with other institutions
International I/O programs should include a heavy emphasis on developing research skills, including cross-cultural research	Provide multiple courses on research methods and statistics, including an applied international research methods course
	Incorporate a discussion of international research methods into research methods courses or international courses
	Encourage students to participate in research throughout their time in the program
	Require at a minimum a thesis or major research project as part of master's degrees, and a dissertation for doctoral degrees
Provide students with formal opportunities to apply critical thinking to the science and practice of I/O in international contexts	Include critical analysis of research findings in all courses rather than a simple summary
	Assign "thinking paper" assignments that require the thoughtful synthesis of information for application to international contexts.
	Use group discussions in class to guide students through critical thinking exercises
	Develop "current topic" courses that focus on critical reading and analyzing recent research reports
Build personal reflection exercises, including cultural self-awareness, into the curriculum at multiple points in time	Provide students with an organizing framework for reflection
	Early in the program, guide students through a reflection activity focusing on cultural self-awareness
	Require students to write short reflective essays within the context of topical courses
	Include reflective essays as part of the requirements for internship or practicum credits
Build (international) group work into the content of courses and experiential activities	Engage in group-based problem-solving activities and discussions in class
	Organize students into multicultural teams to conduct research projects
	Partner with other programs and form virtual international teams to complete course projects or research

traditional lectures and reading assignments that simply provide students with rote information. Therefore, we would suggest that international I/O programs should include some formal coursework that focuses on the international aspects of I/O psychology including the impact of culture on I/O practices, research conducted in a variety of cultural contexts, and direction in cross-cultural research methods, though the amount of lecture-based coursework may need to be reduced compared to the amount currently in many traditional I/O programs in order to make room for other innovative experiential learning methods.

At a minimum, however, international I/O psychology programs should have some coursework touching on the international issues surrounding the science and practice of I/O psychology. This is true with both master's and doctoral-level programs. In regard to science, knowledge regarding the most recent research findings within I/O topics, either cross-cultural ones or within identified key cultures, as well as basic knowledge of cross-cultural scientific method and research design, should be emphasized. This means reading assignments and lectures covering basic competencies in cross-cultural and multicultural I/O psychology should be used, especially at the beginning of the program when students are relatively unfamiliar with the field. Regarding practice, courses should provide basic knowledge regarding common activities that practicing I/O psychologists conduct (e.g., job analysis, job evaluation) and how those differ internationally and possibly courses on the knowledge and skills necessary within international I/O consulting settings. In other words, didactic content in as many classes as possible should include consideration of relevant international issues such as cultural differences or cross-cultural competencies. In sum, consulting courses should include content examining consulting in international settings, research courses should include content discussing cross-cultural research methods, and practical courses should include any relevant information regarding how I/O practice such as recruitment or selection differ in international settings.

Suggestion 1: *International I/O programs should include, at a minimum, coursework that provides knowledge of the science and practice of international I/O.*

It is important to note that international I/O programs within the USA or associated with US institutions may need to consider the SIOP guidelines for education and training when designing the content of the curriculum. Generally, the set of competencies outlined on the SIOP website (e.g., career development, individual assessment) are included within the content of the program for US-based programs. In order to truly internationalize a program, however, competencies outside of the SIOP guidelines should also be considered. For example, the European Association for Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP) recently started pilot testing a set of minimum educational standards for bestowing an advanced certificate in work and organizational psychology (Depolo et al. 2009). These standards require a certain number of credits in various topics such as explanatory and technological theory, intervention skills, and research. In fact, very similarly to SIOP requirements, EAWOP has outlined a set of 20 competencies that practicing work psychologists should have, divided into six functional groups including goal specification, assessment, development, intervention, evaluation, and communication.

I/O programs hoping to prepare students for potential international careers as researchers or practitioners should look into the competencies required to obtain certification in other regions of interest and attempt to design the content of the curriculum to simultaneously cover the SIOP competencies as well as the competencies outlined in other key regions. Additionally, if multiple regions with outlined competencies are collaborating, it may be useful to compare each region's required competencies for overlap in order to minimize extra requirements. It should be noted that regions with more established organizational or work psychology communities, such as the USA and Europe, will be more likely to have formalized competencies, so this approach may not be applicable in all cultures. In cultures that do not have formal competencies, an analysis of what is expected by businesses from organizational consultants may be more appropriate.

Suggestion 2: *Consider competency and certification requirements from various global regions when designing the content of international I/O curricula.*

Experiential Learning

One of most salient themes that emerges from the scientist–practitioner model, the practical model, and the emancipatory model is the focus on taking advantage of experiences as an opportunity for learning. In other words, students in international I/O programs should not be limited to didactic, transmission-based coursework alone. They should also engage in a variety of hands-on independent experiences within the realms of international science and practice of I/O. This is consistent with the general literature on international business: International experiences are one of the most important predictors of future cultural success (e.g., Lee and Sukoco 2010).

International experiential learning opportunities should be deliberately incorporated into international I/O program content at multiple points. Experiential research activities can be encouraged in multiple ways. Students could participate in small research projects built in as course assignments that focus on examining cross-cultural issues in I/O and are completed in multicultural teams. Research assistantships or volunteer research could be completed with faculty members that have expertise in international I/O or cross-cultural psychology or even other areas of research (e.g., social psychology, anthropology) that could inform cross-cultural research. Formal research-based internships could be set up in international partnering organizations or research firms that specialize in cross-cultural work. Major research projects, theses, and dissertations also serve as experiential learning opportunities for international and cross-cultural research design, development, and analysis. We would suggest that given the importance of research skills for both the science and practice of international I/O, even students in master's programs should be required to complete a small independent research project such as a major paper or thesis before graduating. The ability to design and manage empirical research is one of the primary advantages that I/O graduates have over graduates from other fields, and given the complexities inherent in designing and interpreting cross-cultural re-

search in particular, it is even more critical to international I/O programs. Practical experiential learning can be encouraged in much the same way as research-related experiential learning. Course projects might require students to actively walk through an I/O activity such as conducting a job analysis, creating a selection tool, or developing a training program all from the perspective of another culture. Internal and external internships could place students in global or culturally relevant I/O and HR positions in which they can experience a wide array of practical activities.

As we have suggested already, some or all of the research and practical experience embedded in international I/O programs should be international in nature in order to provide students with exposure to other cultural systems. This would be most ideally achieved by facilitating overseas student or research associate exchanges. By sending students overseas to experience either research or practice in another cultural context, the experience will simultaneously provide the advantages of experiential learning for I/O and for firsthand experience with the various issues inherent in international work such as cultural differences, the stress of expatriation, and the use of cultural competence skills. When collaborating with other programs, the differences in educational style may potentially create mismatch issues when one program is designed very differently from another. For example, one program may be primarily transmission-based and another primarily experiential learning-based. However, this mismatch should be seen as a learning experience in and of itself—international I/O students will be expected to deal with a variety of cultural mismatches and differences as professionals in the international workplace, so it is fitting that they should experience them firsthand as students.

If resources are more limited, virtual means of interaction could be used instead of exchanges. For example, students from programs in different countries could be teamed up and develop a research proposal virtually using computer-mediated communication such as email and teleconferencing. Virtual experiences would at least expose students to the cultural and technological issues that often abound in international business situations. In fact, many of the students' future cross-cultural exchanges and collaborations after they graduate may be virtual. Therefore, virtual exercises are not just a proxy for "the real thing," but also good realistic preparation. This virtual approach may be a good starting point for programs wanting to begin the transition toward international I/O. In the long term, however, programs should make a concerted effort to build strong professional connections with schools and organizations overseas that may serve as exchange or internship partners.

Suggestion 3: *Whenever possible, provide experiential learning opportunities that are international in nature.*

Critical Thinking

In order to truly take advantage of the experiential aspects of the program, students must be skilled in the process of critical thinking surrounding international issues. Students need to have the ability to think about the content covered in courses as

well as their practical cross-cultural and international experiences from a scientific perspective. Research should be carefully analyzed for rigor and applicability based on a constant awareness of potential cultural differences, rather than taken at face value. Practical experiences should be analyzed for opportunities to apply learned science and improve international practice.

The skills of critical thinking will undoubtedly rest in a firm understanding of the basic scientific method and scientific research practices, thus making the "scientist" component of the scientist–practitioner model integral. Beyond basic science, however, students in international I/O programs will also need to be trained in cross-cultural and multicultural research methods. Students will need to receive adequate training in cross-cultural research design and methodology and statistical principles. An example sequence of methodology courses may include introductory courses to basic research design and statistics, an introductory course to cross-cultural methods, optional courses on advanced research analyses and statistics such as structural equation modeling and multilevel modeling, and an international applied research methods course in which all previously learned material is combined and applied to various example scenarios with a focus on understanding when and how to use various research methods and hands-on experience with statistical packages and research design. The exact format and sequence of the courses can be adjusted to meet the needs of the students and the program in question, but the goal should be to impart a basic understanding of the most recent knowledge regarding both basic and cross-cultural research methodology and statistical analyses. At the end of the sequence, students should be familiar enough with research design and methodology to critically analyze others' work and to develop sound science of their own.

Another way that I/O programs can develop relevant research skills is by expanding course content to include research outside of I/O journals. Relevant research and methods discussed in social psychology, cross-cultural psychology, anthropology, and religious studies, as examples, could provide a well-rounded insight into the cultural differences that may have an impact on the organizational and business practices that I/O psychologists may be interested in. In fact, optional electives in relevant areas outside of I/O psychology could also be included as part of the overall curriculum. Perhaps international I/O programs can partner with other departments such as sociology and anthropology departments in order to provide students with opportunities to take, or at least attend, courses in related disciplines that can help develop strong cross-cultural research knowledge and skills.

Suggestion 4: International I/O programs should include a heavy emphasis on developing research skills.

Once this scientific knowledge is developed, other courses should emphasize the application of this knowledge to the critical analysis of current international science and practice in order to engender a habit of critical thinking. An example of coursework that is focused very heavily on this type of critical thinking is a course such as "current topics" that is centered on the analysis and critique of existing research reports. Students in a course such as this within an international I/O program may be required to carefully read research articles on relevant I/O topics both within and

across various cultures, come to class prepared with questions and comments, and then engage in an instructor-guided group discussion critically analyzing all parts of the research including theory, methods, writing, conclusions, and international implications.

An entire course such as the one described is a viable option, but is not necessary if a program does not have room for new course requirements. Critical thinking can also be encouraged in other classes by building similar group discussions into existing coursework. In fact, an international "flair" could be incorporated into any existing course simply by encouraging critical thinking regarding the international application of the research and practice being discussed. Critical thinking could also be encouraged by internship and practicum supervisors that encourage interns to critically analyze problems and propose potential solutions rather than simply providing interns with a set of directions for how to solve a problem. The application of scientific thinking to practical problems could even be practiced through classroom case-study assignments in which students are assigned a fictional problem, perhaps within a multinational or "other" cultural organization, and are asked to provide a potential solution to the problem based on the science of I/O psychology. The key is to provide students with ample opportunities to engage in critical thinking with a special emphasis on cultural applications when examining examples of science and practice in international I/O.

Suggestion 5: *Provide students with formal opportunities to apply critical thinking to the science and practice of I/O.*

Personal Reflection

The emancipatory model suggests that personal reflection exercises should be built into the program at multiple instances in order to develop the student into an autonomous, philosophically minded individual. Within the context of international I/O psychology, students should reflect on various experiences such as internship experiences, group work experiences, past international experiences including professional and leisure travel, research experiences, and any previous work experiences.

Reflective activities could be included as part of formalized course content or they could be informally encouraged. Instructors could provide students with guided reflection frameworks meant to focus the reflection on learning from the past experience. For example, the action, looking back, awareness of essential aspects, creating alternative models of action, and trial (ALACT, Korthagen and Valalos 2002) model of reflection could be taught to students in order to facilitate systematic personal reflection throughout the program. The emphasis on reflection complements the emphasis on experiential learning in that reflection allows the students to learn from more than just lectures and other coursework. They also learn from their individual experiences that may have occurred before entering formal training in I/O psychology.

Along with reflection on various I/O-relevant experiences, there should also be an emphasis in international I/O programs on reflecting on one's own cultural values, beliefs, and assumptions. Self-awareness refers to the understanding of one's personally held skills, emotions, values, strengths, weaknesses, assumptions, and biases (Goleman 1998). Given that an international I/O program should be aimed at preparing students for a variety of I/O-related careers in international settings, one of the skills students will need is general cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence can be defined as an individual's ability to effectively handle and manage situations characterized by cultural diversity (Ang et al. 2006). The first step toward cultural intelligence is getting individuals to recognize that they approach others with a set of unconscious assumptions that guide their feelings, thoughts, and actions. Reflective activities should be embedded into course content early on to help students develop self-awareness of these unconscious assumptions before they begin interacting in international settings.

Suggestion 6: Build personal reflection exercises into the curriculum at multiple points in time.

Group Work

The scientist–practitioner, student-centered, practical, and emancipatory models all lend themselves to the use of group work within educational settings. Teams are nearly ubiquitous in international business settings, given that much of the reasoning behind expanding business to a global market is to take advantage of distributed expertise and diverse skills that exist across the globe. Therefore, group work will provide more than one advantage to international I/O students. It will provide diverse perspectives that should improve critical thinking skills, allow for experiential learning and reflection opportunities, and simultaneously expose students to the issues inherent in team-based work. Within an international I/O program, both the science and practice of international I/O can be developed using group work activities.

Nearly all scientific research done in both academic and practical settings is conducted by teams, and therefore students should be provided opportunities to engage in group research. Several of the suggestions given previously naturally require group work in order to provide students with opportunities to collaborate with international partners. Most consulting activities also are conducted by teams of professionals, so internships and other practical activities such as class assignments should include opportunities for cross-cultural and multicultural group work. Furthermore, coursework should probably include some portion of a course, or an entire course, on groups and teams with an emphasis on global teams. The recent increase in international business along with the rapid improvement of communication technology has led to a dramatic increase in the prevalence of global teams within organizations (Hinds et al. 2011), making teamwork a critical issue for international I/O students to learn about. "Small group theory and team processes" is already included as one of the competencies recommended by SIOP, and, therefore,

courses on groups and teams simultaneously cover a competency within the world of I/O while also imparting practical knowledge and skills that will be advantageous in international team settings.

International group work can be incorporated into other courses as well by composing project teams within classes with a focus on creating diverse teams, covering materials on international and global teams within course content, or partnering with international organizations and institutions to provide opportunities for virtual international teams to engage in research, coursework, or other practical activities. If possible, programs can participate in a multiple student exchange that results in international face-to-face teams at either institution.

Suggestion 7: *Build* (*international*) *group work into the content of courses and experiential activities*.

Conclusion

The current chapter was aimed at examining the differences in educational approaches across a few exemplar cultures, and to derive a set of suggestions for the development of international I/O programs based on the integration of these educational approaches. We concluded that there are two main dimensions to consider when discussing the development of international I/O programs: the content covered within the program and the teaching methods used to convey that content. More specifically, international I/O programs should provide students with knowledge and skills regarding the science and practice of international I/O. To provide this information, international I/O programs should use a combination of didactic learning, experiential learning, critical thinking, personal reflection, and group work. We hope this chapter provides useful advice for how to best implement these learning approaches to incorporate international content into I/O programs, and will serve as a starting point for programs simply looking to add a little more international perspective to their existing program or looking to develop into a truly global international I/O program.

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Chapter 5
An Integrated International Learning Model for Internationalizing I/O Psychology Programs

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As organizations expand internationally, their managements' interests in intercultural interactions and global cooperation become more prevalent. These businesses require incumbents to be global-minded and capable of interacting in the international business community. Globalization, "a technologically driven process of change toward increased informational and communicative interconnectedness and functional interdependence among people across societies and nations" (Kim and Bhawuk 2008, p. 301), stimulates business requirements. Universities are also feeling the effects of globalization (Groeppel-Klein et al. 2010). Therefore, many university disciplines, including industrial and organizational psychology (IOP),[1] are expanding their curricula to include greater outreach to international businesses and incorporating learning outcome measures that address global issues.

Members of the international community are often organized into business teams to work on projects. One question that often arises in forming these international teams is: Do team members have the technical task skills that contribute to the project goals? However, another vital, but often not asked, question is: Do the team members have the international and cross-cultural knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes (KSAAs or competencies) to contribute in effective and meaningful ways? Intercultural interactions between highly skilled knowledge-workers, who might come from different cultures and national backgrounds, are a relevant determinant of international business success (Pillania 2008). Furthermore, this coordination must

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[1] Industrial and organizational psychology is also known in some countries as work psychology (e.g., Hungary, Italy, and France) or work, organizational, and personnel psychology (e.g., Spain).

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include awareness and sensitivity to cultural differences. It is not enough to provide business language training. After all, as the authors have observed when applying international experiential team projects (both virtually and in-person), it is often the nontechnical (person-oriented) factors (e.g., negotiating across cultures skills, ability to adjust one's behaviors, and general open-mindedness toward people of different backgrounds) that make or break the quality of an international team project.

Many managers of international projects have noted that team members with requisite technical task skills and knowledge, but not international and cross-cultural KSAAs, negatively impact team project deliverables. Sending delegates abroad, who lack cross-cultural KSAAs, is a gamble and often results in failed meetings. Delegates who have been properly prepared in terms of cross-cultural KSAAs are less likely to make mistakes than those without training. For these reasons, as well as for the purposes of supporting industrial and organizational (I/O) psychologists who train and develop employees, it is essential to teach today's IOP students and future practitioners about global (i.e., relevant across the entire business domain, regardless of cultural differences in values, beliefs, policies, and laws), cross-cultural (i.e., comparative between cultural groups), and international (i.e., transfer of practices to different cultural milieus) matters.

Moreover, due to advances in information computer technology (ICT) more individuals are participating in virtual teams (VTs), not only in high-tech industries, but also in human service organizations, such as health care and academia. VTs are a valuable system for knowledge management and meeting business objectives (Hsu et al. 2007). Given the differences between face-to-face (F2F) interactions and computer-mediated communications (CMC), negotiations, and collaborations, it behooves today's IOP programs to prepare students for tomorrow's job that entails intercultural interactions and global collaborations that might transpire in-person and over ICT.

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a new model for internationalizing IOP programs. The integrated international learning (IIL) model we present focuses on pedagogical designs that would prepare IOP students for the modern workplace, to include, at a minimum, some international linkages (see Fig. 5.1). It considers the role of culture and the extent to which cross-cultural studies are incorporated into educational training programs. Unfortunately, "the role of culture in pedagogy has not been adequately considered" (Hwang et al. 2004, p. 139). We firmly believe that cross-cultural understanding is an essential partner to processing international experience(s) and that both are needed to develop, what we will call, cross-cultural I/O psychologists.

The IIL model presents different ways of viewing internationalization (i.e., the depth of internationalization) and forwards approaches to ensure that students not only learn about culture and its role in IOP, but also experience it. In this chapter, we take into account the role of culture in pedagogical practices and set the foundation for our IIL model by (1) differentiating between education and training, (2) reviewing different pedagogical approaches to developing an international learning opportunity in traditional vs. virtual and international vs. stationary environments, (3) designing instructional programs to fit the different environments, and (4) presenting implications of the IIL model for students, scholars, and practitioners.
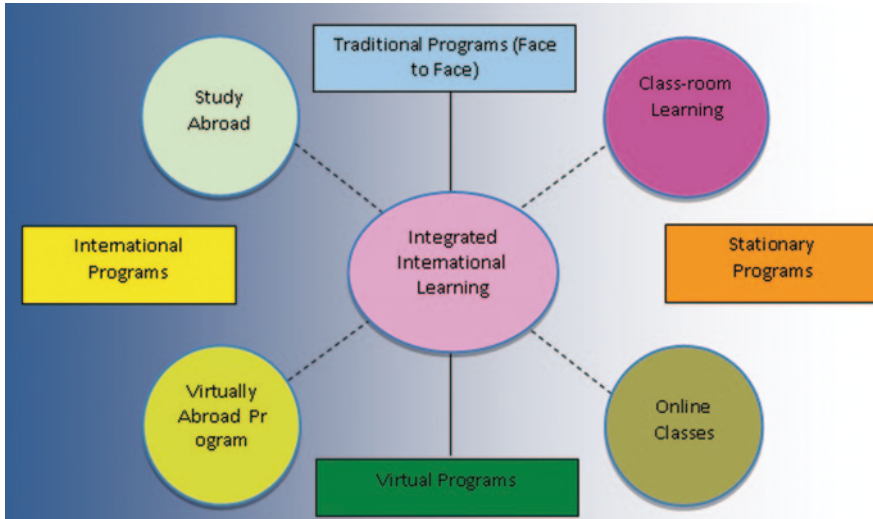
Fig. 5.1. Integrated international learning model. The gradient color, progressing from the *right* (*light blue*) to the *left* (*dark blue*), represents the degree of didactic learning to experiential learning

Significance of an IIL Model for I/O Psychology

Anderson et al. (2006) write that an international education is no longer a luxury for university students but now a necessity. Today's corporate world requires incumbents to have a global worldview (Marcotte et al. 2007). Egan and Bendick (2008) assert that "business [insert IOP] educators cannot simply teach …[college]…students that *cultural differences matter*. They must equip students to understand *how cultural differences work* and, thus, how to turn *cultural competence* into a competitive advantage" (p. 387). Thus, in addition to developing intercultural sensitivity and cultural awareness, Anderson and colleagues explain that an international education needs to enhance students' academic intellect, professional network, and personal development and identity.

Ng et al. (2009) remind us "that learning involves integrating experience with concepts and linking observations to actions" (p. 513). An international education without travel abroad experiences and travel abroad without an international curriculum to guide students' learning are insufficient for full international development (Mak and Buckingham 2007). Still, an experience in another country is not always feasible. In this chapter, we discuss one way to gain international experiences without travel abroad, the virtually abroad program.

Defining Education and Training

IOP programs prepare students with life-long skills, abilities, and attitudes to learn, understand, and apply knowledge and skills to improve human behaviors, interac-

tions, and practices in the workplace. Yet, however proficient the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes, they often reflect the cultural context within which they were developed. In other words, graduate students who have completed their IOP studies in the USA are likely prepared well to engage in IOP-related work within the USA, but they might likely encounter problems applying these competencies in a different country. Some might conjecture that training is a solution, but we assert that both education and training are required.

Training prepares people to provide a predetermined response to a situation (i.e., *how to respond*), whereas education provides tools for critical thinking (i.e., *when and why to respond*) and flexibility (Essenhigh 2000). In any intercultural interaction, flexibility is paramount; people involved in an intercultural interaction must consider different solutions to novel situations that could not be foreshadowed. Course content covered in each of the components of the IIL model would reinforce both a need to *know how* (i.e., skills) and a need to *know why*, so that as situations change, the educated person can adapt and apply different approaches that would be culturally (and not stereotypically) appropriate. The need to *know how* is mostly gained through experiential activities, whereas the need to *know why* is gained through cognitive learning activities (e.g., lectures and readings).

Toward an Integrated International Learning Model

An array of possible pedagogical teaching and learning approaches that advance students' international and cross-cultural KSAAs are presented in the IIL model (see Fig. 5.1). This model can be applied to internationalization efforts that are international or stationary and F2F or virtual. The overall goals of the IIL model are to help IOP graduate programs (masters and doctoral programs) produce international or cross-cultural I/O psychologists who can engage in international work around the globe, and who have the competencies to broadly think about implications of behaviors across various cultural contexts. In other words, two goals for internationalizing IOP programs are: (1) to develop life-long skills for international work by preparing students for long-term application of knowledge and skills in unfamiliar and diverse cultural venues and (2) to develop cross-cultural competence (3C) that transcends educational and professional boundaries and reinforces broadmindedness when thinking about situations in international contexts. Those who fulfill the first goal should know *how* to implement IOP knowledge and skills in different contexts, whereas those who fulfill the second goal are flexible transitioning across cultures, because they know the reasons *why* they are applying IOP knowledge and skills across different contexts. Thus, with sufficient proficiency, the second goal propels one to become more than a psychologist who can work IOP topics in different nations, but to be a cross-cultural I/O psychologist.

Still, at the university level one must ask, '*what does internationalization mean?*' We can begin to answer this question by thinking about layers of internationalization. Faculty of IOP programs wishing to internationalize the program's curriculum need to consider how deep (e.g., from basic acknowledgment of international differences in an IOP topic to delving deep to understand how a topic varies or is invariant

in a different or a focal other culture) and broad (e.g., from a single course reminding students that culture matters to every course and degree requirement having an international and/or cross-cultural component) they want to develop their students' international and cross-cultural understanding and experience. More specifically, IOP programs simply wanting their students to be aware of the implications of IOP topics in different countries would likely integrate a brief module or component to some core content courses or offer a single cross-cultural course (Ryan and Gelfand 2012) in a traditional classroom or virtual (online) environment. Programs wanting students to discover for themselves the challenges of applying IOP approaches in different cultural contexts might weave international, cross-cultural content throughout all courses and engage students in an intercultural experience (whether done locally or internationally). Academic programs that want their students to be able to adapt themselves in any cultural context will employ both experiential (i.e., action-oriented) and didactic (i.e., cognitive-based) learning that shapes knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes. Moreover, the greater the discipline values internationalization, the greater the need for educating students toward a high level of 3C (Harris 2006).

Educating Toward Cross-Cultural Competence

A cross-cultural education means infusing a culture-relative perspective into education programs that go beyond organizational culture. The culture of a society is comprised of shared values, understandings, assumptions, and goals that are learned from earlier generations, imposed by the members of the present day society, and passed on to the succeeding generations (Glazer 2002). For IOP, the cultures would be countries (and sometimes city, town, or county). A country focus is important for IOP programs, because it is the level of analysis in which businesses conduct their affairs; businesses are bound by national economic regulations, politics, and laws. The main purpose for analyzing an IOP topic from a cross-cultural perspective is to understand how similarly or differently people from varying cultures feel, think, and behave on similar matters.

As more people cross national borders for employment and companies hire international applicants, cross-cultural perspectives on IOP (e.g., recruitment practices, motivational aspects, reward structure, and communications) need to be integrated into companies' activities for recruiting, selecting, socializing, and retaining qualified personnel (Schneider 1987; Schneider et al. 1994). Likewise, for an IOP program to internationalize to a level in which graduates are cross-culturally competent, it must (1) bring in the right teaching staff and garner university administrators' support; (2) involve students and faculty from different countries in the education programs (i.e., expose students to instructors from other countries); (3) provide experience(s) in or with people from (an)other country(ies); (4) determine the language of communication and instruction and consider requirements for learning another language; (5) infuse international perspective into core courses; (6) provide stand-alone courses that address international issues; and (7) develop the international IOP curricula to address 3C indicators. In short, to graduate cross-culturally competent I/O psychologists, international IOP programs must pay particular attention to incorporating explicit 3C content throughout the degree program.

Pedagogical Approaches to Internationalize Learning

According to Kalfadellis (2005), cross-cultural education requires a set of educational goals, content and materials, and instructional process. As with many education programs, the goals are to develop learners' behaviors (or skills), affects (or emotions), and cognitions (or knowledge), as well as attitudes (i.e., the combination of affect and cognition). Drawing upon Brislin and Yoshida's (1994) work, we argue that a cross-cultural I/O psychologist will have to (1) develop a foundational understanding (knowledge) about cultural similarities and differences in order to interpret situations in contexts, (2) cope with, appreciate, and embrace cultural differences, and (3) hone skills for complex thinking of different cultural environments.

Developing these cross-cultural competencies can occur by employing methodologies ranging from didactic to experiential. These methodologies can be used in any learning environment, including traditional, virtual (or distant), or blended (or hybrid) environments. In order to infuse international flavor into curricula, programs might also support an international study abroad, exchange, or collaborative project. Below, we describe each of the above methodologies, environments, cross-cultural or international enhancements, and content.

From Didactic to Experiential Learning

According to Dewey (1938) the learning process can be structured into two main approaches. In the "didactic learning" approach, the teacher provides information or the students obtain information from library resources. The other approach, experiential learning, is more progressive and considers the student as an active participant in the learning process. Didactic and experiential learning differ in the processes through which knowledge is disseminated.

The didactic method reinforces cognitive development and focuses on intellectually stimulating learning through lectures, reading, and discourse. Examples of this include listening to a lecture, reading materials to prepare a written assignment, or interacting with others in a "class" setting (in the classroom or over the Internet). Knowledge gain is typically the objective that didactic learning supports (Ferdman and Brody 1996).

In contrast, the experiential method employs action-oriented activities, in which a student participates in an activity, practices some behaviors, or engages in something first hand, as in role-plays, simulations, eating new foods, or living in another country. Through life-changing experiential learning, students gain new knowledge and develop cross-cultural sensitivity, as they prepare to transfer learning into real-life situations (Ferdman and Brody 1996; Kalfadellis 2005). According to Graf's (2004) study of 188 US MBA and 179 German MBA students, culture-general experiential learning is better than culture-general didactic learning. More specifically, Graf recommends an experiential discovery program for learning over a didactic expository teaching program (i.e., direct lectures), as the former advances not only cognition but also skills and affects (i.e., more positive attitudes toward people

from different cultures). However, when it comes to cultural awareness, Gannon and Poon (1997) found that didactic learning does not differ from experiential learning for US MBA students. Thus, as a first-level learning activity, simply educating on cultural awareness is sufficient with a didactic approach (i.e., expository or explanatory course). Getting into deeper cultural nuances and understanding, however, requires intervention courses that include experiential, interactive activities. Figure 5.1 presents different approaches to internationalizing IOP programs, and the gradient color, from right to left, represents a progression from didactic to experiential learning.

In this era of rapid globalization, it is more crucial than before that IOP theories be tested across cultures in order to inform practitioners about what IOP practices would transfer across cultures or be rejected in some cultures. Indeed, internationalization efforts require instructors to recognize that IOP theories are not universal and the same construct might manifest differently in different cultural contexts (Ryan and Gelfand 2012). However, accepting what is true in one society might not manifest in the same way or at all in another is one of the first steps to internationalizing an IOP program and moving closer toward developing cross-culturally competent graduates. Thus, internationalization requires transfer of concepts and theories (i.e., international learning), as well as discovery of culture-specific phenomena (i.e., cross-cultural learning), but 3C requires finding what, how, and why theories and concepts transfer.

Internationalizing IOP course curricula requires, at a minimum, adding information to classroom or online instructional content that demonstrates that IOP theories and themes differ or are similar in different national cultures. To become increasingly international, IOP course content needs to address how and why there are differences across cultures. A stationary cross-cultural course, that is, a course on cross-cultural issues that is locally taught or facilitated, might begin developing 3C by educating students on major cultural values, for example, Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions, followed by investigation of cultural metaphors (e.g., American football or India's Dance of Shiva), and finally cross-cultural paradoxes (Gannon 2012). Gannon explains that cultural metaphors represent activities, phenomena, or institutions with which members of a focal culture emotionally or cognitively identify, but with which others not from the focal culture might have difficulty to understand. After learning cultural metaphors, Gannon recommends taking students on an intellectual journey in which they search for paradoxes of experiences or observations that do not coincide with expectations, but for which both expectations and observations are correct. For example, "Global leaders must operate with a global, cosmopolitan mindset. At the same time, they must be sensitive to local markets and needs" (Holt and Seki 2012, p. 204).

Traditional (F2F) Programs vs. Virtual Programs

The current learning environment can be found wherever the learner is located, at home or abroad, in the classroom, led by an instructor, or in cyberspace, where students receive materials from live or simulated instructors and course reading

materials are downloaded from the Internet, electronic libraries, and databases. Regardless of the environment, the aforementioned learning methods are didactic. Traditionally, the physical classroom was schematically the place where teaching and learning took place. Traditional education programs are often characterized as expository, F2F instructor-led lectures and instructor-facilitated discussions in a classroom setting, as well as assigned reading materials to the student, case studies, and writing assignments, even though experiential exercises are also employed (Blasco 2009).

In contrast to traditional programs, nontraditional education programs, such as distance-learning programs (aka. "distributed learning"), range in level of virtual-*ness*, from purely virtual (or distant) to blended (i.e., virtual and traditional combined). Technological advances help to make information more accessible to students around the world, no matter their geographical location. With the integration of new technologies in higher education, a new type of student and teacher emerged, resulting in different ways of teaching and learning.

Several modes for CMC include:

- *Blogs*—online journals where the author can write (blog) about any topic of interest.
- *Social Networks*—allow users to add friends, send messages and share content.
- *Virtual platforms*—environments in which the user takes on a specific role, represented on screen by an avatar that represents users to interact with one another and use and create objects.
- *Media sharing*—a tool for people to upload photos and/or videos to share either privately with only selected other users or publicly.
- *Cross-cultural workshops online*—a sponsored webcast on methodological issues in cross-cultural research, and can provide the platform for students worldwide to take part in a seminar by renowned faculty, such as the Center for the Advancement of Research Method and Analyses (CARMA).

Virtual programs are delivered through ICT, such as computer chat rooms (or correspondence with instructors and fellow students via chat platforms such as Black-Board), e-mail, audio and video instruction, document sharing through cloud technology, and simulation programs offered online. An assumption of virtual programs or ones that blend traditional learning with virtual learning is that F2F instruction is not (always) critical for student learning and development and that, in some cases, the virtual learning experience might be superior to F2F instruction (Bernard et al. 2004; Chiecher et al. 2009; Hove and Corcoran 2008; Maki et al. 2000; Russell 1999), though it is still not clear if that is the case for both didactic and experiential learning. Students enrolled in virtual programs develop critical communication skills due to requirements to engage in reflective tasks, as well as to sharpen their writing skills, because the written word is often the primary medium of communication in both synchronous and asynchronous interactions. Students of virtual programs invest more time in understanding course content, being precise in their assignments, resolving communication problems, as well as engaging in more focused self-reflection (Rudestam 2004).

The experience of studying in a virtual environment has applied utility too, particularly because much of today's world of work revolves around some kind of computer-mediated interactions. Virtual education prepares students for the modern workforce that is increasingly employing virtual teamwork (Dekker et al. 2008). Moreover, a global virtual education program can reinforce the ever-growing global virtual workforce, which in itself (i.e., global virtual teamwork) is under-researched (Glazer et al. 2012).

In the work domain, global virtual teams (GVTs) provide companies with opportunities to draw upon talent worldwide, save money on travel and relocation, help reduce possible dual-career challenges, and maintain presence in different countries (Dekker et al. 2008; Glazer et al. 2012; Holtbrügge and Schillo 2008). GVTs are sometimes referred to as transnational distributed workgroups or distributed teams. They are comprised of people located in at least two countries, which are often culturally different (Glazer et al. 2012).

Although cultural differences are reported as an added challenge that is compounded with virtual communication (Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn 2002), other studies show that ICT can be used to overcome cultural gaps (Rutkowski et al. 2008). A global virtual education program (which includes at least a course module, but preferably an entire curriculum) would enable university programs to host top instructors, provide students with international experience(s) through interactions with course instructors and/or other students in other nations, and give greater visibility for the university worldwide.

The goals of a global virtual education program would be (1) to provide students with opportunities to be instructed by eminent scholars from around the world, (2) to teach content-relevant materials that require coordinating among students who are located in different parts of the world, and (3) to prepare students for the realities of working in a global workforce. Global virtual education programs mimic real-world practices, but because the work is in an educational setting, students' intercultural mistakes are learning opportunities vs. errors that could otherwise have major implications on the organization's success.

The learning objectives for a global virtual education program, like a traditional international program, could include developing a deeper and broader understanding of the course content from multiple cultural perspectives. Thus, this technology not only allows a culturally unique perspective from one "guest lecturer," but also several "guests" from culturally distant regions can be brought in via distance technology to round out the discussion and delve deeper into the cultural differences in the practice of any IOP intervention. It would also help one become a more effective practitioner of team dynamics in a virtual world. The focus of the program would not be the international component alone or the virtualness of the program, but the confluence of international, cross-cultural, virtual, and IOP in one coherent package without having to travel abroad. Thus, other implicit (or explicit) goals would include expanding students and faculty members' social and professional networks, appreciating the challenges of working in an asynchronous manner through CMC, and developing coping resources for dealing with the challenges associated with intercultural interactions through ICT.

One of the challenges in working in a GVT is coping with differing norms, practices, and standards for work, which if incorrectly interpreted could lead to conflict and strain (Dekker et al. 2008). Another challenge is related to timing. The asynchronous nature of a GVT needs to be taken into consideration when coordinating work efforts. Through experiential global virtual education programs, students gain firsthand knowledge of how they can plan for these challenges and take measures to minimize potential performance problems (Glazer et al. 2012). In essence, they learn to practice what they will eventually preach.

Furthermore, I/O psychologists who are given a chance to engage in a global virtual education program would be better equipped to help companies' GVTs (Glazer et al. 2012), as today's GVTs often struggle to develop effective team practices (Dekker et al. 2008; Holtbrügge and Schillo 2008). IOP students who engage in a global virtual education program also benefit from learning how to work in a GVT by shaping their skills and abilities in consulting to GVTs. The consulting would focus not only on team dynamics, but, more specifically, also on team dynamics in a global virtual environment. Internationalization efforts, therefore, would benefit from requiring a GVT activity.

Another consideration is that GVTs are becoming their own micro cultures (Glazer et al. 2012). In the context of a GVT class project, students would learn about people from different cultures, and learn to cultivate a desired culture for the team. Moreover, while studying cross-cultural differences across varying national contexts is challenging, it is compounded by the virtual nature of members' interactions (Dekker et al. 2008). These are realities of today's global workforce and it behooves IOP programs to prepare students for international experiences, thereby enabling companies to perform their best.

Global virtual programs can have a didactic component whereby students are working to study closely an assigned topic and sharing notes or written reports with others or course instructors, but for the most part, virtual programs are experiential. Students experience firsthand the challenges of working with others (course instructor and/or peers), as well as the challenges of intercultural interactions across time and space.

Didactic and Experiential Cross-Cultural Learning

Courses focusing on cross-cultural development might employ videos to educate, or more involved activities known as cultural assimilators. Cultural assimilators are "a collection of real-life scenarios describing puzzling cross-cultural interactions and explanation for avoiding the emerging misunderstandings" (Bhawuk 2001, p. 142). Often instructors lead students through a systematic analysis of how nations differ on cultural values and how those differences might affect business or organizational behaviors (Egan and Bendick 2008). The problem with such an approach is that it limits students' knowledge to thinking national cultures are static instead of reinforcing deeper evaluations of culture (Casrnir 1999; Egan and Bendick 2008; Gannon 2012; Osland and Bird 2000). As much as we try to understand cultures, we need to always recognize that cultures are highly complex and the more complex a

social system becomes, the more challenging it becomes to make sense of it (Casrnir 1999; Osland and Bird 2000). Therefore, education programs that focus on cross-cultural understanding and international application require flexibility to update course content and materials as needed. The goal is not to discover hard facts but to entertain possibilities to make sense of situations. The IOP student will need to build skills in managing and consulting on the need to entertain multiple explanations to one's implicit mental model. Intercultural education using a didactic approach cannot adequately help learners internalize how unstable cultural systems are until they experience it for themselves (Casrnir 1999).

International vs. Stationary Programs

One of the goals of cross-cultural education programs is not only to didactically teach about others' cultures but, equally or more importantly, to help learners become aware of themselves and how their behaviors and attitudes might affect others (Ferdman 2003). Through self-awareness, one is better able to begin to understand others. Thus, international IOP programs should also include an experiential activity that allows students to develop greater self-awareness on their journey toward learning about other cultures. For example, in a stationary cross-cultural IOP class, students might be required to document discussions regarding a critical incident and decision options with people from different parts of the world. Although there are no right or wrong answers to the critical incident, discussion of response choices can reveal much about oneself, as well as cultural factors that might be influencing individuals' decisions.

Stationary F2F or virtual programs (i.e., in-class or virtual classroom learning) provide students with an opportunity to discuss international and cross-cultural learning materials with a course instructor or facilitator. However, this kind of learning does not provide students with a deep understanding of cultural differences. The student, at best, understands and appreciates differences. For this reason, university programs support intercultural experiences. Nothing provides greater insight about oneself than engaging in a "foreign" national culture. In the next subsections, we discuss traditional and virtual international programs.

Traditional International Learning

Study Abroad International learning has traditionally been achieved through mobility or study abroad and exchange programs. Example programs that facilitate study abroad include the Erasmus program,[2] the Fulbright program,[3] IREX (International Research & Exchanges Board),[4] and Marie Curie Fellowships.[5]

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[2] http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc80_en.htm.

[3] www.iie.org/fulbright/.

[4] www.irex.org/.

[5] http://cordis.europa.eu/improving/fellowships/home.htm.

Note, however, that these opportunities are not specific to IOP. Study abroad and exchange programs are often supported through alliances between universities from different countries, particularly if the mobility is geared toward a specific program of study. It is one way of internationalizing a program. Study abroad and international exchange programs aim to increase mutual understanding between participants from different countries, as well as to develop cross-cultural skills and create more openness to people of different backgrounds (Marcotte et al. 2007).

Marcotte and colleagues (2007) further explain "the experience of living and studying in a different cultural, political, and economic context exposes them to 'best practices' in other countries and better prepares them for their future career" (p. 656). Individuals involved in international exchange programs benefit from contact with other individuals in the host country, reducing prejudices under almost any conditions and forming a more open-minded social identity through their personal contact and experience with the host culture (Pettigrew and Tropp 2006). In this way, study abroad programs enhance students' cross-cultural skills, global understanding, and identification with and commitment to the host group after an exchange experience (Sassenberg and Matschke 2010).

International exchange programs are also expected to impact participants' self-concept (Berry et al. 2006). Indeed, Blasco (2009) found that for students, exposure to international faculty, short-term exchange programs, and work abroad programs helped them gain perspective on their own culture. However, "mere exposure to difference is not enough, rather it is how one perceives and conceptualizes those events that determine developmental cultural competence" (Pedersen 2010, pp. 72–73). It is imperative that students have facilitated reflection exercises. Specifically, curricula need to move from traditional models of intercultural learning that focus only on contact with people from other cultures or developing culture-specific knowledge, to contemporary models of intercultural learning that focus on understanding the complexity of cultures and making sense of the environment and behaviors (Osland and Bird 2000). Facilitated discourse and debriefing during a study abroad experience aid in that effort of sense-making.

International Work-Study Programs Work-study programs, such as the Council on International Educational Exchange[6] and The Leonardo Da Vinci Programme,[7] offer students opportunities to actively engage in work that is consistent with the student's discipline. For example, a business student focusing on marketing might work for 3 months in a marketing department of a company located in a different country. These programs are rarely available specifically for IOP graduate students, although creating such opportunities for graduate students would certainly enable development of 3C, as well as differences in design and implementation of IOP systems, particularly if the activity of the work study is paired with a similar experience in their home country.

Short-Term Intensive Study Abroad Other ways in which universities are able to simulate "work" is through intensive programs in which students from differ-

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[6] http://www.ciee.org/index.htm#work.

[7] http://www.iagora.com/iwork/leonardo-grants/

ent countries work together for a short period of time to accomplish a concrete objective. One such example is the European Commissions' International Intensive Program (IIP). The IIP is a short program of work and study that brings together students and teaching staff from higher education institutions of at least three participating countries. It can last from 10 continuous full days to 6 weeks of subject-related work. The IIP aims at: (1) encouraging efficient and multinational teaching of specialty topics which might otherwise not be taught at all, or only in a very restricted number of higher education institutions; (2) enabling students and teachers to work together in multinational groups and so benefit from special learning and teaching conditions not available in a single institution and to gain new perspectives on the topic being studied; and (3) allowing members of the teaching staff to exchange views on teaching content and new curricula approaches and to test teaching methods in an international classroom environment.

Virtual International Learning

Virtually Abroad Program   The "virtually abroad program" (VAP) is designed to provide students with opportunities to be exposed to individuals from different cultures and to have an international work team experience without traveling abroad. It is a learning-by-doing educational program. In one application of a VAP, student participants were grouped into teams comprised of students from around the world. Together, they developed materials (on topics guided by the course instructor) that were expected to help an international assignee sent to work in a country that is unfamiliar to any of the team's members. For example, one team might prepare materials for an international assignee to learn about organizational commitment in Turkey (whereby none of the student team members have been to Turkey). The main goal of the VAP is to build collaboration skills in a virtual and intercultural context, and to develop intercultural communication competencies. In the case of the aforementioned program, students were exposed to other cultures through interactions with international counterparts, as well as reading materials about a previously unknown national culture. The students applied knowledge about the field of study and cross-cultural competencies, at the same time as they experienced more and gained new knowledge about a subject matter from different cultural perspectives. Note that the VAP can be a stand-alone activity in an IOP program or it can be a part of a broader global virtual program.

Multiple factors support a coordinated and successfully implemented VAP. First, there must be clear goals established at the onset. Students must know not only what they are expected to accomplish as a team (i.e., team's project goal or deliverable) but also what is the goal of the VAP (i.e., firsthand experience of working with people from different countries through virtual platforms in order to learn about people from other cultures), methodology based on an intercultural and virtual context. Second, instructors must closely facilitate the process by providing sufficiently clear instructions, while still permitting ambiguity and, thus, student flexibility in fulfilling the goals established for project completion. This approach ensures a more realistic situation that students might encounter in the workplace.

Third, in order to help foster trust, the students should not delve deep into the project requirements without first getting to know each other. Without having a common background or professional objective, except the project, it is difficult to get to know one's peers. Therefore, instructors must facilitate a 'getting to know you' activity by providing students with complex issues to discuss that are of no consequence to the success of the students' project (except that it helps them get to know each other's backgrounds and cultural influences on decision-making styles).

While the VAP is itself an experiential program, the program itself incorporates both didactic and experiential activities. An effective VAP would include a requirement for independent reading, as well as collaborative discussion among team members. The readings could be on VT interactions (as preparatory information for the experience they are about to embark upon), the IOP topic of interest (e.g., performance appraisal), and contextual factors that influence the IOP topic from different cultural perspectives. The activity component would not only be the team's interactions, but might also include finding and interviewing people from a nation of the team's interest and then sharing results of the interviews.

The structure of the VAP is also important to consider. As mentioned above, at a minimum, students should work on team projects. However, it would be even better if instructors from the different countries could utilize video-conferencing to instruct each other's students on a topic. This would expose students to different teaching styles, as well as new perspectives that are not offered by the home-country instructor. Finally, all instructors involved in a VAP should assess students' performance, not just the students' home-country course instructor. This practice too would simulate real-life experience of a matrix-style organization and oblige students to learn different performance evaluation (i.e., grading) schemes.

To ensure that students are learning and developing in the ways expected, instructors need to provide students with opportunities to write a reflection piece about their VAP. In the paper, they must address the implications on their personal and professional development. Discourse on personal development might include information about differences and similarities they experienced with their teammates, including values, beliefs, and worldviews. Students' thoughts on professional development might include their subjective evaluation of the likelihood of the VAP aiding their attainment of a job, improving communication skills, and overall developing a more global awareness of organizational behaviors.

Because companies are increasingly supporting GVT projects and F2F meetings are less prominent, the opportunity to engage in a VAP has implications beyond just learning course material; it also helps students prepare for the inevitable team-focused orientations found in most organizations. Unfortunately, one of the challenges for GVTs is that it takes more time to achieve peak performance than teams working F2F (Walther 1997; Hollingshead et al. 1993). In this way, a VAP can help students learn the best practices for developing swift trust and working collaboratively as daily practice toward a common goal.

Success in VAP among students is mainly related to VT collaboration. Although collaboration with team members on a VT class project is a difficult part of the distance-learning experience (Ke 2010), the difficulty appeared more with working

on a team than working virtually on a team. Thus, the design of a task is very important to consider. Indeed, these results might be due to poorly executed and facilitated team interactions. For example, Bernard et al. (2004) reported that students of distance-learning programs that centered on the use of problem-based learning strategies had more positive attitudes than classroom-based counterparts. Bernard et al. (2009) later found that students working virtually and collaboratively with each other have more positive attitudes and evaluations regarding online programs than F2F programs. Another positive implication of a VAP is that it allows students with low incomes (e.g., from majority world countries) to experience interactions with people from minority world countries (that are typically in more financially sound nations).

Summarizing the IIL Model

The IIL model combines traditional vs. virtual and international vs. stationary approaches to internationalizing IOP curricula and developing 3C. It stipulates that to be a fully integrated international learning model, students must gain experiences and be able to process those experiences through facilitated dialogue with an expert. In fact, to be effective, the IOP program must incorporate facilitated guidance from the course instructors who can debrief students and dissect the challenges students' experience in order to help shape their future intercultural interactions. As can be seen from the above literature review on different pedagogical approaches to internationalizing IOP programs, study abroad, VAP, in-class learning, and online learning are each beneficial to students. Therefore, designing curricula around the two dimensions would begin to internationalize IOP programs.

The dimensions presented in the IIL model represent structural guideposts for designing international or cross-cultural activities in traditional, F2F, or virtual environments (e.g., chats, tests, and blogs), as well as international or stationary settings, as might be experienced through guided course instruction abroad or collaborative international team activities, respectively. As a structural guide, the IIL model can help academic programs design instructional activities that strengthen students' international or cross-cultural declarative and process knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes toward cross-cultural differences and similarities.

Consequences of the IIL Approach

Holt and Seki (2012) remind us that to help organizations with their international endeavors, it behooves the IOP practitioner to become global-minded too. Through the IIL, practitioners and academic scholars can develop students' KSAAs by (1) joining "multi[national] research teams and integrating reflective practices into the process" (Holt and Seki 2012, p. 212), (2) attending courses and workshops that promote intercultural understanding, (3) putting themselves in uncommon international environments (e.g., volunteering for a nonprofit organization helping immigrant

populations), (4) hosting visiting scholars from abroad or visiting abroad as a scholar, and (5) becoming a globally oriented worker that organizations might expect.

Best Practices: Design, Implementation, and Evaluation of an International I/O Psychology Curriculum

On the basis of our literature review, it is clear that internationalization of an IOP curriculum requires a multidimensional approach to provide flexibility for students and instructors. Internationalization at the conceptual level requires teaching new ways of thinking about models and theories. At a minimum, core courses need to be redesigned to address specific IOP-related topics from a cross-cultural perspective (Ryan and Gelfand 2012). This approach can be expanded upon if instructors integrate content materials stemming from research conducted in other countries. Doing so ensures opportunities that facilitate dialogue about cross-cultural similarities and differences. At a deeper level, instructors might choose to include an international and cross-cultural perspective in all the different topics covered. An assumption of this deeper instruction is that the instructor is well versed on the topic cross-culturally or at least has or brings in someone who has deep cross-cultural research knowledge to facilitate discussion. Still, caution is warranted when internationalizing course content. Sometimes content differences are due to factors for which there are no cultural explanations. Moreover, it is important not to stereotype cultures or to think that culture is static. When internationalizing course content it is important to ask to what extent a theory is universal and to what extent is it culture-specific.

There are multiple activities that instructors might introduce to promote internationalization in the classroom; some activities are oriented toward the student receiving theoretical knowledge and some are active, whereby the student engages with the materials and others to acquire knowledge. Active learning can be done autonomously or collaboratively. Below we list some activities that support internationalization efforts (see Table 5.1).

Implementing Best Practices Implementing internationalized course designs requires a careful balance between adapting to local needs and standards and widening the scope of an international perspective. The importance of international interactions cannot be underestimated. When implementing a course, we recommend providing students with a real experience in an international setting, even if the setting is a VAP. Finally, course instructors must carefully facilitate students' learning and discoveries and navigating them through unfamiliar, but delicate, cross-cultural interactions. Through a hands-on approach of students experiencing international interactions, along with opportunities to debrief and discuss the experiences, students will begin to develop relevant cross-cultural competencies.

Evaluating Success While design and implementation of an internationalized curriculum is one step toward internationalization, it requires ongoing evaluation and modification. One way to ensure the utility of the programs is to evaluate them against a set of well-defined criteria, such as marketability to international or global firms, speed by which students now in industry are promoted, how often the stu-

Table 5.1 Activities that support internationalization

Instructor-centered activities	Encourage faculty to present an IOP topic from different cultural perspectives	Review and understand research papers written by psychologists in other countries. This requires faculty intervention to select quality reading materials and student processing of the materials	Watch international films related to work life. Through analysis of films about work and organizations, students can begin to understand the meaning of work in different cultural contexts
Teacher–practitioner-centered activities	Invite scholars with international and cross-cultural expertise to lecture on the activity of internationalization	Invite industry professionals with field experience to serve as subject-matter experts and recount their experiences or training programs on coping and working in an intercultural context	Invite an expert practitioner or scholar to deliver a workshop on cross-cultural IOP. Such a workshop can complement the curriculum by ensuring that students are exposed to topics for which local scholars are not experts
Student–practitioner activities	Analyze an international organization. Students would speak with or shadow IOP practitioners in a multinational organization to learn about the internationalization efforts of the business and practices that transfer across national borders	Read and interpret comic strips from business magazines in different countries. This activity might require students to work with people who know the influences in semantics, but also work attributes that are of value to people in the workplace	

Table 5.1 (continued)

Student-centered activities	Interview someone from another culture. This requires students to directly engage with someone from another culture in order to learn more about cultural norms, values, practices, and perspectives	Facilitate dialogue that has an international focus by encouraging students to research a specific IOP topic and analyze it from multiple cultural angles	Dissect international professional case studies. In order to develop cross-cultural competencies, students must gain real international experiences	Engage students in simulators, scenarios, and role-plays. These experiential activities (Bennett 1986) help students gain experience resolving specific cultural problems in an organizational context
	Prepare a presentation on organizational behaviors in another country in order to learn more about the culture, the people, and business practices. This activity helps to reduce stereotyping	Develop a project in which students from different countries collaborate. This activity not only requires students to interact with others in different countries, but also reinforces the need to manage project activities across cultures	Engage in an international student exchange. Students having a real international intercultural travel abroad experience gain knowledge and skills that far transcend what can be accomplished in the classroom or virtual environment	Invite international students to local courses so that host nationals can learn from others' experiences and begin to grasp different cultural perspectives, thereby broadening their own

dents are put on international assignments, and subjective reviews from employers. Further, we recommend that a collaborative multinational team of researchers evaluate an internationalized curriculum.

Another important implication of internationalizing IOP curricula is international collaborative research programs. Through cooperative agreements between IOP programs, scholars can delve into the relevance and role of culture in the generalization or cultural specificity of IOP theories. Furthermore, internationalizing IOP curricula requires consideration of what makes for a cross-culturally competent I/O psychologist and to what extent might the programs succeed in fulfilling the 3C criteria. In order to foster more research collaborations to study these and other IOP concepts and theories across cultures, academic institutions need to increase their support for international exchanges of visiting scholars and/or faculty attendance at international conferences. These opportunities for interactions not only help to establish new relationships but also help to maintain existing ones. Interactions with collaborators around the world are essential for any internationalization efforts, and the value of these interactions is evident in modified and enhanced curricula and also professional development for colleagues, administrative staff, and students.

Implications

Industry Cooperation

Actions taken to fulfill the above guidance will also develop employees' knowledge and skills for the workplace. Graduate students educated to understand global and cross-cultural issues related to IOP will be equipped with tools to develop and deliver global, cross-cultural training in industry. The value this adds to organizations will be difficult to calculate in the short term, but over a 5-year span of placing international I/O psychologists in organizations, we anticipate seeing a great return on investment. The fruits reaped through such an investment might also promote further industry-supported programs as are found in business schools. At the least, we hope that by providing future I/O psychologists with an international education that is then passed on to a company's employees, the company will reciprocate by permitting international research activities with their employees. Cooperative agreements with multinational firms can be a key resource for cross-cultural research in IOP by permitting administrators to conduct of large-scale surveys across national borders or even organizational development intervention studies across subsidiaries.

Knowledge Management: Resources for Scholars and Teachers

In order to help programs begin their journey toward internationalizing their IOP programs, we documented some online resources in Appendix 5.1. These resources might help generate creative ways that faculty could internationalize their IOP cur-

ricula. For example, the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology (SIOP) website can be used to locate international scholars with which to forge international collaborations. Collaborations with international faculty will not only aid the development of novel research contributions, but also provide opportunities to invite guest speakers and develop course curricula and activities that support the internationalization efforts. The International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP) website provides free resources pertaining to cross-cultural psychology that help students become more cross-culturally competent.

Another resource in Appendix 5.1 is the Alliance for Organizational Psychology (AOP). As the AOP is in its infancy, we would like to strongly encourage it to see itself as a clearinghouse and resource for knowledge sharing. To this end, we urge the AOP to develop an online repository of IOP-related materials. This repository would maintain not only programmatic curricula from different universities worldwide but also course-specific syllabi, teaching materials, course designs, a forum to solicit or offer advice, and a place for industry and academe to find each other (see e.g., the Cultural Knowledge Consortium website and the Cross-Cultural Competence portal listed in Appendix 5.1). Further, we encourage international and cross-cultural IOP-related journals to advertise these knowledge management systems, associations affiliated with and supporting internationalization efforts, research teams seeking collaborations, and institutions interested in the internationalization of IOP.

Conclusion

In today's global business environment, products and communications are flowing more quickly than ever before. It is conceivable that a product idea is developed 1 day in Philadelphia, and within 2 days developers in India write product software codes to support the idea, and within 1 week there is production of the product in China, which then gets distributed worldwide. This pace of knowledge movement cannot be so fast if people have to fly around the world to meet with business partners. Instead, GVTs facilitate the communication requirements. Thus, GVTs are becoming a new environment in which I/O psychologists are finding themselves increasingly active. Academic programs must keep up with the changing landscape of the global workforce.

This chapter provided some guidance on how to foster internationalization with the help of the IIL model that combines different pedagogical approaches to learning. The model presents different pedagogical approaches, including traditional and virtual instructor-facilitated, stationary programs compared to traditional (e.g., study abroad) and virtual (e.g., VAP) international programs. The resulting pedagogical designs incorporate international and cross-cultural coursework that help to develop students' intercultural and technical competencies to work with F2F and virtual multinational teams. Although this chapter focused on IOP, the IIL model could be applied with any discipline wishing to internationalize.

Appendix 5.1 Resources for internationalizing I/O psychology programs

Organization/ Institution	URL	Synopsis
AOP—Alliance for Organizational Psychology	http://www.allianceorg-psych.org/	Integration of SIOP, EAWOP, and Division 1 of IAAP (Organizational Psychology Division) "to support and advance the science and practice of organizational psychology in the global world, and to expand its scope of application and contribution to society to improve the quality of working life."
Cross-Cultural Competence (3C) Portal	www.defenseculture.org	"To provide tools and resources that promote discovery and learning to produce more effective leaders and operators…;" and to "cultivate cross-cultural competence through e-learning, video vignettes, avatar and virtual training, science and literature, podcasts, assessments, knowledge sharing, research development and publications, and collaboration across the spectrum of 3C."
Cultural Knowledge Consortium	https://www.cultur-alknowledge.org/	"A Socio-cultural Knowledge Infrastructure (SKI) to facilitate access among multi-disciplinary, worldwide, social science knowledge holders that fosters collaborative engagement in support of socio-cultural analysis requirements. The CKC supports US government and military decision-makers, while supporting collaboration and knowledge sharing throughout the socio-cultural community."
Division 52 of the American Psychological Association—International Psychology	http://www.internation-alpsychology.net/	"To develop a psychological science and practice that is contextually informed, culturally inclusive, serves the public interest and promotes global perspectives within and outside of APA. The Division of International Psychology represents the interest of all psychologists who foster international connections among psychologists, engage in multicultural research or practice, apply psychological principles to the development of public policy or are otherwise concerned with individual and group consequences of global events."
EAWOP	http://www.eawop.org/	"Facilitates research and practice in the field of Work and Organizational Psychology through its biannual conference, journals, summer schools, small group meetings, and workshops."

European Erasmus Mundus Master on WOP-P	http://www.uv.es/erasmuswop/	"A graduate university programme, supported by the European Commission through the Erasmus Mundus Programme which provides a Postgraduate Diploma."
European Network of Work and Organizational Psychologists	http://www.eawop.org/enop/	"The creation of ENOP [inn 1980] grew out of an acute awareness that the progress of European integration began to pose challenges both for scientific inquiry as well as professional practice, which called for renewed efforts in information exchange and concerted European action also by academics in the field of W/O psychology."
IAAP—Division 1 Organizational Psychology	http://www.iaapsy.org/division1/	"An excellent international platform to exchange and create bridging and bonding relations within scientists, academics and practitioners all around the world."
IAC of SIOP—International Affairs Committee	http://www.siop.org/reportsandminutes/Goals/12_13/IAC.aspx	A fairly new initiative to bring together I/O psychologists from around the world, encourage internationalization efforts, and propagate the importance of international and cross-cultural IOP matters
IACCP—International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology	http://www.iaccp.org/	Over 900 members from more than 70 countries. The goal is to facilitate communication among persons interested in a diverse range of issues involving the intersection of culture and psychology. Biyearly (on even years) congress and biyearly (on odd years) regional conferences
IAIR—International Academy for Intercultural Research	http://www.intercultural-academy.net/	Established in 1997, IAIR is "A professional interdisciplinary organization dedicated to the understanding and improvement of intercultural relations through world-class social science research."
ICCM at FIT—Institute for Cross Cultural Management at Florida Institute of Technology	http://research.fit.edu/iccm/	"To develop leaders and organizations to succeed in the global environment. ICCM was founded to serve as a resource for international organizations facing the challenges of operating across time zones and cultures."
ISSWOV—International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values	http://www.isswov.org/	Founded in 1988 in Budapest, "ISSWOV aims to advance the study of work and organizational values and related aspects of the organization; to encourage the exchange of ideas and interaction among scholars engaged in these topics; to collect, generate, preserve, decipher, and disseminate data and information relating to work and organizational values, and to encourage and initiate publications concerning research on these themes."

Online Readings in Psychology and Culture	http://scholarworks. gvsu.edu/orpc/	"Designed to serve as a [free] resource for researchers, teachers, students, and anyone who is interested in the interrelationships between Psychology and Culture."
SCCR—Society for Cross-Cultural Research	http://www.sccr.org/	Established in 1971, SCCR is "a multi-disciplinary organization. Its members all share a common devotion to the conduct of cross-cultural research. SCCR members are professionals and students from the social science fields of Psychology, Anthropology, Sociology, and related fields including Education, Family Studies, Social Work, Human Development, Psychiatry, Communications, Ethnic Studies, Business, etc."
SIOP International Directory	http://siop.org/ internationaldirectory/	"The International Directory is provided by SIOP to help you find and communicate with organizations and people around the world"

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Chapter 6
Teaching and Learning Work, Organization, and Personnel Psychology Internationally. The Erasmus Mundus Program

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The Erasmus Mundus Program and the WOP-P Master in a Changing World

When we designed the Erasmus Mundus (EM) Master[1] WOP-P in 2005, the world was experiencing deep changes. Globalization was a growing phenomenon supported and mutually reinforced by the development of information and communication technology. It was a challenge for individuals, organizations, institutions, and governments, because globalization changed well-established rules, traditions, and distributions of power. In the specific case of higher education systems, local and closed systems were forced to initiate a process of internationalization and openness. The tendency towards internationalization continues today in universities, although the amount of effort is not globally consistent.

Globalization and technological changes have had a critical role in internationalization. Constraints associated with time and spaces are removed and communication can be synchronous, even when actors are geographically dispersed. This cyber communication has produced new opportunities for business, facilitating the creation of cross-national networks where projects, money, production, and the trade of goods and services circulate with flexibility and efficiency beyond the control of national governments (Castells 2000). Of course, this globalization is not restricted to business opportunities. Ideas, innovations, knowledge, and values about education, political participation, democracy, health–social services, etc., also circulate through networks around the world. According to the "Human Development Report 2010" (United Nations 2010), access to the Internet in developing countries rose about 4,000 % from 2000–2010[2]. Although inequalities between highly developed and developing countries persist in terms of gross national income per capita, the

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[1] The term Master, as it is used in this chapter, refers to Master's degree program in the USA.

[2] See: http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr2010/.

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distance in terms of health and education has been reduced significantly in the last 40 years (United Nations 2010), coinciding with the birth and development of the information and communication technology. Never before have such a large number of people around the world had access to education and information, developing the knowledge economy in a large number of countries.

Western societies maintain to a large extent their capacity to influence in the world; however, the process of modernization—with different local translations—has been extended to other regions. Contrary to the ethnocentric conceptualization of modernization, often identified with Westernization, the higher rates of economic growth during the past few decades were not in Western societies (Inglehart and Welzel 2010). In addition, the new knowledge economy in developing countries requires highly educated citizens and workers who demand democratic participation and are open to the ideas and values of highly developed countries (Welzel and Inglehart 2008).

This new world created challenges and opportunities for European education policies. Europe can be seen not only as a geographical area with reduced barriers to the mobility of students, researchers, and professionals but also as a precursor of a shared model of higher education, which can be attractive for students, scholars, organizations, and institutions around the world on the basis of mutual dialogue.

One of the main objectives of the Lisbon Strategy[3] was to enhance competitiveness of Europe in a new globalized economy. This Lisbon Strategy, however, has been subjected to a rethinking process with a formal evaluation and efforts towards the elaboration of the "EU 20 Strategy," a new strategy in Europe for the current decade[4]. It is assumed that ending the economic crisis in Europe[5] will require a reinforced effort in which prosperity will come from human and social capital, innovation, entrepreneurship, and knowledge, in a context characterized by cooperation and integration among European countries, mobility, and dialogue with other cultures. This mission is only possible with a higher education policy in consonance with the globalized knowledge economy. The Bologna initiative[6] started a process of integration where the different European governments committed to develop a shared view about how to organize the higher education system in Europe. The EM program was created in this context. To be a candidate for this program, a consortium of universities from at least three different countries, each characterized by excellence in training and internationalization, must deliver the Master's program. The EM program also attempts to attract the best students and prestigious scholars from countries outside Europe and to increase cooperation between European and non-European universities. In fact, non-European universities can be partners of the consortia.

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[3] The Lisbon Strategy described an effort of European countries to deliver stronger, lasting growth and create more and better jobs, thus making Europe a more attractive place to invest and work and improving knowledge and innovation for growth in Europe.

[4] See http://ec.europa.eu/eu2020.

[5] The European economy is in the midst of the deepest recession since the 1930s, experiencing the sharpest contraction in the history of the European Union.

[6] http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/.

Since 2006, the WOP-P Master was awarded the label of excellence by the EM program. From its inception, the WOP-P Master aimed for internationalization and dialogue among cultures. Of course, the participation of European students is also promoted. About 50 % of students who participated in the Master's came from different European countries (e.g., France, Greece, Germany, Spain, Italy, Poland, Luxembourg, Russia, etc.), while the other 50 % come from regions outside Europe: America (Colombia, Mexico, USA, Brazil, Canada, etc.); Asia (Sri Lanka, Armenia, India, Singapore); Africa (Togo, Mauritania, Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria, Ethiopia, etc.); and Pacific Islands. Similarly, the teaching staff participating in the WOP-P Master comes from European (France, Italy, UK, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Germany, etc.) and non-European countries (South America, USA, Canada, Australia, China, etc.). In fact, the consortium of the WOP-P Master is composed of the Universities of Valencia and Barcelona (Spain), the University of Bologna (Italy), the University of Coimbra (Portugal), the University of Paris-Descartes (France), the University of Brasilia (Brazil), and the University of Guelph (Canada).

The internationalization of the WOP-P Master, therefore, has two major foci of attention in order to produce social capital (i.e., increasing the number and quality of relations between actors around the world). On the one hand, efforts are oriented towards European actors. WOP-P improves integration and cooperation in the education among European universities, scholars, and students. The existence of a joint program facilitates mobility across European countries, recognition between universities, and international professional practice of alumni. On the other hand, interaction with students, universities, and companies from non-European countries is also formally established in the WOP-P Master. In sum, international cross-fertilization exists within Europe and between Europe and other non-European countries.

The WOP-P Master was designed to facilitate the development of international careers in both research and professional activities. About 15–20 % of students (European and non-European) enroll in Doctoral programs, after finishing the Master program. In addition, a large number of alumni work in companies and organizations with an international character. They are well-educated young professionals with the competencies to deal with cultural diversity and to avoid narrow models and frameworks associated with localisms. This contribution is relevant, given the economic and sociopolitical changes we have discussed before. Non-Western countries present high levels of economic growth and/or have more and more highly educated citizens who are favorable towards modernization and democratic values. At the same time, Europe's knowledge economy necessitates the development of individuals' competencies in order to cope with the current financial crisis and to avoid the loss of a generation of young Europeans in several countries. The existence of excellent postgraduate programs characterized by internationalization and mutual dialogue within Europe and between Europe and other countries facilitates social and economic development in increasingly globalized and interconnected societies.

But, what type of internationalization should be considered in postgraduate courses? Different models produce differential patterns of interaction between cultures and countries. In the next section, we describe the most relevant interaction types and their implications. The contextualist thesis is also analyzed, because it

connects to the internationalization models that focus more on the dialogue between cultures and the consideration of countries and contexts specificities.

Internationalization Models in Postgraduate Programs: The Contextualist Thesis and Centripetal–Centrifugal Forces

Models of internationalization have differential implications for the role of institutions, students, and teaching staff in study programs. The mobility schemes also differ according to the model of internationalization. In Table 6.1, we present a summary of the main characteristics of internationalization models for postgraduate programs.

Models A (i.e., "franchising") and B (i.e., "melting pot") have a limited level of internationalization and a clear asymmetry in the relation between countries and institutions involved. In the franchising model, the franchiser—one institution in a specific country—sells, or entitles to deliver, its program to franchises—institutions in other countries. The reputation and/or the expertise of the franchiser are attractive for students in other countries. The franchise institution organizes the program according to the criteria established by the franchiser. Managers and teaching staff of the franchiser can travel to the franchise institution in order to prepare and implement the program. The sale could include the training of local managerial and teaching staff pertaining to the franchise institution.

In Model B of internationalization (i.e., "melting pot"), one institution in a country is able to attract students coming from other institutions in different countries, gaining enrollment from a variety of countries. The reputation and/or expertise of the host institution are well recognized and/or the country is attractive in itself for other reasons (e.g., linguistic training and job opportunities). Although the group of students can represent a high level of cultural diversity, the program follows criteria established by the institution according to the local ways and culture.

For both Models A and B, the internationalization is low, because, although participants come from different countries, they contact only one different institution and culture. In addition, the asymmetry between predominant institutions/countries—owners of the course—and the rest of the institutions/countries represented in the postgraduate programs is high. Values underlying the program are those existing in the leading institution. Similarly, the leading institution also defines the basis of the discipline and the practices associated with research and professional activities. In other words, students coming from countries other than the one organizing the postgraduate program are educated into the values and practices of the leading institution and its context.

According to the Model C of internationalization (i.e., "mobility based"), students undertake the postgraduate program in different institutions and countries. Although a shared model of values and practices may exist, students contact different countries and cultural realities during the development of their studies. Thus, Model C of internationalization is achieved, among other factors, by contrasting

Table 6.1 Models for Internationalization

Models for inter-nationalization in master programs	Role of institutions	Mobility	Role of students	Role of teachers
A. Franchising	The franchiser of the program has the pre-dominant role	Managers and teachers (optional) travel to the franchised institution to organize the program and teach (optional)	Students develop competencies according to the education criteria of the franchiser	Teachers facilitate the develop-ment of well-established competen-cies of the franchiser
B. Melting pot	The institution which is the owner of the program has the predomi-nant role	Students travel to the institution which is the owner of the program	Students develop competencies according to the education criteria of the owner of the program.	Teachers facilitate the develop-ment of well-established competencies of the owner of the program
C. Mobility based	Although a coordinating institution usually exists, the capacity to influence in the Master program is distributed among institu-tions involved	Students develop the Master program in dif-ferent countries and institutions	Students contact different educational and societal realities	Teachers follow a shared model of development of competen-cies (based on agreement), but diversity of institutions is respected
D. International scenarios	International organizations and scenarios have the pre-dominant role	The stay in an international scenario is critical for the training of students	Students develop competencies associated with specific international scenarios (e.g., an international NGO)	Teachers develop competen-cies needed in particular international scenarios
E. Integration	This model combines any of the previ-ous types of models (e.g., mobility + international scenarios). The responsibility is distributed among actors, usually with the coordina-tion of one institution	Integration usu-ally forces to organize mobility in dif-ferent ways	Students develop international competencies in different ways	Teachers should be able to develop complementary competencies by consider-ing different strategies of international-ization

cultures. Students travel across countries and learn how to deal with cultural variability and different approaches and emphasis on the discipline and professional practice. Moreover, they may observe how consensus and agreement in the conceptualization of the program and the discipline between the universities involved can be combined with respect to differences and traditions in each country.

Internationalization is also high in Model D (i.e., "international scenarios"). The critical element in this case is the design of training around a specific international scenario (e.g., multinational companies and international nongovernmental organizations, NGOs). The students have to deal with the cultural diversity in a real context. For example, a multinational company supports the organization of a postgraduate program in order to train well-educated professionals and managers who are prepared to combine the criteria of the company and the local realities in each country. Criteria and values of the international organizations involved are critical in the development of the training process. Thus, the design of the curriculum is based on the specific needs of the international organization. This model may also have some drawbacks if the culture and specific practices of the organizations are too heavily emphasized.

Model E (i.e., "integration") refers to efforts aiming to integrate some of the previous internationalization models. It tends to accentuate the international character of the training as different strategies are simultaneously used. The combination of any of the three first models (A, B, or C) with the development of part of the course in an international scenario (Type D) presents an especially promising option.

In the case of the WOP-P Master, we used an integration model, combining the Model C mobility with a growing implication of students in internationally oriented professional internships (Model D). Thus, the program requires students visit different universities and countries. In addition, international professional internships are facilitated in Europe and overseas. This design is especially oriented to educate students to apply WOP-P in international contexts and to consider cultural diversity in specific contexts.

Unlike the models of franchising (A) and melting point (B), the mobility-based model of internationalization (C)—in combination with international scenarios—brought us to define WOP-P from a contextual approach, avoiding mono-paradigmatic views of the discipline (i.e., considering only one paradigm or basic approach of the scientific discipline). Franchising and melting pot models usually offer only one paradigm and view of the WOP-P to the students from other countries. However, when psychology (and its subfields) is considered from an international perspective and dialogue between cultures and countries is to be promoted, mono-paradigmatic approaches to train students are limited. As Wilpert (2000) emphasized in his Presidential Address of the International Association of Applied Psychology, there is a need to open the Western mainstream approach to psychology to other views of the discipline and contextual realities. As he pointed it out:

> In recent years we see a growing body of literature in non-Western countries, often motivated in critical reaction to the inadequacy of Western psychological concepts and methods, which emulates indigenization: it attempts to formulate an adequate psychological response to and a reflection of specific ecological, socio-cultural, and historical contexts. (Wilpert 2000, p. 15)

The process of modernization and democratic aspirations around the world are precursors of rationality and quality of life, and psychology—among other sciences—plays a prominent role in the new situation. However, the predominant models of Western psychology hardly take into account the uniqueness of non-Western countries. Although it is useful, mainstream psychology should be reformulated to better integrate the new cultures and countries in their implications for psychology. Models developed in other countries are able to enrich the Western dominant paradigm. This complex new situation of psychology is especially visible in the field of WOP-P. As never before, organizational psychologists have to deal with cultural diversity, taking into account the combination of global policies of organizations and local peculiarities of regions and countries with the growing mobility of workers, ideas, and innovation across countries. If organizational psychologists approach the reality with only a paradigmatic model, their success could be questionable.

This globalized world is a challenge for the identity of psychology, accentuating the persistent and traditional tension between centrifugal and centripetal forces (Vezzetti 1998). The existence of only one paradigmatic view of the discipline has positive points. One of the most critical advantages of the mainstream (centripetal) is the achievement of a coherent and clear discipline, which can more efficiently interact with the society. The mainstream also reinforces psychology as a discipline able to offer solid and universal laws about the understanding of human behavior. This is translated to the professional activity of work and organizational (W&O) psychologists, with clear and shared criteria for practitioners. However, the proposal of only one paradigmatic model is more an ideal than a reality. Specific contexts—including cultural values, structural aspects, history, etc.—require specific answers in which new models of applied research and practice can be developed and implemented (Peiró In-press). To this end, ethnocentric attitudes of Westernization should be avoided. In addition, other alternatives to the universalism, in the understanding of the nature of human behavior, fit better with reality. The contextualist theory of knowledge (McGuire 1983) proposes that the goal of science is not the formulation and study of universal laws, but the investigation of contextual conditions under which hypotheses are confirmed and phenomena are observed. It could be assumed that this contextualist approach to knowledge corresponds to those subfields of psychology that are more connected to social sciences (e.g., see Campbell 1990 for a defense of the contextualist thesis in organizational psychology), while other subfields cultivate the natural science paradigm and pursue universal laws. However, the contextualist approach is pervasive and tends to be applied even in the different areas of psychology. For example, Nsamenang (2006) investigated the specificity of the development of human intelligence in Africa, considering the contextualist approach as framework.

In spite of the importance of contextual factors, psychologists around the world seem to be motivated to create a shared identity. This drive creates a paradoxical situation, because differentiation and unity are simultaneously required. A number of indicators illustrate the centripetal tendency towards a global identity in psychology: the growing scientific worldwide communication; the creation and development of international association and alliances; the growing mobility of practitioners, researchers, and students; the virtual cooperation of psychologists geographically dis-

persed; and the reinforcing of international labor markets. Thus, unity is a desirable state for psychologists in a globalized economy and society but, at the same time, the differences must be recognized.

In the design of the WOP-P Master, we have opted for a "glo-cal" (global and local) strategy in order to conciliate unity (centripetal) and diversity (centrifugal). From the beginning, partners involved in the Master have considered some European efforts as the starting point for an agreement (unity) among partners in the design of the WOP-P Master. The European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP) supported a competence survey among WOP psychologists to explore new trends and innovative practices, in order to develop the Advanced European Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology[7]. The EM WOP-P Master has been designed to fulfill the education requirements of this certificate.

In addition, we organize Annual Workshops of the Master where the teaching staff of the different partner institutions coordinate and exchange ideas. In those workshops, the teaching staff reflects and decides on the contents and training strategies. This contributes to the "harmonization" within the same subject taught in different universities by mutual "enlightenment." Requirements of the European Certificate of Psychology (Europsy) and the European Network of Organizational and Work Psychologists (ENOP) reference model for the education of W&O psychologists in Europe are satisfied. However, compulsory uniformity in the core contents is combined with topics and views reflecting the tradition and trajectory of each university (diversity). Thus, during mobility periods, students gain knowledge of specific values and traditions in each country associated with the conceptualization and practices of the discipline. The diversity is also reinforced by the participation of teachers and students from non-European countries and the non-European partner institutions. Cross-fertilization is reinforced under a shared scheme of training based on the mutual agreement among partners.

Educational Principles Considered in the Design of the EM WOP-P Master

As we indicated in the previous section, we have followed the requirements of the Advanced European Certificate in WOP Psychology and the ENOP reference model for the training of W&O psychologists in Europe. In addition, we have a model of internationalization, based on the integration of mobility and international scenarios, which try to increase the cross-fertilization among actors and institutions participating in the Master. In the following sections, we describe more specific educational principles we used to design the WOP-P Master.

Research and practice-oriented Master The Master aims to promote students' career development and their opportunities in professional and research settings. To this end, both professional internships and research training were designed in a

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[7] See: www.eawop.org/docs/EuroPsy and Advanced Certificate.pdf.

way that develops competencies in international contexts. More and more students develop professional internships in international companies (e.g., automotive sector, international consultancy companies). Two tutors monitor the performance of students during the internship. One of tutor is from a partner university, the other a psychologist in the company. Before starting the internship, involved parties reach an agreement about the competencies to be developed and activities to be performed. The tutor in the company and the student deliver reports in order to evaluate the development of competencies during the professional internship.

Research training is also organized to promote international careers. Each student has two research tutors from two different countries of the consortium and carries on research in two institutions of the consortium. A well-defined training process launches the beginning of the Master. This strategy facilitates interaction between research teams in different institutions, the hybridization of research lines, and the co-arrangements through which students receive training and feedback from at least two research departments in different countries. A relevant part of the training in research is carried out during the mobility period. The process of research training consists of three phases: the position paper, the research work, and the Master thesis. The position paper describes the student's research project. The research work requires the preparation and oral presentation of a research paper. Students produce these two documents during the first year of the Master and send them to their tutors. Other researchers who provide feedback to improve the manuscripts and oral presentations examine them. Finally, students during the second year of the Master have to revise their research and come up with a second version to serve as their Master's thesis. Additionally, the student has to deliver a letter to the chair of their new evaluation committee describing how the feedback received during the first year of the Master contributed to the improvement of the final version of the Master's thesis. Their jury then evaluates their Master's thesis, the letter describing the incorporation of feedback, and the oral presentation.

The scientist–practitioner model The WOP-P Master is based on the scientist–practitioner model. It assumes that competent professionals in WOP-P, in spite of their preferences for academic or practitioner profiles, need to be trained in research and in the rationale of the evidence-based practice. Emphasis on scientific rationale is present in the different courses of the Master. In addition, we follow the conceptualization of WOP-P as both an explanatory and intervention science, in consonance with the differentiation between "natural" and "artificial" or "design" sciences (Simon 1973).

Explanatory science refers to the knowledge of theory and up-to-date, comprehensive empirical evidence aiming to explain human behavior in its context. It also refers to diagnostic skills in WOP-P areas. Explanatory knowledge and skills prepare the student to describe, assess, diagnose, explain, and interpret the main psychosocial processes in the areas of WOP-P. Intervention science refers to the promotion of effective and positive change, based on scientific knowledge and professional expertise. It focuses on design theory and intervention skills in WOP-P. Intervention theory and skills prepare the student to plan, design, implement, monitor,

and evaluate changes and interventions in order to improve behaviors, situations, and psychosocial processes in WOP-P. Additionally, specific courses on methodology reinforce the evidence-based rationale in the different areas of WOP-P.

Becoming aware of WOP-P reality in different countries and cultures When designing an international Master, an input to be considered is the mode of interaction with other cultures. This facet of the Master is connected to the models of internationalization (see Sect. 2). However, clarifying the style of interaction among students and students and teaching staff represents an additional effort beyond the one aiming to understand general models. We differentiate seven potential styles or attitudes towards the other cultures:

a. *Cautious and frightened foreigner*. People approaching a new culture with this perspective perceive it as risky and dangerous, and they try to protect themselves by maintaining distance from the native members and their ways of living.
b. *Journalist*. People approaching a culture with a journalist approach focus on reporting relevant characteristics of other cultures, especially those features of interest to the society where he or she will publish the news and reports.
c. *Tourist*. People approaching a culture with a tourist attitude are interested in knowing the culture as an observer during a transitory period. The tourist does not get involved in the daily life of the insiders of the culture and is mainly interested in knowing the salient aspects of that culture, often when compared with the original culture he or she comes from.
d. *Safari*. People with this attitude are interested in capturing "valuable" specimens of the culture and getting them back to their "home" context to study them there.
e. *Colonizer*. People with this approach orient their behaviors and efforts to increasing the similarity of "native" patterns with those from their own culture.
f. *Dialogic*. This approach is based on respect and recognition of the other culture and the conviction that a genuine dialogue between cultures may enrich mutually those participants involved. It represents an effort to be respectful and open to a genuine interaction. The interaction may influence one's own and others' views through the effort to understand the others' values and rationale while being aware of the ones from the own culture.

Although the WOP-P Master starts with a European reference of education, we strive to promote mainly the dialogic attitude and approach in the interaction with other cultures. Activities are designed in a way that promotes the mutual understanding and openness to the other cultures based on mutual respect and recognition. Cultural variation is accepted and encouraged and valuing both emic and etic aspects in an integrated view of the culture is emphasized. Students in their feedback and evaluation often note this approach. For instance, a non-European student from another Master, who participated on the basis of an exchange program in the Intensive Joint Learning Unit of the WOP-P Master, described the experience as follows:

I enjoyed getting to know other peers with similar interests from different parts of the world. Working in groups with these peers was a challenge, which in itself was a learning experience. In my country, we have people who come from a variety of different cultures, but, in general, there are certain cultural standards that everyone has to adapt to. In the Joint Intensive Learning Unit so many students from very unique cultural backgrounds gathered together to participate in a very academically intensive Program forcing us to learn about our differences and similarities in a very short period of time.

Focus on learning The traditional rationale describing the interaction between students and the teaching staff focuses on teaching rather than learning. Teachers have the knowledge and the power, and they are responsible for the teaching process in the classroom. In this traditional model, the student is rather considered as a "user" or "client" to whom the education service is delivered. In order to improve education, one of the aims of the Bologna process in Europe is to reverse this emphasis. In the education process, the focal process should not be teaching but learning, and the main actor is not the professor but the student. The WOP-P Master has been designed and is implemented according to this emphasis on *learning*. Training activities, both individual and group ones, are designed to stimulate the active role of students. We conceive of the students rather as partners than as clients in the task of promoting their preparation and qualification as competent practitioners and researchers in WOP-P. This philosophy, of course, is in itself a cultural change within our own institutions. It is learning process for both teaching staff and students. Moreover, the multicultural composition of the students enrolled makes it more compelling and challenging because students from distinct cultures experience it differently. For instance, students coming from cultures with high power distance, where the professor is the ultimate source of information, are in the beginning somewhat shocked. However, dialogue with other students and teaching staff helps them to find productive adaptation. In some cases, we have observed overacting behavior from some of those students during a period of time.

The Erasmus Mundus Program: Requirements and specifications for the design of the WOP-P

The WOP-P Master has been developed under the framework of the European EM program. This program has objectives, requirements, and specifications influencing the design of the Masters that apply for the label and grant. The framework of this program is the so-called Bologna process. European Ministers of Education stated, in their joint declaration issued at the University of Bologna during the celebration of its ninth centennial (Bologna, 19 June, 1999), that the creation and attractiveness of the European Higher Education Space should be promoted. The EM program aims to achieve this goal. Masters and Doctorates which receive the brand and support of the EM program have to fulfill a number of requirements and specifications that we summarize below. [8]

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[8] For more details, see: http://ec.europa.eu/education/external-relation-Programmes/mundus_en.htm.

EM programs should contribute to: (a) *the cooperation and integration of Higher Education Institutions in Europe*, (b) *the cooperation and dialogue with Higher Education Institutions from outside Europe*, and (c) *the accessibility and attractiveness of the European Higher Education Space around the world*.

In sum, a decade ago the EM program was launched in order to select the best existing Masters in Europe and to improve their ability to achieve a European Higher Education Space/System in consonance with the challenges of globalization. The EM program represents a strategic answer that induces postgraduate programs to fulfill the aforementioned requirements by providing funding and recognition. However, there is room for flexibility and the implementation of different options. In the next section, we describe the specific architecture of the WOP-P Master.

The Architecture of the WOP-P Master

There are a number of elements defining the specific architecture of the WOP-P Master. They describe the incorporation requirements and specifications from the EM program and from the discipline. We summarize here the main elements.

The Consortium The Master program, with a duration of 2 years and 120 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) credits of student workload, is implemented in parallel in five different degree-awarding European higher education institutions. In addition, two non-European partner institutions are members of the consortium.

Knowledge, skills, attitudes, and competencies The focus of the WOP-P Master is on the development of student competencies. Competencies refer to a molar concept including psychological aspects such as knowledge (about theories, concepts, tools, intervention models, etc.), skills, and attitudes (e.g., positive disposition towards the action). Thus, the education is not restricted to the acquisition of knowledge or to the practice and mastering of relevant skills; it also includes motivation to perform adequately (Peiró and Gracia 2001) and aims for the development of research and professional competencies (Lunt and Peiró In-press).

The learning outcomes of the WOP-P Master are conceptualized as competencies required for successful research and professional activity in this field, with emphasis on the European perspective in dialogue with other approaches. With this in mind, the WOP-P Master follows the requirements for the Europsy. During the last decade, a committee of 15 professionals and academics[9], representing different European universities and associations, developed a system of standards for the education and training of psychologists in Europe (Europsy). The EFPA supported this development and launched the Europsy certificate after a pilot period of 3 years in six countries, among them Spain and Italy. The Europsy requires two types of competencies (primary and enabling) that psychologists should display in order to develop an ethic and scientific professional activity. This catalog includes 20

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[9] See: www.europsy.fi/EuroPsy_en.pdf.

primary competencies and 9 enabling competencies. Primary competencies refer to the professional competencies of psychologists. Enabling competencies are shared with other professions, and they permit professionals to engage in practitioner activity. Thus, WOP psychologists need to show evidence on both primary and enabling competencies to achieve certification. Based on all these efforts, a task force sponsored by the EAWOP is working on the development of the European Specialized Certificate of Work and Organizational Psychologist. A survey was conducted about the professional activities of WOP psychologists in Europe, including new trends and innovative practices. The 20 primary plus the 9 enabling competencies were considered in order to identify the relevance and level of these competencies required for W&O psychologists in their professional activity (see Table 6.2). These 29 competencies are also considered in the training activities of the WOP-P Master.

In addition, the WOP-P Master aims to develop basic research competencies. We conduct this training in order to train students as scientist practitioners and to facilitate the enrollment of our students into PhD programs should they so choose. We have established six research competencies, taking into account the Tuning Project as the reference point for the design and delivery of the program's degree in psychology (Lunt et al. 2011)[10]. These competencies are: literature review, research design, data collection, data analysis, writing the report, and disseminating research.

Specific contents, research strategies, and examinations stem from the model of competencies the Master aims to develop. Students are briefed about these competencies during an orientation–induction course, and the courses' syllabi and research activities consider the development of these competencies as the central goal. These strategies increase transparency of communication with relevant actors (students, companies, organizations, tutors, social agents, society, etc.), and allow a clear description of WOP-P students' competencies.

Towards a joint diploma The WOP-P Master aims to develop an integrated program in order to provide a joint diploma in WOP-P recognized by all European members of the consortium. The joint diploma represents an added value at the European level. Psychology diplomas are protected by law in all the European countries involved in the consortium; however, each country has different regulations and rules. This legal diversity complicates the mobility and recognition of professionals across these European countries. Traditionally, professionals circulating across borders need to spend quite a lot of time and effort fulfilling requirements before they can legally engage in professional practice. The possibility to deliver a joint diploma is an initial and innovative step towards opening up truly free circulation across countries in Europe, not only because of the recognition of the diploma but also because of the fulfillment of additional requirements for professional practice. This cross-border recognition is possible because European institutions in the consortium share the same structure for the Master. This shared structure for the Master

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[10] The Tuning Project formulated the reference points for the design and delivery of degree program profiles in psychology (http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/home.html). This initiative could also be developed in other regions where the Tuning Project is being operated (Latin America, Africa, Russia, USA, etc.).

Table 6.2 Competencies. WOP-P Master

Primary competencies	Enabling competencies
1. Needs analysis competence	1. Professional strategy
2. Goal setting competence	2. Continuing professional development
3. Individual assessment competence	3. Professional relations
4. Group assessment competence	4. Research and development
5. Organizational assessment competence	5. Marketing and sales
6. Situational assessment competence	6. Account management
7. Product definition and requirement analysis competence	7. Practice management
8. Product design competence	8. Quality assurance
9. Product testing competence	9. Self-reflection
10. Product evaluation competence	
11. Intervention planning competence	
12. Direct person-oriented intervention competence	
13. Direct context-oriented intervention competence	
14. Indirect intervention competence	
15. Product implementation competence	
16. Evaluation planning competence	
17. Evaluation measurement competence	
18. Evaluation analysis competence	
19. Feedback-giving competence	
20. Report writing competence	

is fully recognized as an official Master diploma and entitles for professional practice in all the European countries, once the requirements are fulfilled.

Targeting students from all over the world The European partners of the consortium attract students coming from different parts of the world. The Master offers five parallel tracks for different types of students. In addition to the English track (attracting students from most of the world regions via the lingua franca), the Master is also offered in four languages in parallel, facilitating the incorporation of students coming from a large diversity of language-speaking countries: Spanish-speaking countries (Latin America and the Philippines), Portuguese-speaking countries (Brazil and countries in Africa and Asia), and French-speaking countries (the Magreb and other parts of Africa). Additionally, the Italian partner (University of Bologna) has a traditional link with students from the Balkan countries. Thus, the composition of partners presents an added value that is not frequently found in other international Masters in the field.

Mobility policy Mobility is critical in the achievement of the WOP-P Master goals. The students start to plan their research during the first semester under the supervision of a faculty member of the first university and then continue their research under the supervision of another faculty member of the second univer-

sity they study in during the second semester. Thus, the EM students visit two research departments in different countries and receive support from two research supervisors who work in coordination ("co-tutelle"). With this mobility scheme, we promote our objectives, facilitating career opportunities of students, enhance joint research activities across the universities of the consortium, and facilitate the mutual enrichment of faculty across universities. To further accomplish this end, the Coordinating Committee of the Master has established guidelines to articulate the process of research training and to coordinate supervisors from the two universities. The other two semesters (second year), the student can study in any of the partner institutions.

In compliance with our objectives, to promote students' careers and the experience across cultures, we facilitate international professional internships where they can find additional opportunities to experience other cultures, languages, society values, and daily life. This career promotion and cultural dialogue is extended to the teaching staff with the exchange of scholars between non-European and European universities of the consortium. This results in the acquisition of other teaching methodologies and also the cooperation in research activities. Finally, the Joint Intensive Learning Unit, first in a virtual environment and then an in-residence learning experience, represents a special case of mobility and cooperation where all the students enrolled in Master work together. First, the students work during more than 3 months in virtual teams composed of members from the different sites where the Master is taught. Subsequently, they work face-to-face during an in-residence 2-week period. Moreover, students from other institutions also participate in this Joint Intensive Learning Unit coming from institutions that have signed a memorandum of understanding with the consortium of WOP-P. In this way, the Unit serves as a rich international learning experience.

International teaching staff The teaching staff of every European partner includes a list of professors and scholars well recognized in the international community. Some of them are editors or members of editorial committees of international scientific journals; they participate in international projects, both in research and in educational areas, and regularly publish in peer-reviewed international scientific journals. Additionally, very prestigious teaching staff coming from different countries participates in the WOP-P Master regularly. The participation of these external invited scholars is necessary to assure excellence in the WOP-P Master, and it opens the Master to other practices of teaching, learning, and research. Moreover, their participation permits the direct interaction of students with scholars pertaining to institutions and countries beyond the consortium.

Language policy Although only English language is compulsory, the consortium offers the Master teaching in English, French, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish. So on the basis of mastery in any of these languages, the student can take the Master in one or another partner institution. In any case, the teaching of the compulsory mobility periods (during the second semester of the Master) and the Joint Intensive Learning Unit are provided in English. Nevertheless, a policy of language and cul-

tural flexibility is followed. The knowledge of the culture and the learning and use of languages of the countries are stimulated.

Competencies for working in different contexts and cultures As described before, one of the main goals of the WOP-P Master is to train students in the context of internationalization and dialogue between cultures. The specific curriculum of the WOP-P Master is useful for students, but the capacity to cooperate with individuals pertaining to other cultures and to work in international contexts adds unmatched value to the program. The WOP-P Master achieves this goal in three ways. First, cultural diversity exists in the classrooms, with teachers and students coming from different countries and stimulating a discussion of issues from different cultural contexts. Second, mobility increases the internationalization and the need to deal with other values and ways to understand the discipline, social reality, and organizations. Third, the Joint Intensive Learning Unit is compulsory for the students, and it is especially oriented towards internationalization and multicultural approaches to designing interventions.

Promoting social capital The Master is designed in a way that promotes social capital of the participants. The number and quality of interactions are promoted between teaching staff, students, alumni, and tutors in the companies. This social capital is improved in different ways. First, bonding social capital (increasing and improving relationships within the consortium) is improved among European partners of the consortium. The Coordinating Committee meetings, the Annual Workshops organized by the Master, and the mobility periods facilitate the faculty and students to cooperate and learn from each other. Second, the interaction between the consortium (including institutions, scholars, and students) and European participants beyond the consortium facilitates bridging social capital (i.e., increasing and improving relationships between the consortium and external European actors). In fact, stable relations with other European institutions have been created. Third, bridging social capital is produced regarding relations with non-European actors. In addition to the interaction with non-European students and scholars, stable and fruitful relations were established with non-European institutions of the consortium. Finally, the Joint Intensive learning Unit also contributes to the development of linkages, as does social media via which students network with alumni and some teaching staff. In sum, the WOP-P Master creates a context of mutual learning through which participants take advantage of the diversity and differences extant among them.

Inputs from the European reference models in education As we indicated previously, the WOP-P Master considered relevant inputs from previous European efforts to delimitate the education of W&O psychologists. They were helpful in order to achieve a shared scheme of training, which, at the same time, accepts diversity. In addition to the ENOP reference model, the Europsy Certificate of Psychology (EFPA 2011; Lunt et al. 2001; Lunt et al. 2011; Lunt and Peiró In-press; Peiró and Lunt 2002) and the European Specialist Certificate in Work and Organizational Psychology formulated a number of facets of psychology education programs starting from the analysis of the existing programs in a wide array of European countries.

Practices to Promote Internationalization during the Implementation of the Master

The promotion of the internationalization of the WOP-P Master is grounded in the design and implementation of specific practices and tools. We have anticipated some of them in previous sections. In the next sections, we will describe these practices in a more systematic way.

Coordination activities and processes The Coordinating Committee of the WOP-P Master plays a critical role in the cooperation of the partner institutions. This Committee is responsible for the management of the WOP-P Master, including the general functioning, the relations with the non-European universities of the consortium, the framework for the selection of scholars and students, the mobility of participants, the distribution of scholars and students pertaining to non-European universities, and quality assurance. Members participate in at least three meetings per year, analyzing and making decisions about the different facets of the Master. If necessary, additional virtual meetings convene in order to coordinate and make specific decisions. The Master as a whole has an electronic platform used for coordination and as a repository of educational materials exchanged among the teaching staff from different universities (the "aula virtual"). Coordinators and faculty have access to this electronic platform.

The Annual Workshop The Annual Workshop is a useful event that contributes to the international coordination and quality improvement of the Master. It consists of a 3-day, in-residence activity for the teaching staff involved. The Advisory Scientific and Professional Committee, some professionals, and the student representatives also participate in this event. The Annual Workshop permits an internal benchmarking among partners of the WOP-P Master, the fruitful exchange of best practices and excellence in teaching experiences, and the development of consensual views about contents, objectives, training strategies, examination criteria, etc. Prospective analysis of the future demands from companies and workers and of the evolution of our discipline has also been conducted on some occasions.

International publicity, recruitment, and selection of students All the partners contribute to the dissemination of information regarding the Master, especially during the students' recruitment period. The program offers grants for both non-European and European students, and it facilitates the enrollment of excellent students from different regions of the world. The periodicity of recruitment activities is subjected to the deadlines and critical dates of the WOP-P Master and the EM program in general. The promotion efforts and actions of publicity and advertisement (e.g., though Google, Universia, and other specialized portals, organizing social hours in international congresses, etc.) are coordinated by a member of the coordinating institution. There is an electronic application where students upload their application forms and other documents (e.g., motivation letter, curriculum, etc.) and can be accessed by the coordinators of every university. Assessment and selection of candidates are carried out only in European institutions, the ones that award the diploma to the students. Although some tasks and the monitoring of the whole process are centralized in the

coordinating institution, all the European members of the consortium participate in interviewing and assessing candidates using a common protocol for evaluation. The Coordinating Committee of the Master (where all European partners are represented) makes the final decision about selection of students and scholars.

Services for international students Students coming from non-EU countries need a number of services, because they have to deal with visa and lodging issues. With regard to *accommodation*, the market for student housing is quite different depending on the university town where they will study. As a general principle, all partners commit to provide a room in a students' residence to students coming from abroad and also support to search for adequate lodging to external scholars. Additionally, a complementary mentor system has been implemented for student mobility. Students receive a matrix with their names and pair students at the other universities of the consortium (the recipient of mobility). These other students help him/her to find lodging. It is a good practical exercise of collaboration and coordination and one of the first steps for the student's network development. Exchange of students' rooms in residence or in shared housing is common among students.

Another service provided is *the assistance with visa*. Each partner institution is able to give information about visa requirements according to their national laws. The consortium provides individualized support to students and scholars, which often is a complex and not easy process.

In relation to *financial aspects*, each partner institution offers information about opportunities for different types of grants (for traveling, congress attendance, etc.). In addition, information about special financial conditions for students in the region and/or the university in question is offered.

The *academic induction/socialization* is also a process carefully implemented and managed. Regardless of the partner institution at which the student starts the WOP-P Master, all students participate in an orientation course (4 ECTS). It provides information and facilitates envisioning the competencies to be acquired and the rationale underlying the design of the Master. Additionally, cultural and socialization activities are implemented. Welcome activities are held in each university at the beginning of each semester when students arrive from other universities. Typical activities include: providing information about the city, the university, and its services; guided tours of the university buildings, classrooms, work areas, library, computer rooms, and sport facilities; presentations regarding logistical aspects (e.g., use of new technologies, restaurant); scheduled contact with tutors and teachers; welcome social activity with EM students from the second year; etc. In addition, specific language courses are offered to those students who are not fluent in the country language. In the case of external scholars, all of them receive specific information in advance about the WOP-P Master and expected characteristics and requirements of their contribution, and an action plan is agreed upon between each external scholar and the universities of the consortium at which they will work. The complete details of the issues addressed above are also provided in a *handbook for students*.

Technology tools For the implementation of an international Master, the development of technology tools is a must. Over time, we have developed different tools.

First, we have an electronic platform where documents and other materials are shared by all partner institutions. Second, a specific part of the platform is devoted to the sharing of materials uploaded by external teaching staff in Master activities, as well as the virtual cooperation of students who are distributed in different partner institutions. Third, we have an electronic system for uploading the students' applications and documents and for supporting the selection process. Faculty from the partner institutions uses this system to prepare for selection interviews and to upload reports and scores for each candidate. Fourth, the web page of the Master[11] offers detailed information about the philosophy, contents, organization and processes of the EM program and the WOP-P Master. Information is provided about: the general objectives, calendars and calls, news, FAQs, structure and contents of the program, teaching staff, the Joint Intensive Learning Unit (winter school), career service, and the online application. An electronic tool for the automatic translation and exchange of marks among coordinators from the institutions is also used.

Promotion of internationalization in teaching and learning The WOP-P Master strongly emphasizes internationalization as has been pointed out previously. The rationale of the program, students' enrollment, the faculty, and the type of activities organized, especially the Joint Intensive Learning Unit and the internship, are oriented towards an international education and to promote the competencies necessary to work in an international environment as well as in different regions.

The Joint Intensive Learning Unit (winter school) It is considered by the students as a "peak experience." It emphasizes three relevant facets of professional education: (1) team work in a cross-cultural virtual environment; (2) the development of competencies required to work as professionals in an international environment; and (3) the development of competencies to design new professional interventions while considering scientific evidence available, contextual factors (i.e., cultural values, historical trajectories, political issues in the country, etc.), and organization factors. The Joint Intensive Learning Unit has three main phases: (1) the virtual team-work phase; (2) the in-residence period (2 weeks) during which all the students from the five universities of the consortium plus some additional young professionals or postgraduate students from different countries participate and work together with international teaching staff; and (3) integration assignment. In addition to academic learning outcomes, this training activity requires the student to work in multicultural teams and cope with issues related to differences in cultural values, daily practices, and assumptions. Students analyze contextual factors of work and organizations in a specific region of the world relevant to the interventions of W&O psychologists and take into consideration these factors when they design interventions. They also review the state of the art and empirical evidence available for a given intervention. The analysis of ethical and organizational justice issues involved in the design and implementation of an intervention are also considered. Finally, the students participate in a workshop about the implementation of interventions.

International research projects and professional internships Two critical learning units of the WOP-P Master are the research for the Master thesis and the

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[11] See http://www.erasmuswop.org.

professional internship. We have already discussed them in detail above in this chapter.

The career services The career service of the WOP-P Master[12] supports graduates' work entry in different regions of the world. This service includes an open area where alumni include their curriculum vitae (CVs) voluntarily. This practice facilitates the interaction among alumni who have finished the WOP-P Master, as well as between them and the students in the first or the second year. Additionally, a brochure with the information regarding the main features of the Master and the qualifications of our graduates is distributed to the students when they finish their studies, and they are asked to attach it to their CVs when they submit job applications. Reference letters are sent to the employers that require information about our graduates.

Conclusion

Higher Education Systems have to accommodate the deep changes in our societies. Information and communication technologies and sociopolitical and economic changes have contributed to facilitate a more and more globalized world. Other regions beyond the Western countries have experienced growing levels of human development in economic, health, and education terms. In this context, universities tend to attract excellent students from different regions of the world and should offer more international education. Different models of internationalization are being developed. The EM Master in WOP-P has opted for a model based on a contextualist approach where dialogue and mutual enrichment among cultures and countries is reinforced. Although this Master originates from European reference models for the education of WOP psychologists, differences in terms of contextual factors, cultural values, and historical trajectories are taken into consideration and valued. To that end, requirements of the EM program are considered and a rigorous Master designed. This complex combination of agreement (unity) and dispersion (diversity) is present in the education activities, in the interaction among students and between students and teaching staff, in the integration of European and non-European universities of the consortium, and in the participation of European and non-European students and scholars. Also, the services provided had to be developed in a way that serves the aims of the Master. In our view, this is an innovative model of internationalization in the training of WOP-P that improves cooperation and integration of cultures and countries.

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[12] See: (www.uv.es/erasmuswop/careers.htm).

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Chapter 7
Preparing Global Managers and Consultants: A Justification and Framework for International Exchange Programs in Higher Education

Matthew J. Monnot, Thad Barnowe and Gregory Youtz

Introduction

Organizations conduct business in an increasingly globally interconnected economic and business environment. International trade continues to grow at a rate of roughly 5 % per year (World Trade Organization 2013). Organizations will continue to grapple with selecting and deploying competent global consultants and managers to meet business needs related to this additional global reach. In fact, each year since 1999, an average of 48 % of business leaders report an increase in international expatriate assignments (Brookfield Global Relocation Services 2011). Yet 10–50 % of expatriates fail to meet the requirements of their assignment (Eschbach et al. 2001).

Business leaders view academia as responsible for training competent global leaders (e.g., Webb et al. 1994). It is important that degree programs in industrial–organizational (I/O) psychology, organizational behavior (OB), and other business-related fields prepare students for success in this environment. Fortunately, researchers have demonstrated the link between the success of global business leaders and global business competence (Gupta and Govindarajan 2002; Mintzberg and Gosling 2002). While international education is a positive trend, it appears that it may not be progressing quickly enough to meet the career demands of graduating students. Unfortunately, less than a third of business leaders felt that academic programs were graduating students with the necessary skills to effectively fill entry-level international positions (Webb et al. 1994).

In this chapter, we discuss important nuances of establishing effective international exchange programs in higher education. The first portion of the chapter

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focuses on the purpose of an exchange program, as well as the beneficiaries—faculty, students, and institutions. In the current globally interconnected business environment, the value of an international exchange program can be great. Students majoring in business, I/O psychology, and related fields benefit immensely from training that emphasizes an international context. The merit of utilizing an exchange program to develop the necessary international acumen is explicated in the first section of this chapter.

The second section focuses on the specifics of establishing a program, detailing the need for leadership support from the university down to the department level, the importance of clearly specified goals and strategy, potential sources of funding, the benefit of student preparation and repatriation activities, as well as the assessment of program impact. Finally, this section concludes with practical advice based on lessons learned by exchange program leaders along the way.

Exchange Programs: Types and Definitions

International study curricula vary in terms of the structure, in terms of the content delivered, and in the duration of participation. Structurally, programs vary widely, from virtual teamwork with a brief in-person interaction up to full long-term rotating exchange agreements. The content of the program may vary across discipline, psychology versus business, and within discipline, industrial versus organizational psychology. The emphasis of this chapter will be on business-related programs. Finally, the duration of exchange can vary from several days to full academic years. Several examples of programs displaying the range of each aspect are described below.

While all types of programs are essentially experiential in nature, requiring at least some degree of engagement with the cultural context of the host college or university, the specific instructional design of an exchange program should vary depending on goals and resources. Additionally, an international curriculum involving international institutional collaboration may vary widely, from virtual collaboration to actual physical relocation. These curricula may include, for example, a consulting model, such as the one that the University of California, Berkeley utilizes, wherein the Haas MBA students work in teams in a consulting capacity serving organizations around the world. A multicultural team consulting model may be used, such as the University of Minnesota's Carson School of Management, wherein MBA students and faculty work with international partners on live business cases and challenges for corporations. Utilizing a student-driven model, Northwestern University's Kellogg MBA students engage in the planning and execution of a 10-week course on a particular country and area of focus. In a multi-school collaboration model, 13 US Center for International Business and Educational Research (CIBER) host schools and their respective international partners bring students together for a virtual project lasting 7 weeks. Finally, using the exchange model, the University of South Carolina's Moore School partners with the Chinese University of Hong Kong, offering an International Business and Chinese Enterprise degree, which involves alternating studying at each institution and doing a separate internship in

each country (D'Angelo 2012). The exchange program, wherein students are sent and received from abroad, is the primary focus of this chapter.

International exchange programs are increasingly prevalent in institutions of higher education, with 270,604 US students (a 3.9 % increase from the previous year) studying abroad for academic credit during the 2009–2010 academic year and a 5.7 % increase in international student enrollment in US institutions from 2010 to 2011. Of those students studying abroad during the 2008–2009 academic year, most (54.6 %) chose a short-term program (i.e., summer or 8 weeks or less), while the majority of the rest chose a mid-length program (one or two quarters or one semester), and few (4.3 %) selected a long-term program (i.e., academic or calendar year; IIE 2011). While international education has historically been seen as an activity pursued largely by humanities students, such as those students studying language, archeology, history, and related fields, there has been a recent boost of interest among business and business-related students. The field of study chosen by international students is most frequently business and management (21.5 %; IIE 2011), indicating the importance of a global education for those individuals pursuing a degree in an increasingly international field.

The Benefits of Exchange Programs

Purpose of International Exchange: Developing Intercultural Competence

There is extensive evidence for the educational benefit of a more diverse student population. In short, more diverse classrooms and campuses result in more innovative and higher quality decisions in student work groups (McLeod et al. 1996), a higher degree of critical analysis by way of multiple diverse viewpoints (Antonio et al. 2004; Nemeth 1985, 1986, 1995; Schulz-Hardt et al. 2006; Sommers 2006), as well as greater cognitive development, satisfaction, and improved leadership abilities (Astin 1993a, b).

These findings are the results of decades of empirical research on the topic. Ideas generated during classroom brainstorming sessions are rated higher in terms of feasibility and effectiveness when the brainstorming groups were more ethnically diverse (McLeod et al. 1996). Depth of critical analysis of decisions and alternatives is higher in groups exposed to a diversity of viewpoints, wherein ethnic and cultural diversities stimulated multiple perspectives and previously unconsidered alternatives (Antonio et al. 2004; Nemeth 1985, 1986, 1995; Schulz-Hardt et al. 2006; Sommers 2006). The findings of benefits related to group diversity are paralleled in organizations, where the most innovative companies have been found to be those deliberately establishing diverse work teams (Kanter 1983). One large longitudinal study found that universities with institutional policies designed to foster campus diversity have a positive effect on student cognitive development, satisfaction, and leadership abilities (Astin 1993a, b). Another longitudinal study suggested that formal and informal interactions with racially and ethnically diverse

peers in the university setting resulted in higher levels of engagement, motivation, and intellectual and academic skills (Gurin et al. 2002). Finally, in- and out-of-class interactions with more diverse peers are positively related to critical thinking practices (Pascarella et al. 1996). It appears that there are numerous educational benefits associated with a diverse classroom and campus in and of itself. Moreover, recent research has also pointed to specific competencies associated with success in the international business arena, and empirical evidence suggests that international exchange programs can aid the development of these competencies.

The definition of global or international competence varies with the particular domain in which it is being used. For instance, the components of global competence are likely to differ substantively between an expatriate training and a political diplomat (Hunter et al. 2006). However, two broadly applicable and relatively nascent constructs that are becoming increasingly popular in business settings are Global Mindset and Cross-Cultural Intelligence.

A Global Mindset, for instance, is an oft-mentioned competency in cross-cultural training seminars but not consistently defined. However, a recent psychometric research has led to a more clear definition and evidence of construct validity (Javidan et al. 2010, 2012), with subsequent research showing promising results for the impact of international experience on the development of one's global mindset competencies. Another collaborative attempt has been made to integrate research toward a general set of cognitive-based competencies associated with one's skillful adaptation and performance in a new cultural setting. This line of research has offered a construct-labeled "Cultural Intelligence" (CQ). Research (e.g., *Group and Organization Management*, 2006, Vol. 31-1) offers support for the notion that CQ can be assessed and developed among individuals.

Providing a curriculum with an international emphasis, particularly one that allows opportunities for experiential cross-cultural learning, is critical to the development of Intercultural Competence. Two related competencies popularized in the business setting include Global Mindset and CQ. These two constructs are briefly described below.

In lay terms, the tripartite model often associated with cultural competence includes the individual's mind (cognitive), body (behavior), and heart (emotional or motivational). A fourth facet of competence has since been added as well, a meta-ability or strategic cultural competence (see Earley et al. 2006; Earley and Mosakowski 2005 for overview).

The cognitive or knowledge-based component of cultural quotient refers, in general, to an awareness of one's surroundings, the customs, norms, and behaviors, as well as the possession of other information related to a particular culture or cultures and the differences that exist between cultures. Cultural knowledge includes the specific norms, values, practices, beliefs, and conventions of a group or groups of people. The behavioral component, or body, involves one's adeptness at identifying both verbal and nonverbal communication norms and modifying one's own behavior accordingly. The competency includes the ability to mimic the behaviors, mannerisms, and other body language cues of others. The behavioral facet of cultural competence is the action-oriented aspect of the construct. The motivational, or emotional (heart), facet of CQ involves the belief in one's own ability and the incli-

nation and willingness to adapt. In general, it could be thought of as cultural interest and efficacy (Earley and Ang 2003; Ng and Earley 2006). Finally, a fourth component recently advanced includes the metacognitive cultural quotient, or cultural cognitive strategy. This construct refers to a self-awareness and self-monitoring ability as it relates to cross-cultural interaction. (Earley and Ang 2003).

While CQ is a relatively new construct identified by researchers, the initial empirical evidence for its practical application is promising. Higher levels of CQ appear to be related to important individual work performance outcomes, such as judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation, and task performance (e.g., Ang et al. 2007). While previous studies have examined important outcomes of CQ, possible antecedents have received less investigation. Initial evidence for the impact of global education on these four cultural competencies is promising. One of the first peer-reviewed studies of the antecedents of CQ (Crowne 2008) offers empirical support for the impact of global experiential training (e.g., exchange programs) on these constructs. This study provides some insight regarding the impact of cultural exposure on CQ, as well as a perspective on how the depth of cultural exposure influences a person's CQ. Study findings indicate that certain types of exposures to other cultures from these experiences increase CQ. Specifically, education abroad relates to increases in each facet of CQ, versus less impactful experiences, such as being employed abroad, living abroad, or education level (Crown 2008). These findings are of relevance not only for multinational firms as they hire, promote, train, and prepare employees for international assignments but also for educational institutions trying to enable students with the basic skill set to fill entry-level global roles.

Finally, regarding the importance of developing a Global Mindset, when sending expatriates overseas for leadership positions, contributors (Javidan et al. 2010) to the GLOBE studies, collected data from more than 5,000 expatriate leaders and found that the successful ones had three sets of characteristics, including "Intellectual," "Psychological," and "Interpersonal Capital." Intellectual Capital includes, for example, knowledge of global industries, an understanding of complex global issues, and cultural acumen. Psychological Capital includes a penchant for exploring other parts of the world, experiencing other cultures, and trying new ways of doing things, as well as resiliency, curiosity, and confidence. Finally, Interpersonal Capital involves the ability to engage and connect emotionally with people from other parts of the world. These same researchers have found that while each of these types of Capital predicts success overseas, Intellectual Capital is particularly amenable to development via classroom instruction. Therefore, it may be beneficial to emphasize the development of Psychological Capital and Interpersonal Capital via interaction with visiting exchange students, cultural events, and the study abroad experiences.

Institutions of higher education have adapted to the requirements of the global business arena and many have internationalized their curriculum to develop competencies related to Intercultural Competence (see Deardorff and Jones 2012 for review)—an umbrella term that has been used to refer to cross-cultural ability, skills, attitudes, and behaviors that happen to be quite similar conceptually to CQ and Global Mindset. The use of internationalized curricula to develop Intercultural Competence or Competencies is supported by empirical findings.

Study abroad programs have been shown to be particularly effective at enhancing Intercultural Competencies. Research suggests, for example, that participation in study abroad programs is less ethnocentric (Saghafi 2001), has more positive attitudes toward diversity (Douglass and Jones-Rikkers 2001; Wang et al. 2009), is more confident and independent (Black and Duhon 2006), and reports greater career advancement (Marcotte et al. 2007). These benefits are numerous and are found in international experiences of varying lengths and types.

Study abroad programs, wherein students participate in education at a campus within a different national boundary, not only significantly increase inclusive and accepting cross-national attitudes but also host countries more that are more culturally dissimilar with one's own (as defined by Hoftstede's cultural dimensions) appear to result in even greater increases in inclusive and accepting attitudes (Douglass and Jones-Rikkers 2001). Likewise, study abroad programs have been shown to have a significant positive effect on level of tolerance, cultural empathy, self-confidence, and independence (Black and Duhon 2006). Similarly, at the graduate level short-term study abroad experiences have been shown to improve confidence and expertise (Hallows et al. 2011).

Length, frequency, and type of international experience appear to influence competencies as well. Students who have previously traveled internationally, traveled internationally more frequently, and visited more countries scored higher initially on self-reported flexibility and openness, emotional resilience, personal autonomy, and perceptual acuity (Shaftel et al. 2007). Students studying abroad for as little as 3 weeks displayed significant increases in self-reported flexibility and openness, emotional resilience, personal autonomy, and perceptual acuity related to interpersonal interaction and communication (Kitsantis and Meyers 2001). In programs as short as 2 weeks, students developed more favorable attitudes toward diversity in terms of openness to beliefs, values, perspectives, and demographics different from their own (Wang et al. 2009). Improvements in Intercultural Competence do, however, vary by duration of program, with lengthier courses resulting in higher levels of flexibility and openness, emotional resilience, personal autonomy, and perceptual acuity (Shaftel et al. 2007). This is not to discount the impact of short-term study abroad programs. In fact, the most dramatic increase in Intercultural Competencies appears to be in the first several weeks of the program and then increases continue more gradually for the remainder (Kelley and Meyers 1992; Kitsantis and Meyers 2001; Shaftel et al. 2007). Finally, mobility programs are broader in scope than study abroad programs and include student exchanges, study abroad agreements, and internships in foreign countries that have—in addition to increased self-reported individual development and cultural awareness—shown improved career advancement (Marcotte et al. 2007). The benefits of an international exchange program are numerous. By way of campus diversity and cross-cultural interactions, students stand to gain from multiple diverse perspectives, which appears to have many associated benefits, such as a higher degree of critical thought and analysis, higher satisfaction with the college experience, better cognitive development, and more developed leadership abilities. Likewise, it appears that international exchange programs can offer the potential of enhancing Intercultural Competence. This competence, or com-

petencies, is closely related to CQ and Global Mindset, which are increasingly seen as descriptive of effective international managers, consultants, and expatriates CQ and a Global Mindset. Given the importance of an international curriculum, the next section of this chapter outlines guidance on how to establish an effective program.

The Process of Establishing an Exchange Program

Establishing and managing an international exchange program requires a large degree of support and resources across multiple levels of the institution. The following recommendations have been culled from a variety of authoritative sources, drawing from the 2008 National Association of Student Advisers (NAFSA) Task Force on Institutional Management of Study Abroad (a report intended for university presidents, senior administrators, and professionals; NAFSA 2008), the American Council on Education (ACE) report on International Partnerships (Van de Water et al. 2008), a thorough review of scholarly literature on the topic of international exchange program, exemplar institutions as pointed out by various publications and rankings, as well as brief case examples to provide additional clarity on a particular topic. These recommendations are grouped into the following categories: (1) institutional commitment, (2) study abroad infrastructure, (3) adequate resources, (4) clarity and accountability, (5) student preparation, and finally, (6) student repatriation (see Appendix for a checklist).

Institutional Commitment

Successful institutions establish and embed study abroad as a key element of the educational process, implement financially sustainable plans to support study abroad, ensure that the exchange program is an integral part of academic life at the particular institution, as well as implement the necessary systems and processes to provide institutional oversight (NAFSA 2008).

Ensuring the success of an international exchange program often means making sure that the program is embedded in the institution's strategy and mission (Van de Water et al. 2008). Many successful exchange programs exist in schools in which global education is part of the university mission. Boston University's 2007 strategic plan, for example, includes an emphasis on international education in general, and exchange programs in particular, emphasizing that the landscape in which students are learning should be thought of as beyond Boston—encompassing a global education. The president's strategic plan for a globalized student body has paid off; within 2 years of implementing the strategic plan the percentage of international students in the freshmen class increased from 7 to 11 % (NAFSA 2009). International education is also an important part of mission statement endorsed by the University of Minnesota, resulting in a strong exchange program. As part of its agenda to internationalize the University of Minnesota campus, administrators reduced the premium visiting international students paid by almost two-thirds. The campus quickly

increased the number of visiting international students to 3 % (up from 1 %) on the way to the strategic goal of 5 % (NAFSA 2009). These examples suggest that successful programs are often those that exist in institutions where global education is part of the organizational strategy and supported by the administration.

A program supported by the institution's mission is a good starting place to ensure adequate resources, the foremost of which is often financial. During strategic planning, sources of adequate funding should be established. While there is no single best source of funding for all schools, there are some that are fairly common. These sources include tuition, in-kind exchange agreements in the form of incentives designed to alleviate exchange students from the burden of tuition, fundraising, and grants. Short-term financial plans can prove to be unsustainable; therefore, a source of financial backing that is likely to be continually available is important.

Next, integrating exchange programs into the life of the institution goes beyond gaining top administration and financial support. Internationalization should be a part of the integrated curriculum; moreover, it should be part of typical coursework. This curriculum may involve establishing the expectation that students will participate in at least one short-term study abroad experience, or it may go so far as to include a semester abroad as part of graduation requirements. Whether it is simply an institutional expectation or an actual graduation requirement, successful exchange programs should be facilitated by removing as many institutional barriers as possible and increasing motivating factors.

A final important factor regarding institutional support involves devoting a clear administrative mechanism, which is most often in the form of a study abroad office that provides oversight, governance, legal, financial, and academic planning. Managing the exchange process, relationships, and administrative details is time and resource intensive and requires a devoted work team at the least for a sustainable program.

Study Abroad Infrastructure

A structured approach to planning for course approval and credit transfer should be in place, and policies should be in place to guide credit transfer. Exchange program options should be updated in response to academic opportunity and student need. Systems should be established to manage the health and safety of students abroad as well as manage institutional risk, and finally, results of regular program evaluation should be used for continuous program improvement (NAFSA 2008).

The procedure for selecting exchange courses that will be advertised to exchange partners, as well as those that expatriated students will be given credit for taking, should be based on data such as site visits, student feedback, documentation and accreditation, if possible, and past experience with the partner institution. However, it is the commitment on the part of faculty to courses that are taught on their own campus as well as those courses they supervise as on-site director or temporary administrator that is critically important to the sustainability of the program. If the faculty lack commitment to the goals or belief in the merit of the exchange program, then a

successful and sustainable exchange relationship is unlikely. Faculty participation, while sometimes subsidized via course credit or course development payments, is largely voluntary. University faculty often act as stewards of the exchange program. Therefore, faculty involvement in this process is important.

Both student and institutional needs will change over time, as will the economic and educational environment in which they reside and develop. The program offerings should continually change to meet these needs. Therefore, means of effectively assessing and responding to individual and institutional needs should be well established before implementation. Annual reviews of the program portfolio are one's choice of meeting this program requirement. Student as well as faculty input should drive this process. It is important for faculty to provide feedback on the effectiveness of current exchange partnerships and to anticipate which exchange locations and institutions will be most robust in terms of their educational and professional development.

Although it may seem a mundane part of program management, there need to be clearly defined policies and procedures related to transfer credit review and curriculum. Policies on transfer credits vary widely; therefore, it is important to be clear about expectations with the partner institution and participating students. As an example, the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) offers a system of transparency across Europe and other countries by providing standards for credit hour conversion. In fact, institutions that apply the ECTS standards share other information, such as catalogs of available courses, course descriptions, and associated workload. However, each educational institution is autonomous and it is up to the administrators to decide which courses are acceptable for transfer credit. Additionally, administrators must also consider what constitutes a passing grade. Grading systems may vary widely across countries (e.g., 0–4 in the USA versus 1–20 in France) and so may the typical distribution of grades within each range.

Relevant health and safety risks should be accounted for. At the least, a protocol should be established for dealing with events related to health and safety. Predeparture staff should ensure that students are well prepared to avoid unnecessary risks while away. Therefore, a health and safety review team should be assembled, on a regular or ad hoc basis, to ensure that a proper review has been conducted before students go abroad.

Finally, programs should be regularly evaluated from a process perspective to identify areas of improvement. This process can serve to identify and eliminate costly inefficiencies. Please see Chap. X in this book for a more thorough discussion of this topic.

Adequate Resources

Recruitment and retention of knowledgeable and experienced personnel to lead study abroad offices should be emphasized, both financial aid and fundraising opportunities should be provided to encourage student participation, and policies should be put in place to control the costs associated with the program (NAFSA 2008).

Selection and placement of competent and experienced exchange program staff is just as important as any other personnel decision. An educational administration leader is a key role for the program due to the curriculum being both cross-cultural and partnership based. Specialized programmatic, administrative, and relationship management knowledge is required. This person needs to be someone who can gain entry into trusted partnerships with colleagues at other institutions.

Funding is perhaps one of the most apparent necessary resources for success. Whether student funding comes in the form of individual payment, grants, fundraising, or institutional financial aid, it should be adequate to make participation in the exchange program feasible for students of widely varying financial means. Some colleges and universities set aside a portion of their annual development efforts for the exchange program. The most frequently cited primary source of funding for international students is personal or family funds (63.4%), but the next most frequently cited source of funding is a US College or University (22.9%), with the remaining sources being a foreign government or university (5.8%), the US Government (0.6%), and so on (IIE 2011). Therefore, not only is the home college or university a widely cited source of funding currently but also there are still plenty of opportunities to defray the financial cost for the individual and their family. Institutional funding may come from a variety of sources, including, but not limited to, endowments, individual donations, federal funding in the form of grants and other opportunities, as well as tuition and fees set aside for the program itself. While accessibility is important for its own educational merit, volume of participation is often a deciding factor in the decision of institutions to continue partnering; therefore, more participation is likely to ensure more sustainability.

Title VI-B grants, a type of US federal funds, have been particularly effective across many schools intent on developing an international curriculum. The Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA),[1] Title VI, part B is a grant program that, in part, is designed to both enhance the international academic programs of institutions of higher education and provide appropriate services to the business community which should thereby expand capacity to engage in commerce abroad. Authorized activities include such things as internationalization of curricula at the junior and community college level and at undergraduate and graduate schools of business, as well as development of area studies programs and interdisciplinary international programs, among many others. These grants are an important consideration due to the breadth of authorized activities and, thereby, their broad availability (Higher Education Act 1965).

Faculty act stewards of international exchange (Peterson 2000) and therefore faculty development can serve as another route to increasing the viability of the exchange program. This resource, however, can also be costly to an institution. Faculty may not have international expertise, may not have expert knowledge of the country where a current exchange relationship exists, and may not have expert knowledge of a country with which the university is targeting to develop an exchange

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[1] The HEA continues to evolve and was amended in 1998, discontinued in 2003, and then reauthorized in 2008.

relationship. Faculty development may range from time allowed for self-study to international study tours organized by the home institution. One less costly option is to encourage faculty participation in relevant Fulbright Scholar grant opportunities, which involve faculty assignments in another country—ideally in another country and at another university with which the University or School is targeting for an exchange relationship. This approach is two pronged—establish a relationship with the targeted University and develop faculty expertise in the target country.

Clarity and Accountability

There are many stakeholders involved in a successful exchange program. Critical information related to the program needs to be communicated to relevant stakeholders. Clear contracting and auditing procedures should be in place to guard against issues such as conflict of interest (NAFSA 2008).

Information about university policies related to the exchange program, as well as program outcomes, should be articulated to students and made available for relevant stakeholders. Transparency in policy related to all aspects of the program, such as financial aid and transfer credit, will reduce the likelihood of misunderstandings or unmet expectations.

The same rigor that applies to any other services for which the college or university creates contracts should be applied to the agreement with exchange program partners. To provide some insight into the complexity of these agreements and the length of time needed to finalize the agreement, one should be aware of the stakeholders involved and the elements addressed by each contract. Parties involved may include individual faculty, department chairs, deans, and upper administration, among others. Exchange contracts should address those same elements that typical university contracts address, such as conflict of interest, exclusivity agreements, service agreements, and related policy documents. Important elements specific to exchange agreements include quotas for exchange, tuition and fees, extent of participation in a degree program, access to university resources such as health plans and sports programs, language ability expectations, accommodations while abroad, and other elements specific to each university. Contract complexity and length of time needed to finalize agreements will vary with program, but given the number of stakeholders, agreements, and elements of each agreement, it can be a time-consuming process.

Finally, it is important both from the standpoint of utility and getting buy-in from various stakeholders to show that the exchange program is creating a positive effect. This effect can be assessed from various standpoints, including enrollment rates, student satisfaction, change in attitudes of returning students, as well as faculty perception. According to Neal Sobania (N. Sobania, personal communication, November, 18, 2012), Director of the Wang Center for Global Education at Pacific Lutheran University (PLU), study-away professionals have taken an attitudinal assessment approach to determine the benefit of its most utilized partnership universities (coined "Gateway Campuses" at PLU) and measured several valued outcomes,

including knowledge of global issues, cultural diversity, intercultural skills, and commitment to citizenship of returning students. These are objectives that happen to be identified by PLU administration and program sponsors as particularly important. The assessment of program outcomes, however, will depend on the institution's specific strategy or goals. Program impact has been studied, for example, in the form of employment and career advancement (Paige et al. 2009), diversity attitudes (Wang et al. 2009), or personal development (Black and Duhon 2006). The same professional standards apply to study abroad as would any educational intuition's program initiatives. Additionally, there are now psychometrically validated instruments (e.g., Kelley and Meyers 1992) that may be used to assess the impact of studying abroad, as well as compare student scores with normative groups. The latter may become more prevalent for purposes of comparison with other institutions.

Student Preparation

Just as with the expatriate preparation and repatriation process in organizations, there should be similar processes for students. A selection process, training program (both logistics and cross-cultural) should be put in place to enable students to develop competencies to effectively adjust to studying abroad. A support system needs to be in place (e.g., emergency numbers and study abroad office personnel) for students while abroad. Finally, resources should be available for returning students to debrief and receive counseling if necessary.

To facilitate knowledge transfer, PLU, for example, holds weekly discussions called "Returner Reflections" during which students share experiences and lessons learned. These group discussions can be not only an effective way of transferring knowledge but also facilitated higher order cross-cultural thinking skills (DeLoach et al. 2003). Some form of counseling should be available for returning students. For example, a paid position for former exchange students wherein they offer peer counseling for returning students (at PLU, this is called "Sojourner Advocate") works well from a resourcing standpoint.

Enhancing the likelihood of success prior to participation in an exchange program is an integral part of the program. Adequate preparation will reduce the amount of time necessary for the student to transition into the new culture, thereby increasing the amount of time spent acquiring knowledge. This type of preparation is particularly important for short-term exchanges during which the time for experiential learning opportunities is reduced. Cross-culture competencies, rather than simply logistical concerns, should be an important component of this training.

The process of cross-cultural training should result in the departing student learning both the cultural knowledge and skills that will improve interactions by reducing misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviors. This training will not only serve to improve the likelihood of successful acquisition of knowledge during the exchange visit but also serve to reduce the effect of culture shock. In addition to increasing performance and confidence in a new cultural context, training has been shown to increase adjustment as well (Littrell and Salas 2005).

Culture shock, the state of disorientation and anxiety about not knowing how to behave in an unfamiliar culture (Zeitlin 1996), is caused by the trauma that people experience when dealing with a new and unfamiliar culture. Culture shock usually progresses in four stages: (1) honeymoon, (2) irritation and hostility, (3) gradual adjustment, and, ideally, (4) biculturalism (e.g., Lysgaard 1955; Black and Mendenhall 1990; Usunier 1998). At the biculturalism stage, the individual grows to accept and appreciate the local people and practices. They are able to effectively function in both their home and host cultures. Unfortunately, many never reach the fourth stage. Ideally, the predeparture training will increase the likelihood of reaching the bicultural stage of adjustment. There are an array of training strategies; isomorphic attribution, cultural awareness, cognitive behavior modification, interpersonal interaction, language, and experiential (Littrell and Salas, 2005; see Littrell et al. 2006 for a review of expatriate training). Most training programs take place in the expatriate's own country prior to leaving; however, this design need not always be utilized. The impact of host-country (or in-country) programs may even be greater than those programs conducted at home, because crucial skills, such as overcoming cultural differences in intercultural relationships, can actually be experienced during in-country training rather than simply discussed. Finally, to reduce the difficulty associated with the exchange experience, there should be specific support services, such as having a permanent support staff at the international office that serves as a point of contact for the student abroad. The effectiveness of these types of support services has long been known, albeit less often practiced, by industry practitioners (Tung 1989).

Student Repatriation

Repatriation involves returning to a similar environment. Returning students are often surprised, because they do not expect their home to feel new or unfamiliar. Just as global organizations are now aware of the importance of repatriation, so are successful educational institutions. Support staff should be available for returning students. Information sharing should be available for returning students to validate their experiences. Likewise, this information sharing system should be designed with an explicit purpose of knowledge management. This knowledge management system should be designed with codification systems to facilitate student learning.

The experience of reentry shock is common not only because the individual student has acclimated to their new environment but also because their home country, school, and those individuals they knew have often changed in some ways. Likewise, during the initial period of culture shock the student often idealizes their home country and, therefore, returns to an environment that they do not remember. It is helpful to have support staff by way of either regularly employed professionals in the international office or temporary student peer mentors who are available as a form of support. An additional supportive mechanism for re-adjustment involves acknowledging an exchange student's experience by providing an outlet for sharing information with home institution peers and faculty. A secondary, though perhaps equally important, aspect of this information sharing process is knowledge management.

Knowledge management is generally defined as the conscious management of creating, disseminating, evolving, and applying knowledge for strategic purposes. In this particular case, the knowledge is used both for educational purposes and program process improvements. Knowledge management would, thus, consist of transferring, transforming, and harvesting knowledge for future institutional purposes. While multiple frameworks for distinguishing between different 'types of' knowledge exist, one proposed framework for categorizing the dimensions of knowledge distinguishes between tacit and explicit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is conceptualized as the internalized knowledge an individual may not be consciously aware of, such as that which is used while performing a routine task. Explicit knowledge represents knowledge that the individual holds consciously in mental focus, in a form that one is better able to articulate and communicate to others.

Early organizational research suggests that a successful knowledge management effort needs to convert the more difficult to access internalized tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge so that it can be shared, while at the same time permitting individuals to internalize and make personally meaningful any knowledge retrieved during the knowledge management process. One strategy used by organizations, including educational institutions, involves individuals explicitly encoding knowledge into some sort of shared repository, such as an organization-wide accessible database. Known as the codification approach to knowledge management, these strategies include communities of practice (a group of individuals who share a professional interest), best practice-sharing sessions, and internal benchmarking studies. While some of these codification processes only require participation, some may involve technology such as intranets, blogs, wikis, and other electronic repositories.

PLU, for instance, utilizes several codification processes. Rather than specific technologies, this procedure is largely a face-to-face format organized into knowledge transfer meetings. First, the university alternates yearly between an international symposium on a major global topic and an event called World Conversations, wherein faculty and students share their experiences abroad. In addition, students are invited to attend weekly discussion groups referred to as Returner Reflections, wherein students are able to reflect on their experiences, provide a realistic preview for students who are considering studying away, and act as peer mentors by providing advice. These meetings are in addition to several paid positions, called Sojourner Advocates, wherein returnees act as student mentors tasked with counseling peers about education abroad.

Lessons Learned

While the authors of this chapter have varying levels and lengths of involvement with exchange programs, as well as differing interests in the international domains of our respective fields, we have acquired some valuable lessons learned in a combined 50-plus years of exchange program involvement, leadership of tens of study abroad courses, multiple international university site directorships, and accrued faculty development arrangements, such as international Fulbright Scholarships.

In our view, international curriculum should simply be requisite to education in which business management or consulting is a focus. We often use the terms international or global business, but it is somewhat redundant to refer to "international" or "global" business education. The modern business environment is one that involves people and organizations that are globally interconnected; so those programs that do not provide global perspectives are somewhat remiss in their educational duties. We also have found exchange programs to be an integral aspect of such an education, and as such, we would like to share several lessons learned over the years, which we hope will be helpful for those professionals internationalizing their curriculum by creating formal exchange agreements.

Choosing Strategic Partners

Institutional partners should be chosen with an emphasis on strategic alignment. Broadly speaking, this advice means choosing schools that are in strategically important countries and cities, as well as schools that complement the competencies being fostered at your university (see Van de Water et al. 2008 for more considerations). While it is a great benefit to have an international emphasis in the mission and strategic plan of the college or university, it is equally important to choose international partners that align with the broader goals of the department, school, college, or university. If a fundamental value of the university is service, then consideration should be given to those regions of the world where service orientation is likely to be most effective. If the university emphasizes science and technology, then areas of the world where these fields are advanced and students stand much to gain should be considered. For a decision at the department or school level consideration should be given to the appropriate level of strategy—for instance, a business school known for its work in the discipline of environmental sustainability should give preference to those regions of the world known for their sustainable environmental business, or "green" economic. There are multiple benefits to this approach. In addition to further signaling the comparative advantage of the department or university, the faculty are likely to benefit from collaboration with peers and development of expertise, further strengthening the school's reputation. Additionally, because the exchange programs are largely a function of faculty interest and support, it is likely that the interest of participating faculty will not wane.

Scalability

It is important to choose a path to establishing an exchange program of the scale that works for your particular college or university. The number of institutional partnerships and locations that enables the volume of student exchanges at a resource-rich university with an average enrollment of 30,000 and strong global education mission will surely differ from a university of modest resources with enrollment of less than 10,000 and weak administrative support. While both should be able

to internationalize their curriculum via an exchange program, the former is likely to enable sustainable partnerships with multiple institutions in disparate locations, whereas the latter is more likely to benefit from focusing resources on strong partnerships with fewer institutions that are strategically aligned in terms of mission. It does not take an abundance of resources or enrollment to establish an effective exchange program, but fewer resources that require more thoughtful execution (for a detailed case, see Cort et al. 2003). Ensuring that there is enough support to reach the scale that is appropriate for your institution and strategy is paramount. This practice will help avoid establishing an exchange partnership that results in transferring fewer than the target number of transfer students (which should be outlined in the exchange agreement).

Faculty Involvement

Faculty enthusiasm is critical. Recruiting, hiring, developing, and retaining faculty whose professional and scholarly interests are in accord with your exchange program goals are important for meeting and sustaining program goals. Faculty are the first line of advertisement to students regarding international exchange coursework. Likewise, faculty will often be the ones keeping relationships warm at partner institutions. Therefore, hiring faculty with a research stream with a global emphasis likely will sustain the program. Additionally, supporting curricular development and faculty development to enhance exchange relationships will have a positive impact on international curriculum, home country curriculum, and faculty research. Faculty engagement will be enhanced considerably by participation in consortiums, as well as development opportunities funded by the US federal government.

In terms of consortium participation, it is advantageous to be involved with the ACE project, including participation in the ACE Internationalization Collaborative. Additionally, it is helpful for faculty to also participate in local organizations that serve as communities of interest, such as Northwest International Business Educators Network (NIBEN), established in the mid-1980s and currently overseen by the Center for International Business Education and Research (CIBER) at the University of Washington.

Faculty development opportunities wherein the participating individual can spend time studying in a different country can be particularly useful. PLU faculty participated in multiple Fulbright grant opportunities, including China 1982–1983, Norway 1992–1993, and Poland 1999–2000. The China 1982–1983 Fulbright grant, which involved teaching management to Chinese students (something very new since the market had just liberalized in 1979), resulted in one faculty developing a lifelong interest in business in China, which helped sustain exchange relationships with two Gateway Campuses.

Finally, Title VI-B grants, while a source of funding, also allow for additional faculty participation in internationalizing curriculum. At PLU, the business school received two US Department of Education Title VI-B grants. The first, 1984–1986, was awarded for the purpose of internationalizing PLU's BBA curriculum. The

second was designed to enhance trade. It was a 1996–1998 US–China Trade Development grant, under the Department of Education's Business and International Education program (along with the corporate partner of World Trade Center, Tacoma). This second grant involved funding faculty development by way of study tours of China, full semester visits of students to Sun Yat-Sen University (a University which PLU shares an exchange relationship with to this day), as well as educating faculty and members of the World Trade Center on business in China. Each of the examples above demonstrates faculty-led initiatives that funded, transformed, and sustained an internationalized curriculum.

The Importance of Interdisciplinary Partnerships

Regardless of whether your institution encourages interdisciplinary partnering for research or pedagogy, it is typically advantageous for the long-run to not leave the viability of the partnership to be dependent on one department. Depending on the number of faculty and workload of faculty within your department or school, it will be more or less advantageous to involve faculty in other disciplines. Increasing the number of faculty who have a relationship with your exchange partner and involving other departments will likely result in higher quantity of student involvement, which in turn will likely increase the likelihood that the program will be sustainable over time—even as the interest and involvement of your department faculty may ebb and flow. At PLU, there has been a long-standing cross-disciplinary committee with a focus on international education. In the 1980s, an International Education Committee was formed to approve student applications for study abroad, which evolved into what is now the Global Education Committee, tasked to not only approve study abroad applicants but also evaluate student grant proposals seeking funding and other development opportunities. This committee has been particularly important for sustaining university-wide internationalization of curriculum.

Conclusion

The continued proliferation of exchange programs should serve to bolster the number of recent graduates possessing the cross-cultural competencies necessary for entry-level global roles. These competencies are likely to result in innovative and high-quality decision making, high levels of critical analysis and thought, stimulation of diverse viewpoints, enhanced cognitive development, higher levels of satisfaction, improved leadership, as well as higher levels of broad and important Intercultural Competencies such as Global Mindset and CQ.

While, the benefits are numerous, the resources necessary to establish an effective exchange program are even more numerous. The need for leadership support from the university down to the department level is critical. Clearly specified goals and strategies driven by, and connected to, the institutional mission are necessary. Funding, by way of endowment, tuition, government support, and other sources will

have to be adequate and continuous. Finally, the work associated with effectively managing a program is great, requiring a dedicated center for maintaining control, accountability, student services (e.g., preparation and repatriation), and any other programmatic needs. However, the reward of an international exchange program is both great and necessary.

Appendix

Checklist for establishing and sustaining a unique international exchange program

1. Institutional Commitment
   - The study abroad program has been designed in accord with the department, school, or university educational strategy
   - There is clear overlap between the internationalization efforts of the department or school and the university
   - The educational institution has established study abroad as a key element of the educational process
   - There are financially sustainable plans to support study abroad
   - The exchange program is an integral part of academic life
   - There are necessary systems and processes to provide institutional oversight

2. Study Abroad Infrastructure
   - Institutional barriers (such as inflexible major curricula) that restrict student access to study abroad have been identified and removed
   - A study abroad management office has been established
   - A structured approach to planning for course approval and credit transfer is in place
   - Policies have been established to guide credit transfer
   - A process is in place to review exchange program options and respond to academic opportunity and student need
   - Systems for international faculty (i.e., faculty of study abroad courses, program leaders, and site directors) selection, training, support, and debriefing have been established
   - Systems have been established to manage the health and safety of students (and participating faculty) abroad
   - Systems have been established to manage institutional risk of having students abroad
   - A regular program evaluation has been established for the purpose of continuous program improvement

3. Adequate Resources
   - There are experienced personnel to lead a study abroad office
   - Financial aid opportunities have been established to encourage student participation

- Fundraising opportunities have been established to encourage student participation
- Policies have been put in place to control the costs (at least maintaining "cost-neutral") associated with the program
- Secondary revenue-generating possibilities (e.g., marketing program for use by other institutions) of the program have been identified
- A system for replacing outgoing faculty, academically and financially, is in place

4. Clarity and Accountability
   - Key stakeholders, who have an interest in the successful exchange program, have been identified
   - Metrics have been established for regular assessment of program effectiveness (e.g., net cost, academic quality and content, student and staff experiences)
   - A plan has been designed for communicating critical information related to the program needs to relevant stakeholders
   - Clear contracting and auditing procedures are in place to guard against issues such as conflict of interest

5. Student Preparation
   - A process has been established for selecting students who will be successful in the study abroad program
   - A cross-cultural training program is in place to enable students to develop competencies to effectively adjust to studying abroad
   - A predeparture training has been designed to prepare students for the logistics of the program
   - A support system (e.g., emergency numbers and study abroad office personnel) is available at the home intuition for students while abroad
   - Resources are available for students to receive debriefing at a minimum and counseling upon returning

6. Student Repatriation
   - Support staff are available for returning students
   - Information sharing is available for returning students to validate their experiences
   - A knowledge management system has been designed, with specific codification systems, to facilitate student learning

A Note on Outsourcing

The above checklist is designed for institutions that will develop and manage their own exchange program. There are established third-party organizations that offer for-fee program management services. Institutional strategy and resources will dictate the decision to outsource; however, one should take into account the costs and benefits associated with developing a program without a third party. The costs of

designing, delivering, sustaining an exchange program may seem unwieldy. Indeed, the costs are many; time, money, expertise, focus, and risk management that could be used elsewhere. However, there are many benefits to managing the program at one's own institution: tuition dollars and tuition discounts kept within the institutional budget, seamless integration of study abroad experiences with university curriculum and mission, greater opportunity for "internationalization of the campus," faculty development opportunities to enrich teaching, learning, and research, unique programs as positive marketing brands for the university, marketing of study abroad programs to students at other universities to bring in external revenue, to name a few.

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Part III
Competencies

Chapter 8
I/O Cross-Cultural Competencies: Enhancing Creativity and Innovation in Organizations

Barbara Kożusznik and Małgorzata W. Kożusznik

Foreword

One day I, Barbara, got a call from Richard Griffith who suggested writing this chapter. He proposed describing which knowledge, skills, and attitudes were necessary to convey work and organizational psychologists into such positions as managers and workers in contemporary organizations. One characteristic of these modern organizations is that they are becoming more and more global and diversified. They are places in which a blending of workers coming from different countries (internationalization) occurs; places where large homogenous groups (e.g., men) work together but individual tokens appear (e.g., women holding managerial posts), and places where we meet persons with disabilities often constitute minorities— few young people managing the older ones, and where an *old* culture encounters a *new* one.

I became aware then that this phenomenon also concerns me much as I have been working in international associations, collaborating with people of different national and cultural backgrounds, working as a consultant and advisor for companies in Poland for a long time, and observing incredible diversity and cross-cultural differences in corporate teams in that capacity. I realized how difficult it is for me to overcome time, linguistic, and cultural differences between Americans and Poles, between the Chinese and the Turkish. I also realized what difficulties arise in Polish companies are a result of *multiculturality* (culturally diverse nature of human society) that entails a dynamic phenomenon which could be referred to as

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interculturality, any aspect of any processes involving, shared by, and existing between cultures. Facing American–Polish–Chinese and Turkish interactions, I come across unfamiliar customs and attitudes to work shown by other nations, as well as unknown procedures and habits. Confusing situations more frequently took me by surprise, and I had to face phenomena characteristic of other work cultures demonstrated by women, persons with disabilities, the younger, and the better educated than us (e.g., information technology (IT) specialists whose work often determines effective performance of our tasks).

Work and organizational psychologists should demonstrate *cross-cultural competencies* (conceptualized here as learned abilities to adequately perform a task, duty, or role in a cross-cultural labor context) by sharing their knowledge, skills, and attitudes with managers, leaders, and workers and by assisting them in identification of cultural differences and the ways in which these differences impact the behavior of more culturally diversified superiors, subordinates, and corporate teams. This confrontation of different worlds, languages, generations, or genders causes misunderstandings which we try to resolve, while, simultaneously, this contact with other cultures gives us a one-of-a-kind opportunity to create something new, inimitable, unique, and uncommon. As results from a number of research findings and observations suggest, if we create conditions for cultural diversity to develop, there will appear new ideas and innovative solutions in the form of synergic effects (Kanter 2009; 1983).

As work and organizational psychologists, we are equipped with a number of instruments to overcome cross-cultural barriers and differences in organizations. A model of such competencies for a work and organizational psychologist designed by Roe (2002) and Bartram and Roe (2005) and developed by European Network of Organizational Psychologists (2009) is based on logically related six professional competencies (i.e., goal specification, assessment, development, intervention, evaluation, and communication). Psychologists learn, among many others skills, such things as collecting information, analyzing customers' needs, interviewing, conducting tests, observations and job analysis, organizing trainings, and group interventions. Their work is based on well-designed and reliable methods and instruments.

Simultaneously, we observe some difficulties in inventing products catering the needs of diverse customers and there is a new strategic task for organizations to establish innovation teams of international and cross-cultural members (Bouncken and Winkler 2008, 2010) to create global products with a deep comprehension of patterns of consumption in different countries. That is why I/O psychologists should acquire new competencies because the prepared models of how to deal with a cross-cultural diverse group to make them innovative do not exist. A new challenge for the I/O psychologists' education is to educate them as more creative, responsible, and able to help to foster innovation in cross-cultural teams. It means that the process of education of I/O psychologists should be supplemented by the stimulation of the right hemisphere, for example, by (a) promoting their creativity which involves the production of novel, useful products (Mumford 2003); (b) empathy as a mean for identification with the others and understanding of another person's situation, feelings, and motives (Pink 2005); (c) cognitive flexibility as the ability

to restructure knowledge in multiple ways depending on the changing situational demands (i.e., difficulty or complexity of the situation) (Spiro et al. 2007) to help develop the learner's ability to understand various situations (Graddy 2001); or (d) relation competences understood as ensuring an effective diagnosis of the situation and a flexible use of I/O skills in the right moment, depending on the phase of the innovation process (Kożusznik 2006).

At the present time, in the so-called conceptual era (Pink 2005, 2008), work and organizational psychologists need new tools which will teach them not only how to deal with cross-cultural differences but also how to support diversity and inter-culturality to use them as a source of innovation and novel solutions. To achieve a synergic effect thanks to the multicultural diversity, the potential of a human's right-brain hemisphere, responsible, among others, for creativity, use of language, and empathy (in contrast to the logical and mathematical left hemisphere), should be used to a greater extent, which entails an increased use of creative abilities and empathy (Pink 2005). Additionally, managers and leaders of cross-cultural organizations should be taught how to look for similarities in human behaviors, as well as values and life experiences, which in turn will promote building of mutual trust and will be conducive to innovative solutions.

An idea came to my mind that, since the confrontation of diversities results in the creation of innovative things—and thus, it is necessary to overcome barriers between cultures, genders, generations, or religions—why not write this text using the diversity within my own family? So, I proposed my daughter Gosia, who is also a work and organizational psychologist, to work together. Gosia has been living and working in Spain; she has grown into that culture, and not only does she represent the viewpoint of another culture, but she also speaks up for the standpoint of a psychologist from a different generation educated through other models. I also invited my husband, who always asks me to keep him updated on relevant psychological curiosities. My husband Janusz is a satirical cartoonist, an energy engineer by education. He expresses his thoughts by means of his drawings, and he often illustrates my texts. The text below is our common creation, aiming at offering new solutions and to provide something which goes beyond the sum of our individual capabilities. We wrote this chapter together attempting to apply Pink's toolkit to cross-cultural I/O and to use the techniques he proposed, such as empathy (it is easier to empathize with another person in a family), design (we used Janusz's cartoons), storytelling (different generations pleasurably spinning stories), symphony (a family in its entirety wholeness), and meaning (we are bound by the conviction that we attend to some greater value than we are ourselves). They had to conform to the rules of disposing of and reducing their own influence in this small team to enable all our individual potentials to come into being entirely. Our common goal was to describe competencies which work and organizational psychologists should master with the purpose of promoting innovativeness in contemporary organizations.

From now on, therefore, we are writing together, as a cross-cultural team supported by Janusz's drawings.

Barbara Kożusznik

Introduction

Globalization is not a new phenomenon, but its scale and speed is greater than any time before (Kinnvall 2004). It is the process of increasing movement and border crossing, which allows the exchange of goods, services, ideas, and practices across cultures (Hermans and Kempen 1998; Manners 2000). Globalization is an ambiguous process during which its inherent homogenizing tendencies (Meyer and Geschiere 1999) imply intensifying heterogeneity, which may lead to a sharpening of cultural contrasts or even causing new oppositions (Hermans and Dimaggio 2007). That is why work increasingly relying on internationally connected processes not only creates opportunities but also can be a source of threat and constitute barriers for organizational effectiveness. With the aid of psychological expertise, in this chapter we would like to analyze the possible ways of overcoming these obstacles. We will make an emphasis on a key role of psychology in supporting and developing inventiveness, especially in a cross-cultural context. We will outline the main characteristics of the new era in which we are currently living, the Conceptual Age (Pink 2005), and explain why it requires some special competencies to enhance innovativeness and creativity of individual workers and working groups when dealing with cross-cultural constraints. We will describe six conceptual competences (Pink 2005): empathy, stories, design, symphony, play, and meaning that we suggest industrial/organization (I/O) psychologists should include in their repertoire of training methods and other activities in order to build the foundations for openness towards new cultures and diversity, and creating new solutions at work. In addition, we will comment on the concept of *deinfluentization* (DEI) (Kożusznik 2005) which is a meta-skill that can govern an efficient behavior in the cross-cultural organizations of the Conceptual Age and consists of regulating, reducing, or withdrawing one's own influence, to offer space for the influence of others whose influence fits better the demands of the situation.

Overcoming Cross-Cultural and Diversity Barriers in Organizations. Psychological Cross-Cultural Competency Training.

Frequent intercultural contacts require an effective communication process between individuals from different cultures. In such a successful cross-cultural communication are often involved nuances that are readily understood by all participants (Molinsky et al. 2005). The process of learning how to communicate in an appropriate manner for our own culture (i.e., encode and decode messages) is complex as it occurs through socialization of our culture's norms, beliefs, values, and rules (Gudykunst et al. 1996).

It has been suggested that, although there are notable benefits of cross-cultural interactions, cross-cultural reality is a fertile place for misunderstandings between individuals (Glazer et al. 2012). On the one hand, the diversity of mental models

in the multinational enterprises (MNEs) due to its multicultural character can undoubtedly be beneficial for the projects' quality (Barinaga 2007). On the other hand, there are some risks connected to the work in an intercultural context provided the absence of cross-cultural understanding. For example, the lack of proficiency in the nonnative language manifesting itself in grammatical errors may lead to poor perceptions of the message sender if the receiver is unaware of the sender's cross-cultural context (Jessmer and Anderson 2001; Lea and Spears 1992). Also, intercultural work cannot be effective if the members of a team have not built trust and are not familiarized with differences in communication styles (Nurmi 2011). Ayoko et al. (2002) showed that 90 % of respondents of their study reported that over 50 % of conflict among members of diverse teams is attributable to cultural differences in their opinions regarding how work processes should be organized and how people are supposed to interact, to their work orientation, and to language differences. By the same token, these challenges can have a negative impact on organizations; According to the data provided by a study carried out in 2010 by the KPMG international cooperative, 83 % of mergers and acquisitions failed to deliver value due to cultural barriers (KPMG 2011). Therefore, intercultural communication is a potential source of stress (Brislin and Yoshida 1994), which may have deleterious consequences not only for employees' health but also for companies' performance and costs (Bhagat et al. 2010; Podsakoff et al. 2007; Wallace et al. 2009).

Thus, as globalization becomes an increasingly common feature of world economics, interculturality appears as a key process which is, simultaneously, gaining followers in consultancy practice. As a matter of fact, some practices in cross-cultural management emphasize a special necessity to capitalize on cross-cultural differences to generate mutual enrichment (Mondialink Cross-cultural Coaching 2013) that may stem from the diversity of mental models.

Expatriates and members of multicultural work groups in their own countries are often confronted with such difficulties as lack of common understanding with other people who do not share the same values nor interpret the world in the same way as they do. Therefore, it may turn out to be particularly difficult for them to adapt to the foreign culture. For this reason, MNEs often have difficulty retaining expatriates for their international tasks, as they may choose to leave earlier to their own country, before finalizing their projects, producing costs for their companies. Okpara and Kabongo (2011) observe that between 10 and 80 % of expatriates sent abroad on foreign missions return home prematurely. In turn, each failed assignment costs MNEs between US$ 40,000 and US$ 1 million (Hawley 2009; Vögel and van Vuuren 2008). One of the reasons expatriates fail to accomplish their foreign assignments has been found due to being unable to adapt to the target country's culture and, as a result, different types of cross-cultural training delivered to employees and their families have become vital for successful global operations (Okpara and Kabongo 2011), since they demonstrated to have significant and positive effect on expatriates' adjustment (Black and Mendenhall 1990; Okpara and Kabongo 2011; Waxin and Panaccio 2005). We consider this type of training essential in today's context of frequent interactions with foreign clients and of work with multicultural teams formed by the employees from the European economic zone, Asia, and the Americas.

Cross-cultural psychological coaching provides support for individuals and teams in their internationalization process. The coach prepares people for a dialogue between cultures, with the aim of clearing away obstacles and developing each party's potential. This expenditure recoups its value, because a happy expatriate is an efficient expatriate (Smith and Tushman 2005; Thomas 2008). That is why cross-cultural I/O psychologists have a special task to prepare people for the cultural differences they will encounter at their workplace and for the emotional upheavals they are likely to face when they interact for long periods of time with workers, managers, and leaders socialized in other cultures (Brislin and Yoshida 1994). As Cushner and Brislin (1996) and Thomas and Fitzsimmons (2008) define, the goals of interventions to improve cross-cultural competency are the sojourn's enjoyment, that these positive feelings are reciprocated by hosts, that sojourners complete tasks in a reasonable amount of time and in a manner considered appropriate by hosts, and that sojourners experience no more anxiety than if they were carrying out similar tasks in their own countries. Most training programs represent structured efforts to overcome cross-cultural barriers to prepare people for their success in a foreign country and we can divide these programs into the following groups (Brislin et al. 2008; 1999):

1. Cognitive approach programs emphasize the presentation of such facts as the information about the workplace, leisure time activities, ways of interacting effectively with hosts, addressing people at work, appropriate topics for small talk, as well as direct or indirect communication.
2. Self-awareness training attempts to give people insights into the culture's influence on their own behavior, how to identify and challenge culturally based assumptions and stereotypes, and how various individuals and groups with whom one has extensive contacts contribute to people's identity, assisting people in examining how their culture and their previous experience have an impact on their managerial style and on their interactions with coworkers and subordinates.

3. The attributional approach deals with the meaning that people in different cultures attach to behaviors. Trainers using this approach prepare critical incidents to explain the behavior of how cross-culturally competent individuals interpret situations in which there are multiple culturally determined interpretations. A set of this kind of situations is presented to the participants of the program and is followed by a discussion on how to handle divergent perspectives best.
4. Behavioral approaches rest on the assumption that the best way to achieve success in a different culture is the ability to modify one's behavior to act more appropriately from the viewpoint of hosts (Molinsky 2007).

The abovementioned trainings and coaching are successfully used to overcome not only cross-cultural barriers of different nations but also the obstacles of such differences as gender, age, religion, and education level of workers (Brislin et al. 2008; Kessler and Wong-mingli 2009).

Conceptual Age Challenges: Diversity and Cross-Cultural Trends as a Chance for Innovativeness and Creativity in Organizations

The notion of *Conceptual Age* was first used by Alan Greenspan in his speech at Connecticut University in 1997 during which he stated that there has been a colossal increase in demands on workers not only in terms of know-how or information but also regarding conceptual properties they possess (i.e., their command of creative, analytic, and transforming skills as well as effective interaction of those skills). Daniel Pink (2005) clarifies the way the economy of information society based on knowledge is converting the Information Age into the Conceptual Age in which the economy consists of creativity, innovation, and the ability to design and change reality for the purpose of attaining market competitiveness, particularly in the global world. In the global world, developments have been occurring on a grand scale; nevertheless, there has been a shift in emphasis from the economy focused on production to the economy concentrating on services and information processing (Huitt 1999, 2007; Naisbitt 1982; Toffler 1981, 1990). Several authors have anticipated (Handy 1990; Buzan 2007; Kurzweil 1999; Pink 2005) the appearance of a new Conceptual Age and they suggested the necessary knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary for the success in this new era (Huitt 2007).

   The Conceptual Age can be viewed as a continuation of the Information Age. The following trends became a base of the Conceptual Age which can be treated as an extension and elaboration of the Information Age (Huitt 1999): (a) the widespread access to technologies applied for gaining, processing, storing, accessing, and using information (Internet use is of special importance here); (b) the tempo of creating new technologies and mass production; (c) the need of simultaneous development of technologies and social skills; as well as (d) the ease of transferring them across borders (Huitt 1999, 2007). The Conceptual Age is also a consequence of decentralization (Huitt 1999) and client-oriented economy. We can also observe changes in the workforce such as (a) *dejobbing* (employment for a fixed time period) which is more common than employment on a full-time basis and refers to

people taking up multiple posts, different kinds of work, and different occupations within their lifetime; (b) the appearance of a phenomenon of the so-called *multiple careers*, which means an average of 10–12 jobs within 3–5 careers over a working lifetime (Huitt 1999); and (c) stress on entrepreneurship and intensification of home business. Moreover, we have observed a shift in responsibility for such burdens as the cost of health care and retirement to the individual, as well as an increased focus on institutional assistance and a reduction in government support networks. Thanks to medical advances prolonging human life, an increasing number of people will live up to 100 years (Canton 2006). There are some noticeable economic possibilities resulting from this trend; Kotlikoff and Burns (2004) underline that it will cause economic tension greater than has ever been experienced, particularly in the scope of medical care and finances designated for pension benefits, which also have contributed to the foundations for the Conceptual Age.

Pink (2006) supplements the above catalogue of causes that have led to the formation of the Conceptual Age with the occurrence of three significant factors: (a) abundance, (b) Asia, and (c) automation. They constitute main grounds for the appearance of the totally new demands and challenges. They represent factors of necessary changes that enable well-developed countries of Europe, the USA, and Japan to continue to successfully compete with other markets, Asian markets in the first place.

Abundance

Pink (2005) states that the majority of US inhabitants, similar to other citizens of postindustrial states, possess a sufficient amount of material goods. However, it does not imply the satisfaction of their desires and aspirations; instead, it means that people are more likely to desire to have their other needs satisfied, in addition to the basic ones. For example, income matters to happiness (e.g., Diener et al. 2003), however, only to a certain extent. Graham (2005) cites statistics showing that a sense of happiness in a society is positively related to income and it will increase until the income reaches a specific limit which is about US\$ 8,000 per head (Huitt 1999). When this limit is reached, an income increase does not seem to be linked with the sense of happiness. As a result, other factors, such as growing aspirations, relative income differences, or security, have come to the front (Graham 2005; Huitt 2007). During his interview with Oprah Winfrey, Pink (2008) stated that the abundance of goods we possess changes our manner of perceiving material goods. That is, we no longer want to have things—we want to have *cool* things; we want well-designed things; we want things which convey meaning.

Asia

Pink (2005) observes that the developing economy and political significance of Asian countries, especially China and India, have an impact on economic activities of the whole globe. These two countries have almost a half of the Earth's population.

They have emerged into giant economies of the twenty-first century and are regarded as the "success stories" of globalization (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh 2010, p. 1).

China and India are crucial players among the global industry and top countries chosen for outsourcing; India is preferred for outsourcing by 24 % and China by 18 % of the US chief financial officers (CFOs) (Sourcing Line Computer Economics 2012). China is usually described as the "factory" of the world through the expansion of manufacturing production, while India is considered the "office" of the world, due to its ability to an IT-enabled service sector offshoring (Chandrasekhar and Ghosh 2007, p. 1).

One of the reasons why industrialized countries outsource a lot of work to these countries has been the exceptionally cheap, large, and relatively trained workforce they offer. There are growing numbers of young people who finish their education at the university level. For example, India has capitalized on its large educated English-speaking population to become a major exporter of IT services, business outsourcing services, and software workers (CIA 2013) India's universities produce almost 3 million new graduates each year with about 16 % focusing on science and technology (Sourcing Line Computer Economics 2010); the number of Indian higher technical studies graduates released per year reaches 350,000 (Konrad 2003).

In turn, in China, the investments in Chinese education are elevating China to be the world's largest provider of university-level educated workers. In fact, China has the most number of university graduates every year and is followed by the USA, India, and Russia (Sourcing Line Computer Economics 2010). By 2030, the McKinsey Global Institute estimates that China will account for 30 % of the world's new college-educated employees, while, in comparison, advanced countries (including the USA, Japan, and much of Europe) collectively will account for only 14 % of new highly educated employees (Censky 2012).

The USA admits that some remote or offshore employees from Asia are particularly skilled (Mithas and Lucas 2010). In fact, contributions of the foreign workers were associated to a substantial increase of US multinationals' innovation in computers and electronics industries in the 2000s (Foley 2011) which we consider related to the growth in innovation among Chinese and Indian ethnicities, which have increased from under 3 % in the late 1970s to 10 and 7 %, respectively in the last decade (Foley 2011).

Due to their strengthening economy and manufacturers seeking cheap but qualified workforce, India and China have posed a challenge for postindustrial countries of North America and Europe.

Automation

Automation is the third factor identified by Pink (2005) that forms new challenges of the Conceptual Age by referring to Moore's law of integrated circuit elaborated in 1970 which anticipates that the number of components per integrated circuit doubles every 24 months. In other words, Moore's law predicts the doubling of computational power for computer processors every 2 years (Kurzweil 1999, 2001). It means that in the year 2023, there will be computers having the processing power of a human brain available for US$ 1,000, and the same computers in 2037 will cost about 1 cent (Huitt 1999).

Key Role of Psychology in Supporting and Developing Inventiveness

Facing the above-described constantly intensifying phenomena, the question of how our postindustrial world is supposed to survive and cope with competition appears. Numerous authors like Handy (1999); Dent (2006); Buzan (2007); Kurzweil (2001); and Pink (2005) maintain that it is not traditional knowledge workers but creators and sensitive, empathic individuals who will help organizations survive in the postindustrial countries in Europe, USA, Canada, or Japan. These organizations, in order not to cease to exist, are awaiting the next transformation—knowledge workers have to be replaced or supplemented by workers of concepts, full of ideas and empathy. In the Conceptual Age, traditional jobs such as legal, accounting, engineering ones can be outsourced and performed by cheaper workforce. However, creativity cannot be outsourced and the era of the domination of the left-brain hemisphere responsible for logical thinking and mathematical skills is coming to an end (Pink 2005). Organizations will be able to survive only due to the activation of right hemisphere possibilities, which entails an increased use of empathy and creative abilities such as inventiveness, resourcefulness, and meaning—which will constitute the foundations of the organizational success (Pink 2008).

In the world of abundance of goods and services, new tasks to be undertaken by organizations consist of providing customers such products which will embody special meaning since prosperity periods prompt societies to ask fundamental questions with regard to the overall condition of a human life (Pink 2005; Seligman 2002). People became aware of a necessity of changes in consumption and production, and people more frequently search for values which go beyond material consumption (Aburdene 2005); they search for the meaning (Frankl 1984; Handy 1990; Maslow 1971). These changes influence society in the following manner (Aburdene 2005):

1. Value-oriented consumption: consumers who form the minority at present, but will become the majority in the next decades. These consumers seek products and services corresponding to their values.
2. Spirituality in business: a number of organizations have already laid emphasis on meaning and spiritual values; they strive to find talented workers oriented towards the realization of important values to achieve business success, to create social goods.

3. Socially responsible investments which represent another aspect of consumption geared at the realization of values.

Canton (2006) emphasizes that we are in the era embedding values into economic activity. Workers and entrepreneurs are facing the pressure exerted by globalization, given that consumers have an incredibly fast access to information and have their material needs excessively satisfied. Whether the European countries and the USA manage to cope with these pressures will depend on the ability to embed values into economic activity and on the employment of knowledge, attitudes, and skills indispensable in this era.

For that reason, it is innovativeness and creativity that will be a decisive factor conditioning whether people survive or not. There is a need of delivering innovative products to the market in global environment. Also, it is not easy to gather members of the work teams with each member educated in a different international background with diversity of values to create global products with deep understanding of patterns of consumption in different countries West (2002). This is often a source of misunderstandings between individuals, and the cause of poor running and poor performance (Bouncken and Winkler 2008).

Due to the cultural barriers, it is known that today 80 % of mergers and acquisitions in companies do not reach their objectives (Bouncken and Winkler 2008). Faced with the globalization of economic and human exchanges, companies and people have a growing need to have an in-depth preparation for mobility, as this development has consequences on their performance (Bartlett and Goshal 1990; Gassmann and keupp 1997; Gupta and Govindarajan 1994).

The diversity in values can cause disagreements and have negative effects on team moral and efficiency (Jehn et al. 1999). That is why it is very important to know how cross-cultural differences influence the innovation process. The research on how different behaviors and values in different cultural backgrounds affect the process and the results of innovation is rather scarce. There are some examples of the research on teams from different cultural backgrounds (Kirkman and Shapiro 2005). Some research concerns collectivist cultural dimension influence on group competition (Triandis and Bontempo 1988) or self-efficacy in teamwork (Eby and Dobbins 1997). Unfortunately, to the best of our knowledge, the analysis of how cultural profile of a work team affects one another and creativity, innovativeness, and effectiveness is uncommon. There is a big task ahead of an I/O psychologist to study this problem to be able to analyze, intervene, and help cross-cultural teams to explore and effectively use all possible consequences of their functioning and to study and exploit the effects of cross-cultural teamwork on innovation.

According to the research results, we are aware that cross-cultural teams composed of the members of different functional background, behavior, personality, and values can have positive influence on innovation given the opportunity for sharing heterogeneous knowledge and experience. Benefits of cultural diversity is a prominent ingredient for innovation because it could enable teams to unfold their creative capacity (Lewis et al. 2002; Smith and Tushman 2005), but, as Jansen et al. (2004) say, we may observe some hazardous issues in the teams: distrust, threat, and anxiety which can ruin the innovation process (Kurtzberg 2005). That is why the

successful innovation in cross-cultural teams and organizations depends on creating the special conditions, for example, shared leadership in culturally diverse innovation teams as well as participation in decision making to help minorities to increase the innovation in organization (De Dreu 2001).

To fully capitalize on the richness of cross-cultural teams, we must know that teamwork itself cannot guarantee successful innovation and as I/O psychologists we should serve the process of providing support for individuals and teams in their internationalization process. I/O psychologists must have tools to enable permanent dialogue between cultures, with the aim of clearing away obstacles and developing each party's potential. I/O psychologists should equip managers so they are able to help their subordinates in working on the international arena to develop an understanding of the foreign cultural context, while at the same time maintaining a command of their professional activity. This type of management entails creativity, empathy, understanding, respect, and orientation towards value-driven business. It means that psychological factors are becoming crucial to innovations and to economy.

Periodicals such as Forbes or the Wall Street Journal are united in the conviction that the economic increase in the USA and in the developed European countries will be based on innovations, on the development of new products, and the development of new consumption (Markman 2009). Implementation of the new ideas into the market and their adaptation to the new consumer values will determine economic success. All this means that psychology and its findings are key, since innovations are devised relying on new concepts, which psychology helps us to create and stimulate by providing us with necessary knowledge. This psychological knowledge clarifies how the new ideas and concepts should be brought into practice (thanks to proper transfer allowing for psychosocial barriers) and how to manage innovative implementation processes by lowering psychological resistances towards changes.

I/O psychologists should think about the new tools that they could use to stimulate innovativeness. In the cross-cultural context of contemporary organizations, enhancing innovativeness can be accomplished with the use of training and education which concentrate not only on removing barriers between coworkers, managers, and their teams due to their cross-cultural nature, but also on revealing and bringing out their unique "mixture" of common traits and values. For instance, special psychological training based on creative potential of cross-cultural teams can be applied to generate innovative solutions. Cross-cultural teams and the minorities that form them offer a fresh glance at most organizational problems (Crisp and Hewstone 1999; Gaetner and Dovidio 2000). De Dreu and Van de Vliert (1997) affirm that the suppression of a minority's influence and opinion results in the diminution of creativity, innovativeness, independence, and individuality. Nemeth and Staw (1989) argue that in cross-cultural groups, the lack of consensus concerning ideas and tasks is welcome, because it can lead to a better understanding of purpose, strategy, or methods of performance. De Dreu (2001) suggests that the diversity of opinions and even the lack of agreement and acceptance in a cross-cultural or diverse work group are indispensable for a well-functioning system and for its adjustment and adaptation to environment requirements. In the next section, we suggest some

conceptual methods to be learned and applied by I/O psychologists and then by managers and leaders to enhance innovativeness in an organization in cross-cultural and diverse work teams.
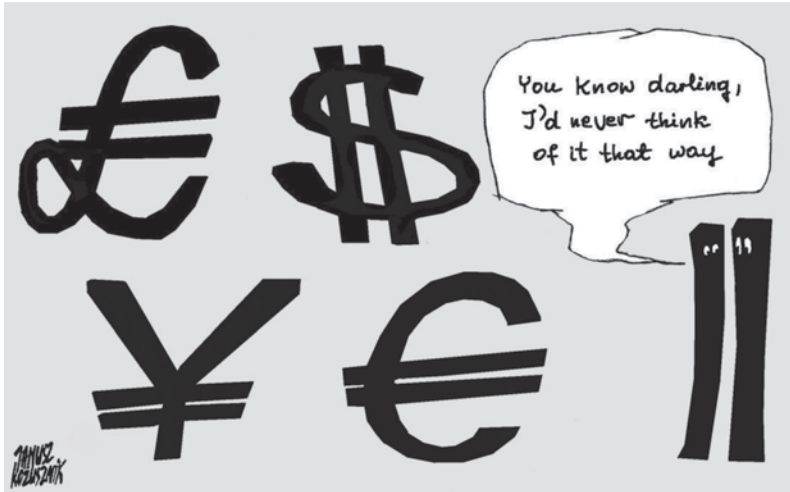
Conceptual Cross-Cultural I/O Competencies to Stimulate Creativity and Innovativeness in Organizations

Some competencies, methods, ideas, phenomena, and instruments can be referred to as conceptual ones. We hope that applying them will activate the right hemisphere of the individual workers and working groups and will enhance their innovativeness and creativity, especially dealing with cross-cultural constraints. We suggest I/O psychologists include them in their repertoire of training methods and other activities. We also propose that psychologists design special *conceptual sessions* as well as try to saturate their traditional cross-cultural training with new conceptual ideas.

First, we will describe six new competences based on Pink's (2005) work: empathy, stories, design, symphony, play, and meaning. Applying them at work could build the foundations for openness towards new cultures and diversity, and create new solutions at work. Then, we will explain the idea of DEI, a *meta*-concept of reducing and withdrawing one's influence to offer space for the influence of others whose influence fits better the demands of the situation.

Empathy

Empathy is the ability to imagine oneself in someone else's position and to intuit what that person is feeling (Pink 2005). It is an act of imaginative derring-do, a kind

of mimicry. This is a competency which should supplement logical and critical thinking, as it allows to look at a particular situation from the perspective of the other.

Empathy enables us to work together, but it was not given much attention or even importance in the Information Age. People undervalued emotions and consider showing them a sign of weakness. In the Information Age, people prefer numbers and cool decision making. Oprah Winfrey and Bill Clinton are contradicting the norm expressed in the Information Age (Pink 2008); they maintain that leadership is about emotions, is about empathy. It is about the ability to relate with people to inspire their lives as well as the ability to adequately read people's true emotions and feelings. Peters (2003) underlines the need for empathy towards new groups of consumers. Women are the main consumer group in the USA. They are initiators of: all consumer decisions (83 %), house furniture buying (94 %), holiday plans (92 %), new house buying (91 %), electronics shopping (51 %), car choice (60 %), new bank accounts (89 %), and health care decisions (80 %). The conclusion is that the main consumers in the USA are women and, consequently, the empathy is needed to know what they really need. Women are more emotional than men, more cooperative, open, and communicative (Peters 2003). Also, there is a wide gap in *management guru* knowledge and their perception of market potential. They treat women in a patronizing way (Peters 2003). However, in today's economy women have their own money (not from their male relatives or husbands) and they represent the basic market (not niche). Thus, organizations should design new products with women in mind. The traditional market analysis should supplement the logical approach with a deeper understanding of consumer needs and with empathy as new tools which can help to meet the market demands.

The other example is Brazil and the empathy the politicians used in practice by offering poor citizens social help in the form of *Bolsa Familia* (Dowbor 2012). The program offered help in the form of Magnetic Cards instead of real money. These cards were offered to women, and to activate these cards in automated teller machines (ATMs) there were some conditions: first, children had to be sent to schools and second, children had to be registered in a health service. The authors of the project in Brazil decided that the cards should be offered to women based on the assumption that women already are motivated to ensure their children's education and health care (Dowbor 2012).

Finally, when discussing the role of empathy from a cross-cultural perspective, it is worth mentioning the world-renowned Ekman's (2003) studies on facial expressions which showcased that all around the world people reveal their basic emotions in the same way using their facial muscles. The right hemisphere is responsible for adequate reading of facial expressions. As a result, the right hemisphere is very important to supplement our communication with others by interpreting their faces better to detect lying and true emotions such as anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise (Ekman 2003). Pink (2005) gives an example of lawyers in Stanford Business School who learn how to empathize with their clients and how to understand their true needs, or how to read the jury. The empathic abilities help guess the subtext of the negotiation and intuitively know whether one is persuasive. These abilities mean understanding other human beings (Pink 2005).

Empathy as an I/O cross-cultural competency is of particular importance, because it enables us to look at problems from the perspective of American, Chinese, or Polish workers, as well as from the perspective of women, or other minorities in organizations. Empathy is a necessary basic competence, because it allows a person to take into account the perspective of people from other cultures. That is why we may consider this competency the most important one. In a cross-cultural context, we should strive to develop empathy within our organization and our work team. I/O psychologists should learn how to promote the practice of empathy and teach empathy, creating special programs to enable managers, leaders, and workers to be more emphatic, in particular in multicultural and diversified organizations.

Stories

The competency of telling stories refers to the ability to communicate by discovering more profound meanings, by understanding and placing facts in contexts, and by imparting emotional meaning with them (Pink 2005). Taking this definition into account, I/O cross-cultural competency in storytelling can be described as representing facts in a more creative way in a broader cultural context, and imparting their emotional meaning. All these provide illustrations, metaphors, or analogies of the cultural values they are embedded in and enable deeper understanding. Many stories are culturally bound and caution should be taken when using them to make sure they can be translated and adapted to other cultures. However, great stories often have themes that resonate in many cultures. Stories are also easy to remember, because our thinking is organized in stories (and not as isolated facts?) (Turner 1998). For an effective storytelling, it is necessary to know the communication channels and styles people use and consider appropriate in other cultures (e.g., if the target culture is low context you have to be direct and include plenty of definite information when you communicate, whereas in a high context you have to read between the lines).

In the Information Age, we used to operate basing on facts, because they are easy to access. In contrast, what matters in the Conceptual Age is placing these facts into context and delivering them with emotional impact. Widely known research on decision making recognized an important impact of emotions on the results of human behavior and proved that human beings are susceptible to cognitive errors due to the influence of emotions and irrationality. It suggests that we should treat human mistakes as a kind of obviousness, familiarize with and accustom to them in the context of emotions and irrational thinking (Hastie and Dawes 2001; Kahneman 2011; Kahneman and Tversky 1979). From this perspective, the role of the story competency for I/O psychology means the understanding of something more than facts, rational thinking, and logics; it means that a good understanding is about the essence of human work across cultures and the universality of the basic ingredients comprised in stories and myths all around the world.

Pink (2005) suggests following the same recipe as the basis of Joseph Campbell's (1949) *The hero's journey*. The journey is composed of the departure, initiation, and

return. First, in the phase of departure the hero hears a call, refuses it at first, but then crosses the threshold into a new world. Afterwards, during the initiation phase he faces challenges, stares into the abyss, and then, with the help of mentors, he transforms himself and develops a new self. Finally, in the phase of return, the hero returns and becomes a master of two worlds, committing to improving both of them. We can use this simple and cross-culturally understood schema of myth to understand better the experience and opinions of each member of the cross-cultural work team. On the basis of the story of the hero, we can find a deeper understanding of Homer's Odyssey, the story of Buddha, the legend of King Arthur, Sacagawea, Star Wars, or the Matrix. In a traditional cross-cultural team, the majority of its members can have a story about traveling to a foreign country in search for a job. According to a scheme of the hero's journey—departure, initiation, and return—we can build a strong understanding of basic values and organization mission.

"The story—from Rumplestiltskin to War and Peace—is one of the basic tools invented by the human mind for the purpose of understanding. They have been great societies that did not use the wheel, but there have been no societies that did not tell stories" (Le Guin, cited in Pink (2005, p. 105). Companies use stories to present broader insights about their culture and mission (Denning 2004). Storytelling is a good method to distinguish one's goods and services and to be understood cross-culturally. From the point of cross-cultural business, we can give an example of Steve Jobs' idea to support his Apple products by theater and storytelling. Jobs always demanded beautiful wrapping. He kept telling that the new iPod or iPhone should be exciting and should tell the story from the moment of the first contact— when a customer touches the new box and starts imagining things Blumenthal (2012). There is a story in unwrapping a new laptop and we will always remember the day when our first computer appeared and how our imagination worked and created the story of building a new philosophy of work—creative, independent, and promising new land with the help of this new tool. I/O psychologists' cross-cultural competences should also involve telling stories and elaborate methods of teaching managers, leaders, and workers how to tell them.

Design

This competency implies that it is not sufficient to produce functional services or products; they must also be beautiful and emotionally involving. From the cross-cultural perspective, it is essential to teach people to design objects and spaces in conformity with values and to adapt them to people's authentic needs in cross-cultural diversified contexts of such organizations as hospitals, schools, and so on.

On the basis of the six universal emotions, we can design products, services, experiences, and lifestyles that are not merely functional but also beautiful, whimsical, and emotionally engaging. Regardless of their profession, one must cultivate an artistic sensibility and we all must be designers. Pink (2005) says that design is a classic whole-minded aptitude, a combination of utility and significance. In a world of abundance, design has become a crucial factor for modern business, because people

want to have cool things. A good example of this principle is the Finnish government's program offering Finnish newborn babies a special layette. Seemingly, it is nothing new as Finnish infants have received these outfits from the government since 1937. However, in 2012 something special happened: a special modern layette created by the famous Finnish designer Johanna Osthaggblom replaced the original. We are sure that young parents receiving these beautifully designed, cool products connect them to a value statement. Consciously recognized or not, they send a message to the young parents: we (government) care about you and your children, you are important for the nation, and we want your children to have the best things from the very beginning (Pawlicki 2012).

Frank Nuovo, former Chief of Design for Nokia, says that design can reduce nervousness and it is the simplest way of creating the solutions (Nokia 2006). Johnson (2013) explains that, given that proximity drives innovation, it can be used in the workplace to increase productivity. She gives an example of Adobe (high-tech giant), that opened a new building in Lehi, Utah which was designed in such a way as to give rise to planned and unplanned cooperation and innovation among its workers. To this end, the vast majority of the interior is an open workspace and only 15 % is dedicated to offices. The building comprises several leisure and socializing facilities (e.g., full basketball court, fitness areas, pool tables, a café, eating area, and lounge) thought to stimulate spontaneous interaction between the employees, which, in turn, Adobe expects will translate into generating more innovative ideas and solutions (Johnson 2013)

A work place should also be a repository of charm and good taste. There is a growing body of evidence that suggests improving the design of work settings helps workers work better (Parker, Wall and Cordery 1998). A new question arises: which work place designs are considered appropriate across cultures?

Rather than answering that question, perhaps the focus should be on the ways in which design can promote synergistic effects in cross-cultural work teams. This goal might be accomplished by breaking most of the rules imposed by cultures through the design of provoking and revolutionary objects. A good example is Nika Zupanc, the famous designer known as a rebel and according to her people stop thinking when they are too comfortable. (Olszyna 2012). Perhaps, good design is that which forces us to think outside of schemas and stereotypes to discuss the role of different nations, women, and men in the society, to discuss the role of children, modesty, values? Looking at Niki Zupanc's chairs inspired by women's underwear and his child's black cradle so reminiscent of the Addams family we start to perceive things in not a traditional way and find new solutions, which is particularly important in cross-cultural work teams.

Symphony

This competency concerns the qualities and skills of perceiving the whole picture, combining elements, and perceiving them in reciprocal relations. Symphony is an ability to put together the pieces, to synthesize rather than to analyze, and to see relationships, patterns, and combinations of elements in creative, new ways. This is an essential aptitude for a much wider swath of the population to link apparently unconnected elements to create something new. For I/O competences, it means crossing the cross-cultural boundaries to seek multiple options and blended solutions (Pink 2005). From the cross-cultural approach, perceiving both the whole picture and the elements are very important at work because cross-cultural teamwork means dealing with both individualistic mind-sets (focused on elements) and collectivist mind-sets (focused on relationships between the elements) (Hofstede 2001; Oyserman 2011). In different cultures, the amount of symphony should differ due to the impact of individualism and collectivism. It is interesting to consider whether employees from individualistic cultures should be primed (when needed) to see more relationships by making the collectivistic mind-sets more salient.

Symphony is connected with a relationship between seemingly diverse elements. To see the relations between them, routine work and specialized knowledge work is not enough. We need to exceed those confines, because now we are standing against the challenge of working across boundaries, cultures, and new zones which may be totally different from our areas of expertise. Thus, we need people able to cross those boundaries to identify new opportunities and to find connections between them. As with empathy, storytelling, and design, this ability to see and create connections is an important part of our changing role. Symphony suggests that we must find a new pattern. Pink (2005) gives us an example of people who manage relationships between the East and West: they must be literate in two cultures, comfortable in both, and ready to solve problems of sometimes antagonist groups with the ease

of a diplomat. These people, for the most part, are not engineers—they are people with multidisciplinary minds and broad spectrums of experiences.

We need inventors ready to combine existing ideas in some innovative way and ready to think unconventionally. We also need a "metaphor maker" (Lakoff and Turner 1989, p. 214–215) able to understand things in terms of something else. Metaphorical thinking is important, because it fosters the understanding of culturally different others. This type of thinking allows leaders and managers of work teams and big organizations to pick out meaningful trends in global business.

Play

Play refers to the competency which emphasizes the importance of distancing oneself. A sense of humor is a tool for coping with stress at work, tension, and the pace of life and work. Therefore, we should be careful to establish the similarities and differences in senses of humor and organizational jokes. Dilbert and New Yorker's cartoons are very well known, but organizations should make sure that cartoons and symbols used by cartoonists describing people at work are cross-culturally acceptable; they should know what is funny in different cultures and also what is absolutely in bad taste. Perhaps, it is better to create a cross-cultural sense of humor instead of thinking about political correctness? We remember once inventing the content for Janusz's cartoon speech bubbles as a cross-cultural icebreaking activity in a group of executives from three different countries. After that, all the barriers and stereotypes were broken between us.

Madan Kataria (Kataria 2002) refashioned himself and his mission to trigger an international laughter epidemic that can improve our health and even bring world peace. He suggests that each workplace should have its own laughter club. Nowadays, moving away from sober seriousness can be a measure of effectiveness, creativity, and innovativeness. It is hard to believe that, in the Ford company in the 1930s and 1940s, laughter was a disciplinary offense (Pink 2005). Kataria says that laughter can play a major role in reducing stress in the workplace (Kataria 2002). Laughing people are more creative and more productive. People who laugh together can work together. Glaxo Pharmaceuticals and Volvo organized laughing clubs. Today, play ethic can strengthen the work ethic (Kane 2004) because there is progressively more evidence that not only effectiveness is improved but also health improvement influenced by positive emotions is observed (e.g., Provine 2001; Stewart 2004; Collinson 2002).

Meaning

"People have enough to eat but nothing to live for; they have the means but no meaning" (William Fogel Nobel price economist cited in Frankl 1984 p. 136). In

fact, 58 % of Americans say they think often about the meaning and the purpose of their life.

The last competency, meaning, refers to the skill of perceiving significance, priorities, and things that really count. In the world of abundance, organizations should provide people and customers with products that have special significance to help people answer fundamental questions such as "what do I have in common with other people?" and "how am I connected with the world?" (Pink 2005; Seligman 2005).

As we live in the era of abundance in the advanced world, we are freed from the struggle for survival, and we have the luxury of devoting more of our time to the search for meaning.

A sense of purpose beyond one's own needs is important at work. It is healthy for us and beneficial for our work. Meaningfulness makes people feel more in control of their lives (Newcomb and Harlow 1986), more engaged (Debats et al. 1995), it may increase general psychological well-being (Moomal 1999) and decrease burning out at work (Pines 2004). In general terms, lack of meaning is associated with several negative outcomes and is generally characterized by a feeling of disconnection and passiveness.

Nowadays, the competence of finding meaning in our activity is crucial. I/O psychologists should think about involving *meaning training* in their work. Seeking for meaning is so important not only because it helps us to find a purpose in our life and work but also because going beyond the self helps in being creative and innovative (Pink 2005).

Influence Regulation in Cross-cultural Teams: The Concept of Deinfluentization (DEI).

A psychological mechanism governing an efficient behavior in the organizations of the Conceptual Age should be a meta-skill consisting of regulating one's own influence, which makes it possible to benefit from the influence (e.g., knowledge, skills, resources) of all the elements of a team. The term of DEI coined by Barbara Kożusznik (1996, 2005) refers to the conscious regulation of one's own influence. It entails conscious weakening, reduction, or even total removal of one's influence in case the influence of another person or group corresponds better to the requirements of a situation. In modern organizations, these types of situations should be purposefully engineered to make full use of the capital of employee knowledge and skills.

Learning organizations desire to be characterized by openness, worker autonomy, diffused responsibility, constant communication, and knowledge sharing, which cannot be attained when the conditions for subjectivity in an organization are not created. Achieving these characteristics requires active participation in decision making by all organization members. It consists of finding a proper source of influence (it may be a manager, a group, or an individual worker), adequate to meet

the requirements of a situation and to make it possible for an individual to exert influence in a given situation. It is impossible to achieve this goal in an organization refusing to allow all individuals influence on a course of matters. This shift in structure, which inevitably reduces the power of the center, will not likely take place voluntarily (Handy 1995). In a number of cases, managers have devoted their entire professional career to be able to exert influence on others and to leave their own stamp on the shape and functioning of an organization. This attachment to the influence is an indicator of our times where strong personalities and determined players matter. This attachment to influence is also observable in cross-cultural teams. However, Conceptual Age organizations may be forced to innovate in such a flat structure (Drucker 2002).

Adopting participative decision making is pointless unless organizational leaders willingly and consciously weaken their own influence. This reduction of influence allows companies to take full advantage of competencies of all organization participants, while at the same time allowing employees to actualize their potential. However, these benefits are impossible if we exert influence restricting, weakening, or reducing the leeway and activities of others.

The conception of DEI necessitates the perception of one's own influence in an organization as an instrument of effectiveness, not as an attribute of one's own importance and prestige. This construct is distinct from work on organization influence tactics regarding power deprivation, assuming that, if consciously reduced in this fashion, an individual's power may be depressed without a loss of perceived self-importance, autonomy, or security.

Individuals characterized by high willingness for DEI in social situations consciously assume the role of a regulator of influences which are exerted by each member of the group. They are able to regulate their own influence and the influence of other people through behaviors weakening the importance of oneself, on the one hand, and allowing the influence of other people, on the other.

These behaviors can be considered activated in a situation when a person claims that the influence in a given situation is due to somebody else (an individual or group) or that one's own influence is ineffective, unacceptable, or that their repertoire of available influence tactics has been depleted. This person may desire to work as long and as effectively as possible or to be in the company of a given individual or group and, consequently, weakens one's own influence. Research carried out by Van Knipperberg and Steensma (2003) suggests that, if partners expect to stay in the interaction in the future, they employ less severe influence means and generally try to have less influence on each other. Thus, it may be predicted that severe influence means will appear more frequently when individuals do not expect to work long in an organization (e.g., contract or temporary workers). The organizations that apply these forms of employment should be aware that in the long run their environment may become hostile with dominant means of forceful influence.

By using a metaphor of a crowded subway to symbolize the space where individual influences coincide, the same as team members, we can accept the following
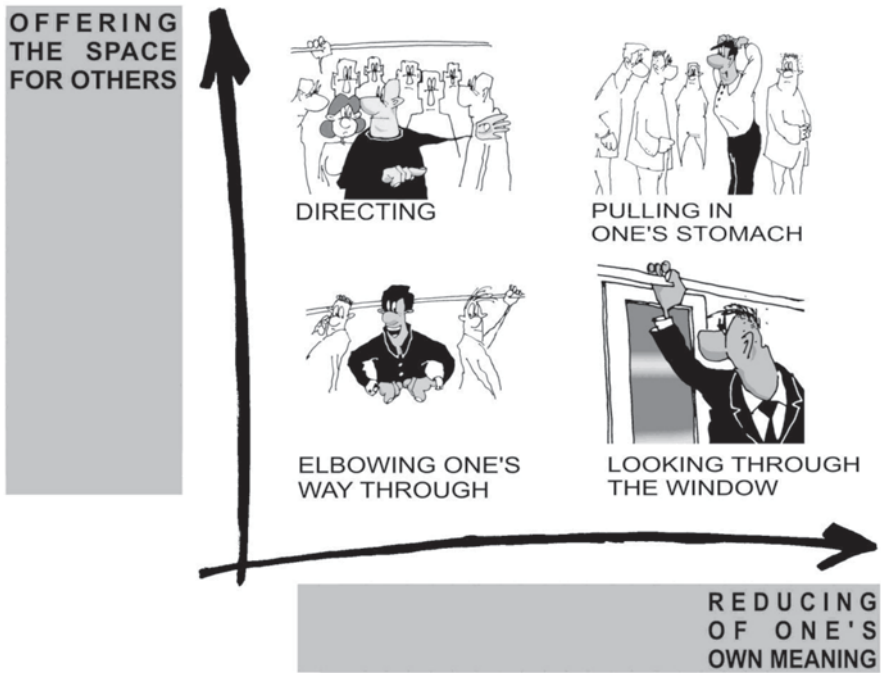
Fig. 8.1 Typology of one's own influence management in a team

suggested typologies of behaviors in terms of the management of one's own influence:

1. Individuals who show willingness to reduce their own influence (*high DEI skill*) are characterized by behaviors high on two dimensions: *reducing* one's own importance and *giving* space to others. This behavior can be referred to as sucking in your stomach (Weil 1994) year.
2. Individuals *maintaining the influence* with the lowest results in two dimensions will expose their own importance and reduce the space for others. Using the metaphor of a crowded subway, these behaviors may be defined as "elbowing one's way."
3. Individuals *pushing away from influence* achieve the lowest results in terms of *giving* space to others and the highest results in terms of *reducing* one's own importance, are characterized by behaviors which could be described as sitting and looking out the window.
4. Individuals who distribute influence, who achieve the lowest results in terms of *reducing* one's own influence and the highest ones with regard to *giving* space to others, are characterized by the behaviors which can be described as *conducting* ones (Fig. 8.1).

DEI is a relatively new concept but the research already suggests that it entails some important consequences. DEI relates to high social competences, emotional acceptance of a managing role, high development potential, and effectiveness (in superiors' opinions) in management work (Kożusznik 2002). These characteristics in turn serve to improve relationships with other people and self-cognition. In fact, the managers using DEI show a more positive perception of themselves than the managers who conserve the influence regardless of what influence tactics they use (Kipnis 2001, 1990; Kożusznik 2004). DEI requires a self-monitoring skill which is related to such skills as observation, self-presentation, or expression (Snyder 1974, 1987; Kożusznik 2006). The research findings also indicate that high-DEI individuals are characterized by high mental resilience and it is a proof that DEI may have a positive impact on a good tolerance of stress in work situations (Kożusznik 2005). All this suggests that DEI should be included in the repertoire of behaviors of contemporary managers in order to promote successful management (Kożusznik 2005).

New methods to enhance innovativeness in work teams could be based on the concept of DEI. We believe that there is an increased likelihood of innovation in work teams comprised of individuals who are aware of regulating and reducing one's own influence and agree with the following statements on the DEI scale (Kozusznik 2002), a 22-item tool developed to measure the construct of DEI: "I can be silent though I could speak," "I can refrain from a comment," or "I do not show impatience when someone interrupts." As I/O psychologists, we can teach these and many other behaviors connected to DEI to use them in cross-cultural teams as well as in homogeneous conditions.

The use of DEI can have fascinating real-life examples. It can be illustrated by true stories about a cross-cultural group of specialists in engineering, the tennis player Agnieszka Radwanska, and the Master Erasmus Mundus on Work, Organizational, and Personnel Psychology (WOP-P) students.

DEI in a cross-cultural team can be illustrated by a personal experience with Indian and German specialists in engineering employed in the Polish mining industry. Together with Polish workers, they were to design some new machines and tools connected with coal processing. This cross-cultural group had a lot of problems (e.g., with communication, understanding of basic habits, stereotypes). The Polish managers of this group were desperate. Everything went wrong. The Indian engineers tried to separate themselves from the other groups, while the German engineers were irritated by the lack of work progress. One day managers of this cross-cultural project organized a meeting and invited all members to discuss all the project accomplishments and challenges. All members gathered in a big room. They were waiting for their manager, but he did not come out. While waiting, they started to talk about their common project. This informal talk changed into a professional discussion and the cross-cultural group of engineers set their tasks and plans by themselves. The manager appeared after 3 h. People exclaimed and asked about his absence. The answer was simple: their manager disappeared on purpose. He reduced his influence, even got rid of it, to let the group have an autonomous and

frank discussion. From this time on, the cross-cultural cooperation improved and the group of engineers designed modern and innovative machines.
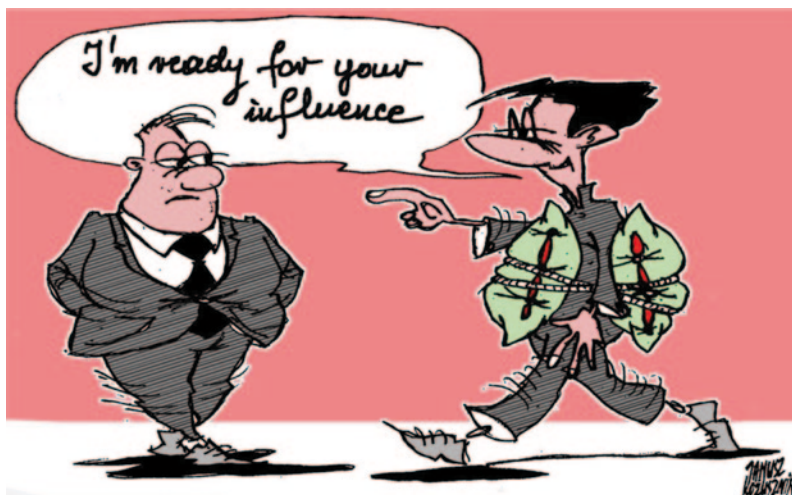
A good example of DEI promoting success is also the case of Agnieszka Radwanska, a well-known Polish tennis player. She won the junior singles title at Wimbledon in 2005. From the beginning of her career, Agnieszka's coach and supervisor was her father. Under the supervision of her father, she advanced from the 309th position to the 11th position in the Women's Tennis Association (WTA) ranking in 2008. In 2008–2011, under the authoritarian style of her father leadership, she held positions between 11 and 14. In 2011, Agnieszka Radwanska's father consciously resigned from his position as her coach. From this moment on, Agnieszka began her advance to the second position in WTA. It seems Agnieszka owes this huge advance to the act of conscious reduction of the influence of her father—the act of DEI.

Finally, DEI appears helpful in virtual cross-cultural teams (Kożusznik and Pollak 2002; Huettner et al. 2007). The students of the Erasmus Mundus Master on WOP-P created by five European universities that act in accordance with innovative solutions of European Union and ENOP Association enjoyed some crazy ideas from their WOP-P professors. There was an assignment they had to carry out in virtual teams of four persons. One of these teams was composed of members from Spain, Portugal, Quebec, and Poland. At the beginning, these cross-cultural teams had several problems. One of the students had always to stay up late or wake up very early to meet on Skype. The Spaniard and the Portuguese could talk for long time about easygoing topics, whereas the Quebecois and Pole wanted to concentrate on the task. They had problems with spelling each other's names properly. English was the mother tongue of only the member from Quebec, so they had some problems with communication. At the beginning, the work was chaotic: during the

video conference, everybody talked or shouted some words at the same time and the teamwork did not look promising and successful. The leader (the person with the highest language skill) used hard tactics of influence to try and make some order in the cross-cultural team, and said that people should "behave themselves." However, it did not work. The group was still anarchic. Surprisingly, things changed when the leader of the team started to behave in a seemingly impractical way: she explained her point shortly, stopped interfering, and kept talking to a minimum. This technique produced silence. The members experienced the silence as something new and peculiar. After some time, the leader suggested that they change positions and that someone else was going to play the role of the leader and that this position would be transferred to each group member. Later on, the original leader explained that she did it consciously and reduced the influence which was at the beginning a cause of stress and tension. This decision proved beneficial, because people started to share more of their own ideas. The original leader remained silent even when somebody stuttered. Almost instantly, the rest of the team captured the essence of the DEI and acted the same to the others. Their work became Spanishly pleasant, Portugaly participative, Quebequiously concrete, and Polishly punctual.

Conclusion

Globalization becomes an increasingly common feature of world economics and cross-cultural relations as a process of transcending cultural differences and gives rise to obstacles impeding communication and work. Cross-cultural competences of I/O psychologists are helpful and their training programs represent structured efforts to prepare people for their success in a foreign country. These training programs aim at equipping persons in such competencies that help them overcome not only cross-cultural barriers of different nations but also the obstacles of cross-cultural phenomena of different gender, age, religion, and education level of workers.

Cross-cultural relations allow people working in the international and diverse arena and working places to develop and understand the foreign cultural context, while at the same time maintaining a perfect command of their professional activity and generating mutual enrichment. Mutual enrichment can be a solid foundation for opening towards new culture and diversity, for better understanding, and for creating new solutions and innovation at work.

We are getting united in the conviction that an economic growth in the USA and in the developed European countries will be based on the innovation—on the development of new products and the development of a new type of consumption. The implementation of the innovations devised relying on new concepts into the market and their adaptation to new consumer values will determine economic success. Given that psychology provides us with the knowledge of how these particular new concepts are created and how they should be stimulated, it places psychology and its mechanisms are crucial in the process of implementing new ideas.

I/O psychologists should think about new tools that they could use to stimulate innovativeness. In the cross-cultural context of contemporary organizations, enhancing innovativeness can be accomplished with the use of new methods in training and education, which concentrate not only on diminishing barriers between coworkers, managers, and their teams due to their cross-cultural nature but also on revealing and enhancing their unique mixture of perspectives and values.

Special psychological training based on a creative potential of cross-cultural teams and groups can be applied to generate innovative solutions. As the Conceptual Age dawns, the right-brain hemisphere instruments conceptual competencies and DEI will constitute the foundations of successful organizational functioning.

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Chapter 9
Developing Successful Global Consultants

Matthew O'Connell, Mei-Chuan Kung and Esteban Tristan

Introduction

What does it take to be a successful global consultant? What do we even mean by a *global consultant*? Are there really any differences in what it takes to consult globally compared with consulting within one's own country? Answering those questions is the primary focus of this chapter.

There are a number of reasonable approaches available to tackling these questions ranging from primarily theoretical to entirely experiential. Ultimately, it was decided to address the topic using a combination of real-world experience as well as relevant research. We felt that would provide the reader with a balanced perspective as well as best leverage our personal expertise. Each of us has lived, worked, and consulted in multiple countries and in languages that were not native to us. As an organization we have also worked for over 20 years with many global organizations, including the United Nations (UN), to help establish competencies for success, and to help them assess and hire employees at all levels from over 80 countries. We draw from that firsthand experience to share anecdotes and insights about working internationally as a consultant, and the lessons we learned in doing so. We also draw from research, both academic and applied, to reinforce and expand upon our experience.

Our focus for this chapter is limited to global consulting in industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology. Consulting is such a broad term that can be applicable to almost any field. Our personal and professional experience is limited to the field of I/O psychology and we feel comfortable discussing global consulting from that perspective. While intentionally limiting our focus, we feel that many of the insights, lessons learned, and especially the competencies for success are likely to be applicable and generalizable to a broad range of professions.

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Key Competencies for Successful Consultants:
Here, There, and Everywhere

Before we start focusing our attention on global consulting, it may be beneficial to look at the types of activities that I/O consultants engage in, whether they are local or global. The word consultant implies that you are providing advice and expertise in one or more topic areas. A recent study by the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) described a number of key areas in which applied I/O practitioners focus their attention (Silzer et al. 2008). These include, but are certainly not limited to the following:

Executive/managerial coaching	Strategic planning
Succession/workforce planning	Talent management
Labor relations	Compensation
Employee relations	Leadership/management development
Employee selection/staffing	Performance management
Organization development	Job/work analysis
Measurement/statistics	

As can be seen by this list, the range of areas that an I/O consultant may be providing consulting services and/or working on applied projects is quite varied. In addition, many of these areas work in conjunction with each other. For instance, developing a selection process for an organization involves job/work analysis, employee selection, succession/workforce planning, and most likely some statistical analysis and measurement. In addition to these technical skill areas, almost all consulting involves extensive project management and client interaction. These are often some of the most difficult skills to acquire because they are rarely, if ever, covered in traditional I/O graduate programs.

The same SIOP study (Silzer et al. 2008) found that full-time I/O practitioners rated the following activities as the most and least important in terms of success as an applied practitioner. (Table 9.1)

The Silzer et al. data suggested that the vast majority of activities covered in traditional I/O graduate programs are geared to prepare students for more academic positions compared with more applied ones. From our personal experience, both coming out of graduate school and working in consulting as well as hiring and developing consultants over the past 20 years, these results are not surprising at all. Graduate schools tend to do a good job of laying a strong theoretical foundation of knowledge, technical and analytical skills, as well as technical writing skills. However, they do not tend to provide any training in terms of client or project management, or relationship building. This is not a criticism of graduate schools. It would be very difficult for any graduate school to effectively emulate the consulting environment. In addition, there are so many different types of consulting roles that it would be almost impossible to choose just one and expect that it would provide a realistic experience.

Table 9.1 Most and least important activities for applied I/O practitioners and where proficiency was acquired. (Adapted from Silzer et al. 2008, Table 7, p. 21)

Most important	*Where proficiency acquired* (%)
Consulting and advising clients	On the job (86.7)
Building relationships	On the job (95.1)
Managing work projects and administrative activities	On the job (89.5)
Implementing and delivering programs and/or tools	On the job (79.6)
Developing and designing systems, methods, and/or programs	On the job (59.9)
Least important	
Writing for a scientific journal	Graduate school (84.1)
Teaching courses or training programs	On the job (56.2)
Writing reports, articles, and chapters	Graduate school (50.5)
Conducting primary research and data analysis	Graduate school (85.8)

Core Competencies for Consultants

While we have spent a good deal of time explaining why there is not any single thing as a "consultant," we can confidently suggest that there are several key competencies required for success in almost any consulting position, anywhere. This conclusion is based on hundreds of job analyses in a broad range of organizations, through personal communications with colleagues at other consulting firms, in actually working as consultants, and in hiring and developing consultants over the past 20 years. This is admittedly, and intentionally a short list. As will be discussed later in the chapter, there are clearly more competencies required for successful consultants. However, these three core competencies consistently appear as essential for success in almost any consulting role:

- **Managing time and resources**—Organizing and managing information, people, and other resources to achieve established goals and results. Appropriately planning time and resources for managing multiple activities.
- **Teamwork**—Working effectively with others to accomplish organizational goals. Focusing first on the effectiveness and success of the team as a group, while being sensitive to the needs, strengths, weaknesses, and differences of individual players within the team.
- **Applied problem solving**—Effectively resolving problems that involve people, things, and processes requiring general logic and common sense. This may include gathering relevant information, considering alternatives, and drawing logical conclusions based on facts.

Before discussing these three critical competency areas, it is important to point out that a solid foundation in I/O psychology is also critical, and at least for the purposes of this chapter, taken as a given. Especially in a global context where situations are unfamiliar and novel, it is important for consultants to know not only "how" but also "why." That allows them to move beyond textbook approaches and adapt them to the unique environments in which they find themselves.

Time and Resource Management: Harder Than it Looks

Time and resource management is perhaps the most talked about competency across professions (Claessens et al. 2007; Macan 1994). One of the biggest challenges new consultants face is effective time and project management. The first portion of this competency refers to managing one's time while the second component involves co-ordinating the activities of others. While both undergraduate and graduate schools require students to meet deadlines, write papers, read course material, etc., the dead-lines are typically established by other people. For instance, you know when you will be tested, when papers are due, etc. They are typically fixed prior to the first day of classes. When you become a consultant, estimating the amount of time required to complete a particular project is not fixed, and much of the schedule is negotiated by the consultant and the client. The amount of time dedicated to conducting a job analy-sis, to developing a customized program, writing a report, etc., is typically not fixed. While there are of course guidelines, every project and every client situation are differ-ent. Effectively estimating time requirements is a major challenge for new consultants.

Another factor that makes effective time management more challenging as a con-sultant compared with being a student is that you are no longer completely in con-trol of the project schedule. In graduate school, the amount of time required to study for a test or to write a paper was almost completely determined by the individual. As a consultant, much of the actual time required to get something done depends on other people, whether that is the client or other internal resources. For instance, as a general rule, the larger the organization the slower the turnaround of information. Part of the reason is that large organizations spend more time coordinating internal resources, balancing schedules, gaining buy-in, etc. While it might only take 1 day to conduct a job analysis, it might take 3 weeks to get the actual meetings scheduled. If you are analyzing information, it might take 3 days to conduct that analysis but many times that long to actually get the correct data to analyze. In many organiza-tions, the formal analysis itself is conducted by a separate team, which not only adds to time considerations but also places greater importance on coordination and resource management.

It is difficult for new consultants, and in some cases seasoned consultants, to effectively estimate how much time it takes to actually finish a project; the second issue they face can exacerbate the problem. What we are referring to is the ability to say "no." More specifically, to understand how much you have on your plate and not overcommit yourself because you underestimated the actual time requirements. This is by far one of the biggest challenges that new consultants face. Most consultants are eager to get involved in a wide range of projects. They all seem interesting and excit-ing. After all, being able to work on a project with a Fortune 500 client can be quite exhilarating for a young consultant. Most people do not want to be seen as not pull-ing their weight or even worse, missing out on a very exciting opportunity. In fact, there is some evidence showing that time management skills moderate the relation-ship between organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance (Rapp et al. 2013). Only those skilled in time management can effectively perform their central task while making citizenship contributions. That is why it is very common, and in

fact almost a rule, that new consultants will unwittingly overcommit themselves to projects, which often leads to missed deadlines and in many cases, upset clients.

The Relative Nature of Time: Not Just for Physicists

Keep in mind that we are still talking about how difficult it is for consultants to effectively manage time and projects while they are working in their own country. Being a global consultant poses even more challenges. As has been described numerous times, the perception and importance of time vary greatly between cultures (Adler and Gundersen 2008; Brislin and Kim 2003; Levine and Bartlett 1984; Levine and Norenzayan 1999; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). As Triandis (1994) suggested, you might get different answers to an inquiry such as, "if you set a meeting with one of your friends for 12 noon, how long will you wait before you decide that your friend will not come?" (p. 134).

In much of Europe, for instance, it is not uncommon for business people to take off 8 weeks for "holiday." That typically happens during the summer. If you are trying to coordinate resources and deliver a project during the summer months, you are almost assured of failure.

Personal Anecdote: Time—We All See It Differently

When I worked overseas in Australia, I was managing a leadership development project with a global natural resources/mining company, and we were testing a few hundred managers and directors on a leadership assessment and providing leadership coaching, which took a good deal of planning and logistics. We were getting ready to begin testing in the Australian divisions and I was relying on my contact out in the western region to help me send out all communications and plan all of the coaching sessions with each leader. As is typical, we had a tight timeline for the project and could not afford to lose any time.

One day I was reaching out to him to follow up on some critical action items we needed to confirm in order to begin the next phase. I still recall the state of shock I felt upon receiving his Out Of Office reply, stating a quite tersely, "*I am currently on holiday and will return in* (*12 weeks*). *If you need assistance please contact* (*my admin*)." I could not believe it! How could anyone possibly leave on vacation for that long? How could he get all his work done? And did he have to go right in the middle of my project? I asked myself and my Australian colleague all of these questions in a sort of incredulous manner for about 10 min, while I wondered how in the world I would get this project done. But during that thought process it suddenly occurred to me: Wow, out here, a "vacation" really means a "vacation." What a refreshing thought.

Teamwork

Another challenge that new consultants face is working as part of an interdisciplinary team. Based on communications with new I/O graduates as well as faculty members, it is clear that many I/O programs now provide opportunities for team-based learning and research. At the same time, it is extremely rare, at least to our knowledge, that graduate students would be involved in group-based activities with individuals from other departments or specializations. Most collaborations and indeed most day-to-day interactions occur between fellow graduate students and faculty, all of whom share similar backgrounds, research interests, etc., at least in terms of I/O psychology. This contrasts dramatically with the working environment experienced by new I/O graduates entering internal or external consulting positions.

Typically, becoming a consultant, even in a relatively small firm, means that you will be working directly with a wide range of individuals, all with varying levels of I/O expertise and experience. Entering the organization directly out of a graduate school typically means that you will be the junior member of any organization you join. The change in role can require some acclimation for individuals who have been the most senior individuals in graduate school. New consultants may also find it challenging to work with individuals who have little or no knowledge, or even appreciation, of some of the core tenants that form the foundation of I/O psychology itself. Concepts such as reliability, validity, and measurement error may be completely foreign to many of the colleagues with whom new consultants work.

Applied Problem Solving: It is More About Creativity Than Knowledge

Competing with effective time management in terms of major stumbling blocks for new consultants is applied problem solving. One might assume that a person who leaves school with an advanced degree such as a PhD must be an excellent problem solver. That, however, is not always the case. Part of the problem lies in the disconnect between what is required for success in a graduate, academic environment. As with time management, graduate school presents a number of well-defined, structured hurdles to overcome. Pass this exam, write a successful paper, make a sound presentation, research, analyze, and write a dissertation, etc.; these are all relatively predictable challenges that require hard work and a level of analytical prowess. However, there is relatively little creativity required to be successful at any of them. No one approaches a class and decides that instead of taking a mid-term and a final exam, they are going to conduct an experiment based on what they have learned and write a term paper to fulfill the requirements of the class. Thus, most recent graduates emerge with a sound theoretical background, excellent data analytic skills, and, in some cases, the ability to write effective research papers.

Consulting, on the other hand, is a very fluid endeavor. You cannot just apply procedure A, B, and C and expect to achieve success. Often, challenges require that you change your approach to a problem in midstream, and in real time. Many

projects that consultants are involved in do not require a lot of creative thinking. However, unless you are delivering the same training program over and over again, consulting projects typically involve a fair amount of creativity. That creativity may take the form of how best to deliver a project, how to configure an existing solution to meet a novel environment, or how to compress a timeline from 12 to 6 weeks. Many challenges that consultants face are logistic. This is especially true in global environments where time zones, computer access, language, and cultural differences render an established, time-honored solution unfeasible. Being able to think through the problems, the opportunities those disruptions present, and devise creative solutions to novel situations is essential to being an effective consultant.

These three competency areas, time management, teamwork, and applied problem solving, are critical for success in almost any consulting position, no matter where you are located or where you consult. The next section of this chapter focuses on some of the unique challenges that consulting in a global environment creates and the competencies required to succeed in that environment.

Key Differences for Global Consultants

While there are many characteristics that become more important when you are working internationally (Lowman 2012), the following two competencies consistently stand out as being essential: (a) embracing diversity and (b) integrity/building trust.

Embracing Diversity

Over the past 10–15 years there has been a steep increase in the importance of embracing diversity among the organizations with which we consult. It logically follows that because the workplace has become more diverse that the idea of tolerance and understanding of differences would also become more salient (Adler and Gundersen 2008; Cox 1991, 1994; Shore et al. 2009). In a voluntary corporate diversity survey conducted in 2010, 82 % of Fortune 500 companies and 92 % of Fortune 100 companies have formal, written diversity strategy and implementation plans (Menendez 2010). Domestically or globally, the multicultural workforce continues to grow more diverse (Tsui and Gutek 1999). In the 2012 population projection released by US Census Bureau, the Hispanic population will more than double by 2060 with nearly one in three US residents being Hispanic[1]. Nevertheless, unlike counseling psychology which has been concerned with multicultural competency for nearly two decades (Sue et al. 1992; Chrobot-Mason 2003), I/O psychology has only recently started to embrace a more global perspective in its curriculum (Griffith et al. 2012; Ryan and Gelfand 2012). SIOP guidelines for master level (SIOP 1994) and doctoral level (SIOP 1999) training, for instance, still have to

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[1] Up from about one in six in 2012.

establish recommendations for cultural/global components. A recent survey suggested that although international competencies were regarded as important, they were viewed significantly less important than other core SIOP competencies among I/O graduate program faculty (Murray et al. 2013). Therefore, there is still work to be done in preparing future generations of I/O professionals for the changing nature of the workplace today.

Before we go much further, let us define what we mean by embracing diversity. The following competency definition comes from a large multinational organization. The definition of the competency is followed by positive and negative behavioral indicators to help clarify how the competency manifests itself in the workplace.

Embracing Diversity—Values differences in gender, culture, opinions, values, perspectives, ideas, and experiences. Managing and leveraging this diversity to maximize effectiveness.

Positive Indicators

- Promotes, practices, and helps others value and respect diversity of gender, culture, opinions, values, perspectives, ideas, and experiences
- Provides opportunities for individuals from different backgrounds to work together
- Challenges others' biases and intolerances
- Uses knowledge of differences to adapt one's approaches and actions
- Asks questions and actively listens to other's views and perspectives
- Builds and supports diverse teams where members can thrive and increase the effectiveness of the organization
- Supports equal and fair treatment for all; and
- Examines one's own biases and actions to avoid stereotypical reactions

Negative Indicators

- Does not fully embrace the different perspectives by people of different gender, culture, opinions, values, perspectives, ideas, and experiences
- Gives into stereotypes and does not observe or ask questions to understand others' beliefs or practices
- Demonstrates prejudices (whether realized or not) toward others
- When submersed in another's culture, does not take actions appropriate to the culture or religion
- May accept cultural differences but still not understand that not all individuals from within that culture will be the same
- Makes insensitive comments and causes offence to others; and
- May demonstrate cultural/gender sensitivity, but not actively promote or encourage others to do so, or leverage the differences for the overall betterment of the organization

In its simplest sense, embracing diversity refers to openness to new ideas, which is part of the Big Five Personality Factor Model (FFM), (c.f. Barrick and Mount 1991; Tett et al. 1991). Barrick and Mount (1991) cite a number of previous authors

who refer to that factor as "openness to experience" (McCrae and Costa 1985) and Hakel (1974), who refers to it as "culture." Typically, the competency of embracing diversity has been more focused on racial, gender, and ethnic diversity (Shore et al. 2009). However, in its broadest sense it refers to being open to new ways of seeing the world, of approaching problems, as well as being sensitive to a multitude of individual differences. One can easily imagine how embracing diversity becomes more critical for the global consultant, whose comfortable views may be challenged by new environments.

Much has been written about cultural frameworks and their impact on human behavior (e.g., Adler and Gundersen 2008; Hofstede 1980, 1991, 2001; Hofstede et al. 2010; Hall 1976; House et al. 2004; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Smith et al. 2006; Triandis 1994; Trompennaars and Hampden-Turner 1998). These differences in cultural values, or cultural dimensions as Hofstede puts it, manifest themselves in almost every aspect of organization behavior, from empowerment practices (Robert et al. 2000), relationship between perceived organizational justice and work outcomes (Lam et al. 2002), preferred conflict resolution style (Tinsley 1998), organizational citizenship behavior (Perlow and Weeks 2002), performance management (Fletcher and Perry 2002), selection practices (Ryan et al. 1999), and organization culture (Robert and Wasti 2002), to leadership styles (Dickson et al. 2001). At the interpersonal level, one might see how easy it is for different "cultures" to clash. For instance, an individual from a low-context culture might prefer clear and direct communication style and feel perplexed or frustrated by elusive and indirect communications from an individual from a high-context culture (Hall 1976). A virtue regarded in one culture, such as restraining one's emotional expression in public for Japanese, might be misunderstood as standoffish or indifferent by another culture (Stephan et al. 1998). An individual from a high power distance culture might not express deep felt disagreement with someone at a higher status (e.g., expert) as openly as someone from a low power distance culture because it would be construed as disrespecting authority (Triandis 1994). This body of research provides a foundation for global consultants to become aware of how culture affects our values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors.

It goes without saying that people from different cultures see things differently, whether that be proper relationships between males and females, superiors and subordinates, or consultants and clients. However, it is one thing to be *theoretically and scientifically aware* of those differences before you go on assignment, and quite another to *live in and flourish* in that environment.

For instance, project managers and consultants often succeed because they are very task oriented and "get things done no matter what." They are adept at finishing projects on time and under budget. This behavior is likely a function of conscientiousness; being organized, diligent, and needing to reach closure. Conscientiousness is a useful trait for a consultant, global or not. It is by far the most consistently predictive of all the Big Five personality factors (c.f. Schmidt et al. 2008). In the expatriate effectiveness literature, certain aspects of conscientiousness such as thoroughness, responsibility, and persistence have been found to be important for successful completion of expatriate assignments (Ones and Viswesvaran 1997). However, there are potential dark sides to being too conscientious.

A number of researchers have pointed out that highly conscientious individuals may be considered rigid, inflexible, and overly focused on small details while missing the bigger picture (c.f. Mount et al. 2008). In fact, recent research has demonstrated a curvilinear relationship between conscientiousness and task performance (Le et al. 2011).

So you may ask "Why are we discussing conscientiousness? I thought we were talking about diversity." Our focus on conscientiousness during the discussion of embracing diversity is based on a key observation. While you might be able to get away with being rigid in your thinking when you are working in a familiar environment, e.g., in your native country, it will emerge as a major stumbling block when you are placed in a novel environment where the rules of the game are changed. Recent estimates of the true correlation between conscientiousness and openness to experience indicate that the two factors are trivially related, $r = 0.09$ (Schmidt et al. 2008). In general, openness to experience is completely unrelated to job performance, $r = 0.04$ (Schmidt et al. 2008). However, we would argue that it is a necessary, yet not sufficient, component of success as a global consultant.

While openness to experience is related to embracing diversity, the two differ in important ways. The key difference is that openness to experience is considered to be a stable personality trait. It is a passive state of being. It is part of what defines the personality of the individual and is unlikely to change significantly over time. Embracing diversity on the other hand is an active state of being open, of reaching out, and of trying to seek out different ways of viewing the world. Part of embracing diversity involves becoming educated to the value of differences and the negative consequences of narrow-mindedness. There are numerous training programs designed specifically to help individuals improve their ability, cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally, and to embrace change and diversity (Black and Mendenhall 1990; Earley and Peterson 2004; Littrell et al. 2006; Pruegger and Rogers 1994; Wildman et al. 2010). Therefore, while someone who is high in openness to experience is more likely to embrace diversity, individuals who are not that high in the personality trait can be taught the value of diversity and learn to actively embrace it.

Failing to embrace diverse ways of thinking and working leads to not only immense challenges (if not outright failure) in a global environment, but also likely dramatically increases the stress of the individual in those situations. Recent research on cultural intelligence (CQ), describes an individual's level of openness to experience and a capability to work effectively with culturally diverse settings. While the research is mixed evidence has suggested that CQ is a vital intercultural competency that predicts attitudes, behaviors, adjustments, and ultimately success on international assignments (Ang et al. 2007; Earley and Ang 2003; Ramalu et al. 2012). Ramsey et al. (2011) found that CQ related to the international business travelers' ability to handle job strain caused by long travel distance. The individual who can focus on achieving results and important goals while being open to different means of achieving those goals is likely to enjoy much greater success as a global consultant. They are also likely to enjoy the experience a great deal more.

Personal Anecdote: Diverse Ways of Thinking

Few environments are as different and foreign to a westerner as a Papua New Guinea (PNG). With remote, rural highlands that are only accessible by heli- copter and indigenous people that in many ways still live as they did thou- sands of years ago. It offers a complete paradigm shift for a young consultant from US suburbia. I will always cherish the opportunity I had to work on a project where we had to develop a custom pre-employment test that would be used to select PNG nationals into various construction jobs for a billion dollar gas plant project.

Having a natural interest in cross-cultural psychology, and having some international experience, I considered myself quite ready for the task at hand. However, I started to realize the extent to which I had to think "outside the box" when it was clearly explained to me that the people who would be tak- ing this test in many cases had no real understanding (or at least not the same understanding) of some of the basic psychological constructs we wished to measure. Many of these individuals and their families had always lived off the land, growing their own food and livestock, without any need whatsoever to work for an employer. The concept of having to "go to work" every day on a set schedule, and be paid in exchange for work, was something that was foreign to many. So this begged the question—how do we measure work ethic or likelihood of turnover when we do not even know that the candidate *actu- ally wants or needs* the job?

Another interesting challenge emerged when it came time to decide upon what measurement methods to use when testing this type of population. What does conscientiousness look like in PNG? How does someone truly display safety-oriented behavior in this environment when they have never worked in a factory? What could we capture whether someone would be a good "team player" on a crew when they have never worked on in a formal job with someone else?

Naturally, we had to completely revisit our normal approach for develop- ing test content, and it offered a great opportunity to apply many techniques from cross-cultural psychology and emic assessment methodology. In fact, I knew this was truly a unique selection project when I realized that I had weekly calls with a cultural anthropologist as part of my project plan. His input was invaluable, but it was probably most helpful when we were grap- pling with the issue of how to measure work ethic in this population. Many of our existing personality items were clearly Western-based and often referred to some sort of job or work environment. After a great discussion with him at a roadside café, he explained to me with great enthusiasm how you could measure work ethic in a PNG national by asking them how frequently they weeded their garden. Gardening was a daily part of life for most people and if you had weeds in your garden, you probably were not the hardest of workers.

I found that fascinating. But my favorite example was around safety: "How often do you sharpen your axe?" I asked him what this could possibly have to do with safety and he explained how sharpening it would actually prevent the axe head from bouncing back and hitting you, which often led to injury. And to this day, that is probably the coolest test item I ever wrote. Imagine measuring safety orientation by asking someone whether he kept his axe sharp.

Building Trust

Trust plays a vital role in organizational settings (Dirks and Ferrin 2001; Kramer and Tyler 1996; Mayer et al. 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998) that impacts communications (Smith and Barclay 1997), conflicts between partners in inter-organizational relationships (Das and Teng 1998; Zaheer et al. 1998), and an organization's overall performance (Crossley et al. 2013). Without question, integrity is important to any consultant, anywhere. Individuals who overpromise and under-deliver can succeed in the short run but over time this behavior eventually catches up to them. This dynamic may be even more important when working internationally than it is when working in your home country, especially if that home country is the USA.

For better or worse, the USA tends to be a highly litigious society where an assumption among most people in business is that if a project is not delivered according to the specifications of the contract, then there are available legal remedies. From our experience and the experience of many other consultants we have spoken to, this is not the case in many other regions of the world, including Mexico, South America, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and many parts of Asia. In many regions, the concept of *caveat emptor*, or "buyer beware," is much more fundamental to the way that business is routinely conducted. In many parts of the world there is more healthy skepticism, and cynicism, related to all business transactions. If you are tricked there is no recourse available, except to avoid doing business with that individual or company again. The prevailing assumption is that you need to protect your own interests and be cautious of anyone offering you services.

This principle applies not only to pricing of services but also to the expectations related to timelines and deliverables. In the USA, it is not uncommon for a purchasing agent to try and negotiate a 5–10 % discount even after the project has been approved by the decision makers. However, in most regions of the world, the difference between the offer price and the final, agreed-upon price can be 50 % or even more. If you are working as a consultant on your own or in a smaller company, where you are expected to price out proposals, then this is something that will be immediately apparent when working on international projects. If you are a consultant for a larger firm, then the negotiations regarding price and scope are likely to have been taken care of before you start your work.

Whether you are working as a single consultant, part of a small firm, or part of a larger firm, it is important to remember that individuals in most countries see you

as the representative of your firm. It means that you will likely need to spend more time and effort winning over your client than you would have to in your native country. Building trust and confidence in your work and ability are very important to your long-term success, and the success of your organization. This might entail spending much more time on "non-project-related activities" than you would normally expect. These might include meeting with clients on an informal basis more often, or making more trips and conducting many more meetings with various stakeholders than would typically be required. For instance, trust in Chinese society is largely built on reputation and relationship. One would first need to establish personal relationships and be considered as "in-group" to build a strong business relationship (Cheng and Pang 2003). The line of business versus personal life is blurred in some places of the world. In any case, it is important to understand that trust must be built in most countries, it is not assumed.

Personal Anecdote: Building Trust

Relationships really do go a long way in certain areas of the world, and I have found that to be the case in Latin America. This has been evident with some particular projects of mine in Argentina and Puerto Rico, where our client contacts have a strong preference for working with me and my colleague well after the initial implementation, simply because we have always been the persons with whom they have dealt. One humorous example was when we brought in a more junior consultant to work on a large implementation in Puerto Rico, about 6 months into the project. To our amazement, months after he had been introduced to our contact, and had done an extensive amount of detailed work on the project, our contact never once acknowledged him on our weekly calls. He would say hello to myself and the other senior consultant on the call, and even though the junior consultant had greeted him at the start of the call, he never greeted him back. It became a long-standing joke, and though we felt bad for our fellow colleague, he luckily always took it in stride. The interesting thing about it is that our contact was one of the most gregarious, extraverted individuals I ever worked with. But I believe he had already established his main rapport with us from the start, and due to this he never really got to trust the junior consultant, unfortunately. It was just another good lesson in global consulting and how sometimes building trust just takes a little longer.

A Sample Competency Model for Global Consultants

As we have stated, it is impossible to definitively define a "consultant" and certainly more difficult to precisely define what is required to be a "global consultant."

Table 9.2 Ten key competencies for global consultants	Analytical and conceptual thinking	Integrity
	Building trust	Judgment/decision making
	Communication	Managing resources
	Embracing diversity	Self-awareness
	Flexibility	Teamwork

Nonetheless, we feel that the following competency model is a good first step in describing what it takes to be a successful global consultant. This model emerged from work we conducted in developing a competency framework for employees in a broad range of roles in a global organization. The content was developed based on interviews with over 100 job content experts (JCE's), as well as survey results completed by over 500 individuals in various international roles. Information was gathered in all parts of the world, including North and South America, Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. The list of ten competencies is provided in Table 9.2 below followed by definitions and positive indicators of each competency.

Analytical and Conceptual Thinking—Systematically investigating, studying, or otherwise breaking down a problem using logical reasoning, and drawing accurate and appropriate conclusions.

- Focuses on underlying causes as opposed to just the symptoms
- Remains focused and does not become distracted by irrelevant or superfluous information
- Conducts appropriate analyses and research from which to draw appropriate conclusions
- Identifies the meaning of trends and interrelationships and makes appropriate predictions for projected advancements
- Pinpoints the risks involved in a project at an early stage
- Analyses highly technical or complex information that requires advanced technical training
- Finds novel and creative solutions that have not been tried before; and
- Asks the right questions and understands concepts quickly

Building Trust—Dealing openly, honestly, and transparently with issues and people. Follows through on commitments, pays attention to the interests of others, and deals in a trustworthy and dependable manner.

- Spends time developing mutually beneficial relationships with others
- Takes the time to get to know internal and external partners on a personal level
- Promotes policies, procedures, or structures that support strong relationships, both internally and externally
- Follows through on commitments to build credibility and trust
- Takes the time to learn the cultural customs, language, personal preferences, background, etc. of others

- Readily offers cooperation and assistance to others and makes a strong effort to develop close and credulous relationships
- Considers the feelings, concerns, and interests of others when making decisions; and
- Encourages others to seek guidance and support when they have questions or are experiencing frustrations

Communication—Effectively presenting thoughts and ideas in a clear, concise, and readily understood manner. Listens to and acknowledges others' perspectives and views.

- Comes across as articulate, clear, and easy to understand
- Communicates "sensitive" information in an effective and respectful manner
- Captures and retains the attention of the audience
- Conveys confidence and professionalism through speech and written material
- Appropriately adjusts the content and approach to best suit the audience being addressed
- Communicates effectively with all levels within an organization
- Actively listens to others to understand their point of view; and
- Reports situations to the appropriate individuals in a comprehensible and accurate manner

Embracing Diversity—Values differences in gender, culture, opinions, values, perspectives, ideas, and experiences. Managing and leveraging this diversity to maximize organizational effectiveness.

- Promotes, practices, and helps others value and respect diversity of gender, culture, opinions, values, perspectives, ideas, and experiences
- Provides opportunities for individuals from different backgrounds to work together
- Challenges others' biases and intolerances
- Uses knowledge of differences to adapt one's approaches and actions
- Asks questions and actively listens to other's views and perspectives
- Builds and supports diverse teams where members can thrive and increase the effectiveness of the organization
- Supports equal and fair treatment for all
- Examines one's own biases and actions to avoid stereotypical reactions

Flexibility—Works effectively on multiple assignments simultaneously and adapts to changing demands and circumstances; adaptable.

- Remains abreast of changes and is willing and open to learn from change
- Effectively stays on top of multiple projects or tasks
- Follows instructions and procedures while working on more than one assignment
- Proactively anticipates the need for change
- Completes multiple projects even during times of stress or unrest
- Fills more than one position or role at the same time

- Works on multiple projects for more than one supervisor or department at the same time
- Balances multiple and often conflicting priorities by evaluating his/her options and taking appropriate courses of action (i.e., delegating some work to others); and
- Adapts one's thinking, emotions, and actions in response to a variety of circumstances

Integrity—Acting with uncompromising ethics and honesty at all times, in all situations, both professionally and personally.

- Communicates open and honestly with others
- Demonstrates trustworthy behavior based on personal accountability and sound ethics
- Seeks out other courses of action if pressured by influential persons to participate in a less than ethical behavior
- Immediately addresses any situation in which a peer, staff member, etc., are acting in an untrustworthy or dishonest manner
- Takes a clear stand on difficult issues
- Models positive ethical behaviors; "walks the walk"
- Tactfully confronts others, even those in supervisory positions, if their behavior is less than ethical

Judgment and Decision Making—Makes effective, realistic, and impactful decisions based on logical inferences, experiences, and the consideration of implications, alternatives, and consequences.

- Makes logical and well-thought-out decisions
- Makes decisions on the basis of logical inferences that are easy to understand
- Considers possible implications and alternatives when making decisions and takes into account others' perspectives before making a decision
- Possesses the capability to make quality decisions even during highly stressful or ambiguous circumstances
- Strategically weighs the consequences and severity of his/her options before making a decision
- Does not make a decision based strictly on emotions or unclear facts
- Shows good common sense as to when to tackle a problem independently and when to ask for help; and
- Identifies the issues, conducts research, and gathers relevant information and hypothesizes potential solutions before making a decision

Managing Resources—Organizing and managing information, people, and other resources to achieve established goals and results.

- Maintains primary responsibility for keeping track of project status, tasks, subtasks, progress, etc.
- Enhances capacities for preparedness by developing contingency plans; establishes objectives and goals for others

- Utilizes a structured method for keeping track of project activities and goals so that no details are overlooked
- Keeps performance goals on track, despite changing demands and conflicting priorities, by coordinating and managing personnel, raw materials, donor funds, etc.
- Follows up with everyone involved in working on all aspects of an assigned project in order to keep things on task
- Identifies inefficiencies in projects and streamlines project plans or resources accordingly; and
- Communicates all changes that affect a project or mission to everyone involved

Self-Awareness—Knowing and managing one's own emotions, strengths, weaknesses, passions, interests, and values.

- Focuses on personal improvement and looks for opportunities to improve developmental areas
- Recognizes the importance of how he/she is perceived by others
- Continually asks for feedback from peers, staff, supervisors, etc.
- Listens and responds appropriately to criticism
- Actively chooses to participate in projects or activities that will leverage his/her strengths or provide him/her with developmental opportunities
- Knows his/her limitations and when he/she is not capable of taking on a task without assistance; and
- Capable of showing restraint when working under conditions of stress, frustration, or tension
- Unsure of one's own capabilities

Teamwork—Cooperates and works effectively with others in the pursuit of common goals.

- Deals effectively with conflicting perspectives
- Clearly defines roles and responsibilities and expectations for individuals as well as the team, thereby creating win–win situations
- Encourages and supports the ideas and efforts of other team members and finds or creates ways to help the team perform more effectively
- Motivates others to want to contribute to the team
- Provides constructive and timely feedback to others within the team, both positive and negative
- Views and responds to feedback as a learning process as opposed to an affront on one's self-esteem or personal competence; and
- Acknowledges that the overall accomplishments of the team are greater than individual accomplishments

Developing Global Consultants

Now that we have introduced the competencies required for success as a global consultant, we turn our attention on how to develop those skills and competencies. The scope of this chapter precludes the discussion of a comprehensive training and development program for global consultants, but instead highlights some key activities that individuals who are interested in becoming global consultants could do to increase their likelihood of success. Holt and Seki (2012) offered a general list of suggestions to develop global leaders that involves experiential learning, stretch assignments, project teams, training, coaching, assessment, or networking that might be helpful. In this chapter, we point to two primary areas: (1) learning a second language and (2) looking outside of the traditional I/O curriculum.

The Value of Learning a Second Language

Learning a second language provides both direct and indirect benefits that are likely to be much more lasting, generalizable, and profound. The direct benefit of learning a second language is that it helps you communicate in that language. Assuming that this language is the one spoken where you spend most of your time consulting, language skills can be a major advantage. For instance, if you consult in Mexico and other parts of Latin America then speaking Spanish has a substantial, direct benefit. We would strongly encourage you to study, and, if at all possible, become proficient in the predominate language of the region in which you are most likely to consult. Speaking the language greatly helps in breaking down barriers and building trust. It also greatly facilitates communication so that you do not always need to communicate through an interpreter, which can be both confusing and tiresome. Even though English is the international language of business and you will be able to communicate with many people in English, attempting to learn a language is a sign of respect. If you happen to also live in that country while you are consulting, e.g., when you are on an extended foreign assignment, then speaking the native language is invaluable. While many managers and professionals might speak English, it is unlikely that the majority of people in the country speak it. Being conversant in that language increases your confidence, your comfort level, and ultimately your enjoyment of that country, its culture, and its people.

   From our perspective, the process of learning another language may be more important than actually being able to speak the language. The process itself is very humbling. If you start studying as an adult, or even as a teen, you quickly find yourself unable to communicate very simple thoughts that come naturally in your native language. You are forced to learn to express yourself better in that target language, to find alternative (typically simpler) ways to communicate, or to be quiet and not express your thoughts. When you live in a country where they do not speak your native tongue as the primary language, you become a much quieter, more introverted person than you normally are. It is difficult to join conversations. It is very difficult to keep up with what is being said. Even if you know the words the cultural context in which they are

communicated is foreign to you, which may leave you feeling even more frustrated. In other words, you know what they are saying but it does not mean anything.

This humbling process is invaluable in increasing your sensitivity and awareness to different cultures, as well as individuals from various cultures. As the saying goes, "a fish doesn't comprehend water until it is out of it." Through this process you gradually become aware your own assumptions, biases, and cultural values that have operated at an unconscious level. You become more forgiving of people who have trouble communicating their thoughts because you know how hard it is. In addition, you learn that people from different cultures truly view the world from similar and yet different perspectives. There is not just one way of seeing things. That becomes much more apparent when you learn a language and try to immerse yourself in a culture. This experience is vital for anyone who wants to work in a global environment. Embracing humility and gaining clarity helps immensely with perspective taking, the cognitive component of cross-cultural competence. Moreover, studies of language and cognition have demonstrated that being bilingual actually alters the way people see the world (Cook and Bassetti 2011), and ultimately makes it easier to appreciate the commonality and embrace diversity.

Getting Outside of I/O Psychology

Graduate coursework provides an excellent foundation for understanding the core activities of I/O psychologists. Courses on tests and measures, research design, organizational culture and development, leadership, training, compensation, etc., are essential to establishing a sound technical base from which to build. However, they tend to be very technically focused and do not provide many insights into cross-cultural issues. As is the case with most fields, I/O psychology tends to be somewhat myopic in its focus and scope. To gain a more robust understanding of cross-cultural issues we feel that future global consultants could benefit greatly by adding coursework from sociology, cultural anthropology, and cross-cultural psychology.

Modern cultural anthropological studies provide invaluable insights into the nature of work, as well as providing significantly different perspectives regarding what makes up "data" and how that can best be gathered. Cultural anthropologists are often employed by some of the world's most advanced organizations to help them understand their own workplace as well as to better integrate ideas across cultures.

In addition, coursework in cross-cultural psychology, whether it is I/O focused or not, can only benefit future global consultants. An understanding of the interaction of culture and psychology builds a foundation of appreciation of differences. Research methodology, culture and personality, and intercultural communication, are some examples of topic areas often covered in cross-cultural psychology, and are immediately applicable to working as global consultants. Assignments that require students to perform activities outside of their ordinary daily routine also broaden their worldview. Taking a trip to Little Italy or Chinatown, going to festivities hosted by an ethnic group distinct from the student themselves, attending a religious service completely separate from one's own religious affiliation, or participating in commu-

nity services in an ethnic neighborhood, are just a few examples. These novel experiences will likely bring some level discomfort, at least at first. The idea is that these activities, though unusual, will foster a sense that there is no one way or one right way to live or behave. Ultimately, it helps develop students who are better at embracing diversity and treating others with different backgrounds with respect. Further, we believe that one of the key competencies of success for global consultants is embracing diversity. Diversity, after all, refers to different perspectives, ways of thinking, of seeing the world, as well as cultural and ethnic background and race.

International business students typically spend a good deal of time going through case studies that explore various aspects of challenges faced in international markets. An ideal course assignment could be for students from multiple backgrounds/ cultures to work as a team to accomplish a common set of goals. Through that process, conflicts stemming from cultural differences may arise. They may observe cultural differences in thinking, problem identification, as well as appropriate alternatives for addressing the situation that they would not likely encounter in a more culturally homogenous group. With proper guidance from faculty, students would be able to experience "cultural shock" in a safe environment and learn how to work effectively with others who hold very different worldviews and values. Moreover, they will start developing the skills needed to communicate effectively despite those differences.

As communication technology advances and more classes are taught in virtual environments, students working on virtual teams may have the opportunity to experience the challenges of collaborating with individuals in different time zones, and nuanced differences in standards of communicating via email, text, or over the phone. Therefore, we feel that gaining an opportunity to work in a virtual, global, team environment, during graduate school is an invaluable preparation for global consultants. Most colleges and universities have international student bodies or faculty members, either within or outside the I/O program, from various nationalities. They are wonderful resources for students to experience a taste of something different right at home. Research has suggested that studying abroad and international travel is related to cross-cultural adjustment (Takeuchi et al. 2005). Although it might not always be feasible to incorporate those activities into a graduate program, it is possible to create opportunities for students to gain positive "global" experiences. Brown bag luncheon with invited speakers on special international business topics, breakfast with global executives in the local community, or even a shopping trip to help international students get situated are all possible ways to expose students to another culture, ways of living, and working. These are some examples of activities that can be done either inside or outside of the classroom. The key is to allow students to interact with other cultures at a more personal, low risk level.

In Closing

While this chapter has leaned more heavily on describing external I/O consultants, the competencies required for success are equally appropriate to internal I/O consultants in global environments. As has been pointed out earlier in the chapter, the competencies required for success for global consultants are very similar to those required of any consultant. Some competencies simply become more salient and critical as one moves to unique and novel environments such as those encountered in global consulting. Some people clearly excel in global settings while others find it extremely difficult and frustrating, and ultimately decide that they are not suited for such roles. Of all the competencies discussed in this chapter, perhaps the two most important in terms of distinguishing between these two divergent outcomes are embracing diversity and flexibility. Not surprisingly, these two competencies tend to be related to each other. Having an open mind, rolling with the punches, seeing opportunities in novel environments, and embracing multiple viewpoints will go a long way in ensuring success for the global consultant.

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Chapter 10
Training and Retraining I-O Psychology Faculty for Internationalization

Beverly Burke

It would be difficult for any industrial and organizational (I–O) psychologist to be unaware of calls to internationalize I–O psychology—the "Spotlight on Global I–O" column in *The Industrial–Organizational Psychologist* (*TIP*), numerous presentations at the annual conference of the Society for Industrial–Organizational Psychology (SIOP), articles such as Gelfand, Leslie, and Fehr's (2008) "To Prosper, Organizational Psychology Should…Adopt a Global Perspective," and books such as Lundby and Jolton's (2010) *Going Global: Practical Applications and Recommendations for HR and OD Professionals in the Global Workplace*. However, is this an impetus for I–O psychology faculty to take action, and, if so, do they know what to do?

Faculty in I–O psychology programs may be at various points on the journey to respond to the increasingly global context. Regardless of their current situations they are likely to have many questions about their role in the process, their goals, and which of many possible approaches would be most effective and the best fit for their particular program. Goals related to designing the curricula, adapting the programs, and developing the future generation of I–O psychologists must be tied to a specification of the competencies needed for success. It is difficult to separate the need for developing these competencies in the students and developing these competencies in the faculty members. This chapter is focused on developing faculty, but the ultimate goal is developing future I–O psychologists. The assumption is that the faculty must first have the competencies to effectively train the students.

The purpose of this chapter is to help guide I–O psychology faculty in assessing themselves and their programs, identifying the objectives of internationalization, and developing action plans to achieve their objectives. First, the section on "academic internationalization" provides background on the broader academic internationalization efforts, activities specifically related to psychology, and the role of faculty in internationalization. Second, the section on "global competencies" provides an overview of models, and identification of specific competencies and methods of

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assessment. Third, the section on "training and retraining I–O psychology faculty" provides a perspective on training from established I–O psychology methodologies and addresses multilevel strategies to internationalize—individual, program, university, and external to the university. Fourth, the final section looks to the future by asking "What Now?" At the end of each of the major sections, a set of questions is presented. These questions are designed to guide thinking and to provide some direction for internationalization efforts in I–O psychology graduate programs. Tools for assessment and planning are included in the appendices.

As much as possible, this chapter includes global perspectives, but, with a US author, much is from the perspective of US higher education. It is important to guard against ethnocentrism and recognize that cultural differences may introduce additional complexities into any of the topics covered in this chapter. However, while we try to understand how cultures differ in various ways, we should also remember the importance of individual uniqueness. Holt and Seki (2012) pointed out that overly simplistic views of cultural differences can have the unintended consequence of stereotyping, and they encourage paying attention to the uniqueness of each individual. In this spirit, I will share the story of my journey toward internationalization, admittedly idiosyncratic but perhaps inspiring readers to examine their own unique perspective and situations.

My Journey—Part 1

Circa: last decade of the twentieth century

Place: a university in the USA

A professor (me) teaching in an I–O psychology graduate program was hearing with increasing frequency about the need for I–O psychology to internationalize —reading about it, hearing about it at conferences, even seeing the kinds of work that the graduates of the program do. I think, "Somebody needs to work on this. Our program could use some internationalization. Not me, though. What do I know? I'm just a girl from Mississippi who's never been anywhere or done anything. Well, I did go to graduate school and get a PhD, but my graduate program never taught me about international I–O." The other professors in my program didn't study international I–O either. Who's going to do this? Where could we start?

At that point, only one thing seemed clear to me: We have some obstacles in getting international students into our program. Like most programs, we have a tight schedule of deadlines for applicants to apply to our program. They apply, we accept some and have a waiting list, there is a deadline for them to accept, and then we go to the waiting list as some decline. Soon all of the positions are filled, and no one else is accepted until next year. This presents complications for international applicants. They have additional steps in the process, and, at that time, we often didn't get their applications until all the positions were filled. Additionally, they often take longer to make sure that they have funding and that all the practicalities can be taken care of in order for them to move to another country for graduate study. All these obstacles resulted in not having any international students in our program.

Here was a good first step. Let's make a special effort to get international students into the program. We can talk to the international student office and the graduate office to try to streamline the process. We can allow international applicants more time to make the decision, and we can live with the ambiguity of not knowing until the last minute whether a couple of students are coming or not. In a few cases, we can even admit someone in the spring, especially if they need prerequisites. We were successful, and the international students have been immensely valuable in adding a global perspective to the program. We continue to bring international students into the program and have recently begun to have exchange students.

Academic Internationalization

Higher Education

Efforts in I–O psychology programs are connected to their universities' approaches and programs. Success in any initiative is influenced by whether program-level efforts are congruent with university approaches and are able to take advantage of support that may be available. To be effective, I–O psychology faculty must familiarize themselves with their universities' structure, programs, policies, people, and resources related to international efforts.

Institutions of higher education have made a concerted effort to internationalize university campuses. Rationales for internationalization have included economic, political, academic, and sociocultural reasons (Childress 2009). Much has been written about strategies, plans, approaches, models, and what factors facilitate or create obstacles for internationalization. Knight (2004) described internationalization as a "process" in order to emphasize that it is an ongoing effort and is developed over time.

Knight (2004) defined six approaches to internationalization at the institutional level: (a) activity—defined by study abroad, curriculum, programs and projects, partnerships, and branch campuses; (b) outcomes—defined by results such as student competencies and international agreements; (c) rationales—defined by the drivers of the effort such as academic standards and income generation; (d) process—defined by how internationalization is integrated into the functions of the institution; (e) at home—campus based and defined by a culture of international understanding; and (f) abroad (cross-border)—defined by delivery of education to other countries. It is possible (and perhaps desirable) to have a mixture of these in one institution. For example, a university may focus on activities, such as study abroad, but at the same time have at-home programs designed to promote intercultural understanding. Alternatively, it may have an income generation rationale in which full-tuition international students are recruited and also promote interactions between international students and other students to achieve the outcome of student global competencies.

Chan and Dimmock (2008) presented models of internationalization that differentiate universities as more focused on international relations or more focused on the home country. In addition they also differentiate institutions based on whether the purposes are pragmatic and based on self-interests, or more aspirational and aimed toward peace and understanding among nations. This reflected Knight's (2004) at home and abroad approaches and her rationales approach.

Edwards (2007) described two major approaches to internationalization in institutions of higher education: (a) opportunistic or (b) institutional planning. The opportunistic approach is bottom-up and depends on initiatives developed by individual faculty members, programs, or departments. The institutional planning approach is top-down and defined by the university's mission. This approach is characterized by strategic targets, consultation, and agreement regarding use of resources, and competition with other institutions for research dollars, students, and

Table 10.1 Two major approaches to internationalization in institutions of higher education. (Edwards 2007)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Opportunistic Approach: Bottom-Up	
Depends on initiatives developed by faculty/programs/departments	
Is not bound by a specific agenda from above	Lacks coordination
Typically is driven by the curriculum and discipline-specific objectives	Has frequent duplication of effort
Tends to lead to a high level of buy-in from faculty and students	Opportunities may be lost because efforts are limited to one unit
Faculty tends to be more engaged in internationalization	Disconnected activities may confuse more centralized and coordinated partner institutions in other countries
Tends to lead to durability of the program	
Institutional Planning Approach: Top-Down	
Defined by the institutional mission	
Has greater control	May not take advantage of the strengths of its faculty and programs
Can target opportunities most likely to pay off for the university	Opportunities may be lost because they are not in a region or in a discipline that is part of the overall plan
	Does not match the characteristics of typical US universities: decentralization, a high value for autonomy, specialization, and little sharing of knowledge

reputation. The two strategies can coexist, but usually one is the predominant approach in a particular institution.

Each approach described by Edwards (2007) has its advantages and disadvantages (summarized in Table 10.1). In the opportunistic approach, the greatest advantage is that it is not bound by a mandated agenda and is typically driven by the curriculum and discipline-specific objectives. This tends to lead to a higher level of buy-in from faculty and students and to durability of the program (O'Hara 2009). Otten (2009) recommended an intercultural learning community within the university to provide a supportive climate and to use power and influence to bring about change. Edwards (2007) suggested that the disadvantages of the opportunistic approach are a lack of coordination and frequent duplication of effort. Opportunities may be lost, because efforts are limited to one unit. Higher education outside the USA is often more centralized and coordinated, and opportunistic approaches may leave partner institutions from other countries confused about seemingly disconnected initiatives.

Edwards (2007) identified the primary advantages of the institutional approach as greater control and targeting of opportunities most likely to pay off for the university. However, an important disadvantage is that it may not leverage the strengths of faculty and programs. Thus, opportunities may be lost because they are not in a region or discipline that is part of the overall plan. Even when strategy and strengths of faculty seem congruent on the surface, there may be disconnects—for example,

when there are business and economic drivers for focusing on a particular country, but the faculty expertise regarding that country is in religion or the arts. Edwards suggested that the characteristics of typical US universities—decentralization, a high value for autonomy, specialization, and little sharing of knowledge—often produce unexpected results and frequent failure of collaborative initiatives.

Bartell (2003), Trondal (2010), and Taylor (2004) all emphasized top-down approaches to internationalization, but conveyed a necessary balance between top-down efforts and ensuring participation and a compatible internal culture (Bartell 2003). However, the behavior of faculty does not seem to be strongly related to the university strategy (Trondal 2010).

O'Hara (2009) presented evidence that the US faculty are some of the least internationalized when compared to faculty in other countries. According to Brustein (2007), the USA is falling short in the need to internationalize, and he explained how institutional efforts are insufficient to adequately prepare students for their emerging global roles. Although his emphasis was on undergraduate study, his concerns regarding integration of global study with the disciplinary major are relevant to graduate study as well. Even if students acquire international knowledge, they may not be engaged in the type of critical thinking that allows them to apply the international knowledge to their discipline. Green and Shoenberg (2006) described many institutions' efforts toward internationalization as just inserting an add-on component isolated from the academic core.

Psychology

Like other disciplines throughout the university, the field of psychology has recognized the need to internationalize. Bullock (2011) reported on activities of the American Psychological Association (APA) related to internationalization and emphasized the salience and urgency of these efforts. In addition to addressing issues related to science, practice, and the training of psychologists, she said that it is also essential to develop attitudes and values "congruent with being a global citizen" (p. 9) and that US psychologists must acquire expertise that has not been in most curricula or research programs.

The American Council on Education (ACE) has done extensive work to promote internationalization in colleges and universities (Green and Shoenberg 2006). To advance internationalization, ACE joined APA to develop global learning outcomes (Green and Shoenberg 2006). The APA Task Force on internationalizing the undergraduate psychology curriculum issued a report which proposed learning outcomes in the following five areas: (a) knowledge, (b) methodology, (c) the discipline of psychology, (d) interpersonal understanding, and (e) addressing global issues (APA 2005). The current APA Guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major (APA 2007) include sociocultural and international awareness. Belar (2008) pointed out that graduate education in psychology has not been as systematically addressed.

Faculty as a Focus of Internationalization Efforts

A central idea in much of the literature on internationalization is the important role of faculty. While ACE views the curriculum as central to internationalization, they stated that what is essential to success is "faculty members believing that global learning is a compelling goal that requires wide faculty participation" (Green and Shoenberg 2006, p. 3). Green and Shoenberg stated that faculty are key to internationalization efforts and that effective internationalization must come from academic departments. Childress (2009) concluded that "a common thread in the development, implementation, and monitoring of internationalization plans is the development of faculty engagement" (p. 306). Stohl (2007) said that "the chief challenge for developing and sustaining internationalization is the engagement of the faculty" (p. 360) and that it often depended on particular departments and one or two faculty members.

O'Hara (2009) presented evidence that faculty involvement in international activities increases student participation in international activities, increases enrollment of international students, increases research productivity, results in more innovative teaching, and increases external funding. Yet, as she emphasizes, US faculty are less internationally engaged than faculty in other countries, and they are less likely to view international connections as important. She urged more attention to supporting the engagement of faculty, because it has been often overlooked.

Therefore, in I–O psychology, a critical question is how to engage faculty in internationalization. More specifically, how do we transform a recognition of the need for internationalization into faculty commitment and behavioral change? Although the literature often emphasizes the importance of faculty engagement (e.g., Green and Shoenberg 2006; Childress 2009; Stohl 2007), it is sorely lacking in addressing how to engage those faculty.

Questions to Guide Understanding of Academic Internationalization

The following questions are presented to facilitate application of the information in this section regarding academic internationalization. The issues are complex, and situations vary, so analyzing one's own university and program may be beneficial for learning and understanding.

1. What is your university's approach to internationalization?
2. What is the climate for international initiatives in your university?
3. What support and resources are available in your university?
4. Who are the key people to know?
5. How supportive of internationalization are those in your chain of command (chair, dean, etc.)
6. Do any international initiatives currently exist in your I–O psychology program?

7. Are any of your I–O psychology faculty members passionate about international I–O?
8. How does internationalization fit within the orientation and philosophy of your program?
9. Does your program have a vision that includes internationalization?
10. Are there any potential collaborations on international initiatives within your university?

My Journey—Part 2
Circa: first decade of the twenty-first century

    Two things happened that quickly pushed me toward an international orientation: (a) I went to Cuba, and (b) I started going to international conferences. I first went to Cuba on a program led by a foreign language professor at my university. I had had a fascination with Cuba for a long time, had thought about trying to tag along on a university program so that I could travel legally, and—bingo! —I saw a flyer promoting the program, and it said that faculty members could go, too. Also, with the increasing number of Spanish-speaking people around me, I wanted to study Spanish, so I signed up for the Cuba program and signed up for the beginning Spanish course at my university. I went on this Cuba program twice, the second time as an associate director, and the inevitable thought (at least inevitable for me) jumped into my mind: "Are there I–O psychologists in Cuba?"

    My personal interest in Cuba gained momentum as I incorporated a professional interest, and I began the search for I–O psychologists. This was not an easy endeavor for many complicated reasons associated with US–Cuba relations, but I searched the internet and asked everyone who might possibly help, and eventually made a connection. The way I made a connection is related to item (b) above. I spent 10 days in Istanbul attending an international conference, returned home for a week, and then traveled to Cuba. I had made arrangements to meet with and interview people in Cuba who could help me learn about labor, human resources, and other related fields in my endeavor to explore I–O in Cuba. Someone I met at the conference in Istanbul knew an I–O psychologist in Cuba! Through the miracle of email, I was able to communicate and make arrangements to meet her.

    As for international conferences, I attended my first international conference in Istanbul, the congress of the European Association for Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP), and it was the beginning of an addiction. I have attended and presented at every EAWOP congress since, as well as other international conferences, all in 7 years. What a jumpstart to internationalizing! The conferences have been an opportunity to meet people from many countries and to learn about I–O throughout the world.

Global Competencies

Definitions and Models

Many researchers have theorized about what are often called "global competencies," the attributes and abilities needed for effectiveness in an international context. What competencies do I–O faculty need to be globally effective? Vast information is available regarding global competencies, but, unfortunately, the topic has been complicated by inconsistencies and differing conceptualizations. Holt and Seki (2012)

discussed the unwieldy nature of this literature and called for I–O psychologists to integrate and revamp models and tools for development. Much of the literature bemoans the lack of consistency (for example, Deardorff 2006; Hunter et al. 2006). Bücker and Poutsma (2010) summarized many of the issues that contribute to this problem. They described various terms that have overlapping but not identical definitions, including global mindset, cross-cultural competence, intercultural sensitivity, cultural intelligence, global leadership skills, cosmopolitanism, world mindedness, transnational mentality, and global literacy. Deardorff (2006) identified the terms cross-cultural competence, global competence, intercultural competence, and global citizenship.

Some coherent models have been developed, but more commonly a set of categories or a list of competencies is presented (e.g., Stone 2006). Deardorff (2006) stated that "a key criticism of existing definitions is that they are either too general or provide a disjointed list of attributes" (p. 253). Causalities are often unclear, and there is a lack of understanding of how knowing relates to doing (Bücker and Poutsma 2010), something that I–O psychologists would refer to as transfer of training (Goldstein and Ford 2002). Often the scope of global competency models is broad, such as internationalizing education (for example, Deardorff 2006) or global competency in business (for example, Mughan and Kyvik 2010). Some models have a narrower focus, such as Lovvorn and Chen's (2011) model of expatriate success and Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, and Ferzandi's (2006) study of factors related to expatriate effectiveness.

Wildman, Xavier, Tindall, and Salas (2010) used a broad definition of intercultural competence as "the ability to function effectively in another culture" (p. 258), and they said that the following constructs contribute to that effectiveness: emotional intelligence, social intelligence, adaptability, perspective taking, and cultural intelligence.

Bücker and Poutsma (2010) focused on the constructs of global mindset, cross-cultural competence, intercultural sensitivity, and cultural intelligence and integrated their components into a comprehensive model. At the base of their model are personality traits, strategic knowledge/cultural knowledge, skills and abilities, and behavioral repertoires. The first three of these categories together comprise the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) that influence the behavioral repertoires.

Mindfulness/meta-cognition is a controlling and learning mechanism in their model which influences the other factors through cognitive processing and values/motivation. The resulting cultural and strategic successes and failures affect mindfulness/meta-cognition through a learning process.

Deardorff (2006) conducted a study to seek consensus from intercultural scholars and from higher education administrators on intercultural competence. She presented two models with the same elements, but one was a pyramid and one was a process. In both, the attitudes of openness (withholding judgment), respect (valuing all cultures), and curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity) were fundamental. Then knowledge and comprehension (cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge, and sociolinguistic awareness) along with skills (listen, observe, and evaluate; analyze;

and interpret and relate) were needed to reach desired internal outcomes (adaptability, flexibility, ethnorelative view (seeing one's own culture in the context of other cultures) and empathy) that could lead to the desired external outcomes (effective and appropriate communication and behavior). Like Bücker and Poutsma (2010), Deardorff (2006) emphasized the importance of mindfulness throughout the process.

There are inconsistencies in models, but most address the ways that attitudes form a basis for competency, that internal processes are translated into behavior, and that cognitive processing and learning take place (for example, models proposed by Deardorff 2006; Bücker and Poutsma 2010). Many stress that the first step is self-awareness of one's own cultural norms and perceptions (for example, Hunter et al. 2006). However, research is needed to establish these causalities, such as whether attitudes are a prerequisite for learning and what kind of cognitive processes are necessary for behavior. Future research may clarify causalities and support or refute existing models.

To internationalize their programs, I–O psychology faculty must assess and make plans to develop their own global competencies so as to transfer them to students. The previously described definitions and models provide a broad framework for global competencies to be developed, but a taxonomy of specific competencies needed for effective international work may be more useful to pinpoint developmental goals for faculty members and for students.

Specific Competencies

It is easy to see how the lack of consensus, the complexities in the conceptualizations, and the long lists of proposed KSAOs and experiences needed for global competency can quickly overwhelm anyone who asks, "What do I need to be globally competent?" To further complicate matters, there is inconsistent support for the competencies in the literature (Bücker and Poutsma 2010), and often the measures of competencies and criteria have questionable validity (Holt and Seki 2012). In the educational setting, as definitions are varied and vague, assessments of student outcomes are often not carried out (Deardorff 2006). It is difficult to provide a firmly supported taxonomy of global competencies. However, categories of global competencies tend to be fairly consistent.

Deardorff's(2006) study identified the specific intercultural competencies with the highest consensus among intercultural scholars as relevant/important. All of the items together represented knowledge, skills, attitudes, and personal characteristics often included in lists throughout the literature. Murray, Burke, Frame, and Moffett (2013) compiled a comprehensive list gathered from the literature, and, across many different authors, studies, models, and disciplines, the competencies mentioned fell into four categories: (a) personality/traits/personal characteristics, (b) experiences, (c) attitudes/values/awareness, and (d) knowledge/skills/abilities (KSAs). These four categories will be abbreviated here as PEAK competencies. Murray et al.'s (2013) study is especially relevant for I–O psychology because he

surveyed I–O faculty in graduate programs and obtained importance ratings of the competencies in I–O psychology. It is interesting to note that he found that faculty with more international experience tended to rate cultural competencies higher in importance, but it is not clear whether (a) greater experience gave them a clearer picture of the importance, or (b) they were biased to believe that what they do is more important, or (c) they pursued more international activities because they thought it was important. Thus, even though individual competencies are not yet clearly established, the major categories have considerable consensus and may be useful for organizing and ultimately creating a more comprehensive taxonomy as more research is available. Murray et al.'s (2013) four categories—listed above and abbreviated as PEAK—comprehensively encompass competencies in the literature.

A summary and explanation of PEAK competencies is provided below and in Table 10.2. Examples are listed in each category, but it is important to remember that there are varying degrees of support for their importance individually, and it is not clear if their applicability is situational. The examples provided here are drawn from Deardorff (2006) and Murray et al. (2013) because they were systematically rated in those studies by experts—intercultural scholars in the first case and I–O psychology faculty in the second case. In Deardorff's study, items were accepted or rejected, and the metric is percent accepting. She used a criterion of 80 % accepting as a cutoff to consider them important. In Murray et al.'s study, items were rated on a 7-point scale, and the metric is percent rating in the top two points labeled "important" and "critical." For the examples below, 80–100 % was considered of highest importance and 60–80 % the next level of importance. Note that Deardorff did not group them into categories, so they are grouped here to be compatible with Murray et al.'s framework. Also, Deardorff's competencies are edited to create a concise list. The specific competencies are listed in Table 10.2.

Personality/Traits/Personal Characteristics As this category represents more stable characteristics that predispose someone to behave in a particular way, it may be easier to think about them in terms of selection criteria. However, there are also developmental implications. Awareness of personality characteristics associated with international effectiveness can help guide people toward behaviors that are more effective, even if they are different from their personality tendencies. Also, awareness of how one's typical behavior patterns may be barriers to effectiveness can help people avoid certain pitfalls of ineffective behavior.

Experience Although past experiences are not traditionally considered to be competencies, they are often integrated into conceptual frameworks of global competencies. The assumption seems to be that experiences are necessary and that experiences are a proxy for competencies due to the necessity of using competencies to function in those situations. However, evidence of competency development is not always clearly differentiated from the experiences that develop the competencies needed for effectiveness. Nevertheless, experiences are included here because theorists and researchers so often include them in their models. Deardorff (2006) did not include experiences in her list of items. In Murray et al.'s (2013) study, none

Table 10.2 PEAK global competencies. (From Murray et al. 2013; Deardorff 2006)

Personality/Traits/Personal Characteristics	Experience
Good judgment	Experience with building relationships with different cultures
Adaptability	Experience with different cultures
Open-mindedness	
Openness to experience	
Conscientiousness	
Tolerance for ambiguity	
Openness to change	
Being non-judgmental	
Perseverance	
Curiosity	
Patience	
Emotional stability	
Initiative	
Cultural flexibility	
Empathy	
Being goal-oriented	
Self-efficacy	
Independence	
Enthusiasm	
Confidence	
Adaptability of frame of reference and behavior	
Adaptability and adjustment to new environment	
Openness toward intercultural learning and people from other cultures	
Flexibility	
Tolerating and engaging ambiguity	
Cross-cultural empathy	
Withholding judgment	
Curiosity and discovery	
Attitudes/Values/Awareness	*Knowledge/skills/abilities*
Tolerance for differences among people	**Good verbal communication skills**
Respect for others	**Good listening skills**
Awareness of prejudices and stereotypes	**Interpersonal skills**
Cultural sensitivity	Ability to manage stress
Cultural awareness	Good nonverbal communication skills
Valuing different national cultures	Effective coping strategies
cultural humility	General cultural knowledge
Intercultural adroitness, awareness, and sensitivity that leads to global citizenship	Conflict resolution skills
Understanding others' worldviews	*Effective intercultural communication*
Cultural self-awareness and self-assessment	*Ability to identify and engage in unfamiliar cultural behaviors*
Respect for other cultures	*Behaving appropriately and effectively*
Understanding the value of cultural diversity	*Achieving goals through intercultural interaction*
Mindfulness	*Intercultural interpersonal skills and accurate and appropriate communication*

Table 10.2 (continued)

Personality/Traits/Personal Characteristics	Experience
Ethnorelative view	*Skills to listen and observe*
	Adapting to varying intercultural communication and learning styles
	Skills to analyze, interpret, and relate
	Deep knowledge and understanding of one's own and other cultures
	Understanding the role and impact of culture and contexts
	Cognitive flexibility between etic and emic (perspective from outside vs. inside a culture)
	Sociolinguistic competence
	Learning through interaction
	Culture-specific knowledge

Murray et al. (2013): highest importance
Murray et al. (2013): important
Deardorff (2006): important

of the items reached the level of highest importance, and it is interesting that travel abroad did not reach the criterion of importance.

Attitudes/Values/Awareness This category has often been emphasized as essential, and it tends to figure prominently in global competency models. Bullock (2011) described internationalization in psychology education as teaching students to become global citizens, and meta-cognition was an important process in Bücker and Poutsma's (2010) and Deardorff's (2006) models.

Knowledge/Skills/Abilities In Murray et al.'s (2013) study, the KSAs rated high in importance tended to be general communication, interpersonal, and coping skills. Only one that met the criterion of importance was specifically global—general cultural knowledge. Deardorff's items (2006) included more specifically intercultural KSAs but also emphasized communication and interpersonal skills.

Not addressed in the previous overview but critical for the field of I–O psychology are discipline-specific knowledge and skills. What do we know about cultural dimensions as related to organizations, about the cross-cultural generalizability of I–O psychology theories, and about the implications of language translations of surveys, tests, and training materials? What additional skills are needed to conduct research internationally? What complexities arise from implementing organizational programs (e.g., selection, training) across cultures? Fortunately, there are numerous resources—Lundby and Jolton (2010) and Ryan, Leong, and Oswald (2012) among many other publications—and conferences and other interactions with internationallyactiveI–O psychologists offer many opportunities to learn from others' experiences. I–O psychology faculty can find an abundance of resources for self-developing their own knowledge and skills and for integrating an international component into their teaching.

Assessment of Global Competencies

Numerous assessment tools are available for global competencies. Some well-known examples of quantitative measures are the Cultural Assessment Center's cultural intelligence (CQ) assessments (Ang and Van Dyne 2008) and the Thunderbird School of Global Management's Global Mindset Inventory (Javidan et al. n.d.). Additionally, a practical and convenient approach is to conduct a qualitative self-assessment. Though not as systematic and rigorous as the quantitative tools, it may have the advantage of helping to provide the depth of self-understanding so often emphasized as important (for example, Bücker and Poutsma 2010; Deardorff 2006; Hunter et al. 2006).

A qualitative self-assessment is presented in Appendix A—the PEAK Self-Assessment. Although subjective, it may help focus on an ongoing developmental process. Using this while participating in various international activities may help to continually reevaluate oneself and engage in the meta-cognition about the international experiences that is deemed necessary for development.

Questions to Guide Assessment of Individual and Program Global Competencies

The following questions are presented to facilitate application of the information in this section regarding global competencies. Pinpointing the current state is useful before moving forward, so these questions are intended to clarify individual and program competencies.

1. What is the level of development of internationalization in your I–O psychology program?
2. In your program, is there internationalization in courses, research, applied work, and/or student and faculty experience?
3. How much are faculty members in your program aware of the need to internationalize?
4. How much do faculty members in your program value internationalization?
5. Do any of your I–O psychology faculty have expertise in international I–O psychology?
6. Do any of your I–O psychology faculty have expertise in a particular country/ culture?

My Journey—Part 3
Circa: now
   I am continuing my effort to learn about international I–O psychology. I am conducting some research on the topic, go to international conferences, make presentations about international I–O, and meet others with similar interests. I talk to people at conferences, and I have found an interesting trend. There seem to be two types of people: (a) those who are deeply immersed in, passionate about, and knowledgeable of international I–O and (b) those who are none of the above. Where are the people like me? Aren't there faculty who

want to internationalize their programs but are new to it and trying to figure out what to do? Are most I–O psychologists unaware of this need, or are many aware but not talking about it?

I am now connected to several I–O psychologists in Cuba. Not only does Cuba have I–O psychologists, they have I–O psychology graduate study! Through the gauntlet of US travel regulations related to Cuba, I have traveled there seven times and have developed some wonderful relationships and partnerships in Cuba and have taken other people, including graduate students. I am continuing to study Spanish. I do not want to have to say "no" when someone asks if I speak another language.

Recently I volunteered for my university's International Education and Exchange Committee. Now I'm familiar with my university's policies and procedures, I know the leaders and major players in international activities at my university (and they know me), and I have a deeper understanding of the big picture. I know how to initiate programs, get funding, find people to collaborate with, and I am aware of a lot things that can go wrong. Now I see how my activities are embedded in the larger system. I found people who have been deeply immersed in international education throughout their careers and are adept at navigating the waters. I am learning.

To focus on the internationalization needs in my I–O graduate program, we are including new questions in our alumni survey to gather more information about what international activities our graduates are engaged in at work and what global competencies they need to be effective. The newer generation of students is more internationally oriented. More have studied abroad as undergraduates, and many are interested in global topics. I am currently supervising two thesis of students who are working on international research topics.

I am no longer the girl from Mississippi who has never been anywhere or done anything. I have been out in the world and I am working on getting others out there with me. I am an experienced traveler familiar with the practicalities of travel. My PEAK profile is rapidly progressing. I am gaining experience and improving my KSAs. My attitudes, values, and awareness are continuing to develop. I am more attentive to how my effectiveness is influenced by my personality strengths (sky high on openness) and weaknesses (introverted, so I get exhausted with intense cross-cultural interaction).

I hope that my efforts are paying off for my I–O graduate program. I guess I need to follow some of my own guidelines and do some assessments.

Training and Retraining I–O Psychology Faculty

Training Needs Assessment and Job Analysis

I–O psychology approaches are helpful to structure our thinking about the need to train and retrain I–O psychology faculty for internationalization. We know the value of using systematic training needs assessment (Goldstein an Ford 2002) and can use these techniques to determine training needs for (a) graduate students preparing to become faculty (training) and (b) current faculty (retraining).

Training needs assessment occurs at multiple levels of analysis. At the individual level, person analysis identifies KSA gaps; at the job level, job analysis identifies tasks and KSAs needed for a position; and at the organizational level, organizational analysis and requirements analysis addresses the organizational context and the assessment procedure itself. Basic needs assessment techniques include: observation; questionnaires; consultation with key people; professional, trade, and

in-house publications; interviews; group discussion; tests; records and reports; and work samples (Goldstein and Ford 2002). Any of the levels of analysis and techniques for needs assessment may be useful for training and retraining I–O faculty for internationalization. For example, person analysis may be useful for current faculty members to identify their own developmental needs, and Murray et al.'s (2013) study is an example of job analysis to identify job requirements. Although typically not described this way, the work summarized in the global competencies section presented earlier could be considered the type of job analysis called competency modeling. Competency modeling is usually used for more complex jobs and identifies broad characteristics associated with an organization's context, strategy, and goals (Brannick et al. 2007). This approach seems suitable to internationalization, because effective internationalization is not defined by specific job tasks but rather by broad and abstract outcomes. Carey, Herst, and Chan (2010) recommend competency modeling for international jobs, because KSAOs cannot be specifically delineated in a way that applies to the international context in a flexible way. However, Brannick et al. (2007) point out that a disadvantage of competency modeling is that it often results in long lists of abstract competencies deemed important even though some may not be so important, and this may be exactly what has happened with global competencies.

Global competencies identified in the literature may not be generalizable across organizations, disciplines, situations, and people. Furthermore, competencies for effective performance in international work may not be identical to competencies for effectively training students for international work, so efforts to identify I–O psychology-specific competencies should incorporate this differentiation. It may be safe to assume that faculty members need to have mastery of those things that they teach, but faculty development and student development may have some differences. For example, faculty members need to learn about internationalization in their own universities—programs, policies, resources, and support—and guide students to opportunities, but the students do not need to learn the details of that environment. Faculty members may have more of an obligation to promote values such as the importance of cultural sensitivity, while the students may only need to practice those values. Also, students may have a greater need to become knowledgeable about a particular culture in which or with which they plan to work, while faculty members may need to provide students a more general foundation for development of cross-cultural competencies and would not need to have knowledge of all cultures. However, regardless of the different roles that I–O psychologists may have, any specification of I–O psychology international competencies would be helpful for both faculty self-development and for designing developmental opportunities for students.

Further study may add to our knowledge about global competencies specific to I–O psychology, and other disciplines can continue to provide useful parallel information. Currently, there seems to be enough consistency from across sources to target the most important competencies. Attitudes, values, and awareness are a prerequisite for development. Experiences are critical for development and awareness allows cognitive processing necessary to learn from the experiences. Important knowledge

and skills include the general ones, such as interpersonal and communication skills, as well as specifically international ones. Personal characteristics can enhance or be an obstacle to effectiveness, and they can be developed or utilized/overcome.

Although not clearly specified in the literature, knowledge and skills are required for faculty to learn about international education, promote internationalization in the program and in the university, and navigate the complex administrative and political realities of the university. As discussed in the earlier section on *Academic Internationalization*, university strategies vary and faculty engagement is key. For I–O psychology faculty with little or no international experience, how does one enter and master this world? How does one motivate and get others on board?

The information currently available provides individuals and programs direction so that they can conduct more targeted assessments for their own situations. For individual assessment, there are numerous tools such as the quantitative ones mentioned in the previous section and the qualitative *PEAK Self-Assessment* in Appendix A. It can serve as a simple, readily accessible tool to structure the process of using the numerous lists of competencies in the literature to think through one's own strengths, weaknesses, and plans for development. The *Strategies to Internationalize* section and the *Guidelines: Assessment and Planning for Internationalization* in Appendix B provide more information to guide faculty to learn the knowledge and skills needed to navigate international education in their universities and to promote internationalization in their programs.

In addition to assessing people and jobs, training needs analysis requires an assessment of the organizational context and a determination of assessment methods that are suitable and feasible for the situation. Faculty may need to assess their I–O psychology graduate program and their university. The *Guidelines: Assessment and Planning for Internationalization* in Appendix B helps structure the process of assessing one's own situation and planning for faculty and program development. For both individual faculty and the program, gap analysis of the current state as compared to the ideal state can help provide a direction—a roadmap, so to speak—on the journey toward internationalization.

Strategies to Internationalize

Considerable research has examined facilitating factors in internationalization, barriers to the process, and strategies that incorporate this knowledge. Crosling, Edwards, and Schroder (2008), focusing on business education, said that there were several core issues to consider in internationalization. Facilitating factors included: (a) people understanding why change is required, able to cope with it, and having ownership of the process; and (b) commitment of senior leaders through leadership and resources. Obstacles included: (c) academicians valuing autonomy in curriculum; and (d) academicians frustrated with heavier administrative and teaching workloads and with increased pressure for research.

Strategies to internationalize can be organized at the levels of individual, program, university, and external, but they likely overlap and influence across levels as interconnected systems.

Individual Unless faculty value internationalization, nothing will happen. Therefore the first step is fostering faculty buy-in (Brustein 2007; Stohl 2007). Faculty members must then attend to their own development, typically having to gain expertise that was not part of their own education and has not been included in most curricula or research programs (Bullock 2011). Faculty members may lack understanding of internationalization or see it as an infringement on their autonomy and established ways of doing things (Childress 2009). This may lead to discomfort due to challenges to assumptions and values, and a lack of self-efficacy. Academic careers are based on being an expert, and faculty may feel that they have to start over and learn a new game. They may fear losing status associated with expertise or feel like they are moving backwards. Additionally, they may not want to drain energy and resources from other efforts, and they may not have knowledge regarding the resources necessary for success.

Many of these concerns can be mitigated if faculty members understand that internationalization is not an all-or-nothing endeavor. They can assess themselves and their programs, develop congruent strategies and move one step at a time. Some efforts can be relatively easy, such as presenting at an international conference or recruiting international students into their program. Faculty members are accustomed to keeping their knowledge uptodate through reading and attending conferences, so simply learning more about international topics through these methods is a painless transition. Understanding that I–O programs can respond to the increasingly global context in a step-by-step fashion that fits with the mission and philosophy of the program may help faculty view the effort as worthwhile and feasible.

There is much about the academic environment that may facilitate and motivate individual development. Academicians are generally motivated by learning and discovery, and internationalization efforts offer many pathways to enhance scholarship (Stohl 2007). Internationalization efforts can be congruent with faculty members' own agendas, such as quality teaching, research programs, and continually expanding their expertise.

Strategies for international training include almost any strategies used for training in general including travel and intercultural contact, project teams, training, coaching, assessment, networking, and personal development plans (Holt and Seki 2012). McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) and Hollenbeck and McCall (2003) said that the complex job of global professionals should not be broken down into narrow competencies but, instead, developing global leaders should be strategy-based and results-driven and should be structured around experiences. They emphasized the importance of self-development due to the complexity of the job and situational variation, factors also present in the jobs of I–O faculty members wishing to internationalize. Designing faculty development around program strategy and desired outcomes and depending heavily on self-development is likely to be an effective approach in the academic environment.

Wildman et al. (2010) explained that training approaches can be didactic, primarily used for culture-specific knowledge, and/or experiential, primarily used for culture-general skills, and the two approaches can be mixed. They provided evidence of intercultural competence training program effectiveness but stated that there does not seem to one best way regarding the method(s) to train these competencies. Wildman et al. (2010) were, however, able to provide a set of best practices for global organizations to train intercultural competence (edited here for conciseness): (a) needs assessment with a focus on culture; (b) cognitive, skill-based, and affective outcomes; (c) culture-generic training; (d) culture-specific training tied to specific work situations; (e) longer, more complex training for longer, more complex assignments; (f) individualized to trainee, if possible; (g) an advanced organizer (a guiding framework); (h) multiple approaches in an integrated training approach; (i) developmental feedback during training; and (j) multiple methods for evaluation of outcomes.

There do not seem to be coherent lists of training approaches specific to internationalizing faculty, but, rather, it is common for those discussing the matter to use examples. Examples include methods generally used for graduate education and for faculty continuing development: courses, reading, research, internships, consulting, conferences, workshops, mentoring, and others. For internationalization, these methods often include a component of travel and/or interaction with people who are culturally different from oneself (for example, teaching in another country or partnering on research with someone from another country).

Program Little has been written about how I–O psychology graduate programs might define the international orientation of their programs and how this might relate to their general orientation and philosophy. For example: Do graduates tend to go into academia or applied work or both? Do faculty members function more independently or collaborate more as a team? Is internationalization needed for basic competency in the field, or does the program define itself as an internationallyoriented program, or something in between those two extremes? Do faculty members agree on the degree of internationalization? Adopted strategies should be congruent with the program, based on these and similar questions.

Green and Shoenberg (2006) suggested some activities possible at the program level: bringing in international visiting faculty and visiting scholars; advising students to pursue internationalizing activities; building internationalization into the curriculum so that, rather than slowing progress toward graduation, it is a step toward graduation; linking one's program with programs in other countries; using technology to facilitate connections; collaborating with other departments in one's own university; sharing ideas with programs in other institutions; and connecting with community businesses and ethnic groups. Holt and Seki (2012) also recommended leveraging the work of other disciplines and forming interdisciplinary research teams. If I–O psychology faculty members do not have international experience, they may look to other disciplines in their university, such as business or education, to find experienced others with whom they can develop knowledge and skills through collaborative work.

Progress toward graduation, mentioned by Green and Shoenberg (2006), may need special attention because it is often a concern of students and faculty. Sometimes they see internationalization activities as taking away from time and space in the curriculum, such as when a student is away from the major professor's research program or when an international internship delays when the student can take certain courses. The absence of a faculty member may put a strain on the program when the other faculty must pick up the slack in teaching courses and supervising student research.

University Although more difficult for faculty and programs to influence, the university can have a large impact on internationalization efforts. The factors that facilitate or hinder efforts are often part of the larger system. Faculty can more effectively internationalize if they know their own university's culture for internationalization, the resources and support available, and the obstacles inherent in the system. There may be a need to exert influence, such as supporting tenure and promotion criteria that include internationalization efforts or lobbying for more monetary support of international travel. In some cases, it may even be necessary to work against or in spite of the system, such as leading (being a pioneer) in situations where internationalization is underdeveloped or not aligning with university strategy when choosing a country or region on which to focus. Regardless of the situation, any internationalization efforts must take into account the larger system.

Internationalization is more effective if the university's internal culture is aligned with the objectives and strategies of the university's effort (Bartell 2003). Agnew and VanBalkom (2009) reported a number of factors related to cultural readiness for internationalization: (a) micro level—student motivation for university study, demand for international experiences, and tenure system; (b) meso level—strategic priority, budgetary support, institution's mission, and alignment of mission and internal culture; and (c) macro level—state funding, business community demand for graduates ready for the global workforce, and international networks and partnerships in the strategic plan. These factors are also relevant to program efforts and efforts in the discipline of I–O psychology, and alignment of the levels is necessary, especially when university internationalization efforts are centralized rather than decentralized.

Obstacles to internationalization efforts often involve resources and the reward system. Childress (2009) suggested that inadequate funding and lack of support from top leaders (resources) were common obstacles, and Stohl (2007) emphasized the negative impact on faculty commitment when support is lacking. Rewards in hiring, tenure and promotion, and merit systems should ultimately support internationalization (Brustein 2007; Green and Shoenberg 2006; O'Hara 2009). Stohl (2007) pointed out that tenure and promotion decisions require support from both university policies and individual faculty who vote on decisions. Brustein also recommended grants for international activities, and O'Hara recommended sabbaticals or other paid leave for teaching and research abroad, salary supplements and benefits while abroad, and recognition. Also, students need funding for international activities (Green and Shoenberg 2006).

External Numerous sources external to the university can support and enhance internationalization efforts. Professional associations such as the American Psychological Association often provide knowledge resources and even funding for internationalization (Belar 2008). Funding and structured programs are available from various sources, including government, professional associations, foundations, and other nongovernment organizations.

A well-known example of a successful program is the Fulbright International Educational and Exchange Program, which offers opportunities for studying, teaching, and conducting research and supports both US citizens to go abroad and non-US citizens to go to the USA (US Department of State: Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, n.d.). Many recommend the Fulbright program for its wide range of programs, countries, training, and support (for example, O'Hara 2009).

Another potential resource is the Atlantis Program, a joint effort of the US Department of Education and the European Commission's Directorate General for Education and Culture which supports international curriculum development and student exchange (European Union-United States Atlantis Program, n.d.). An example of a program specific to I–O psychology is the Erasmus Mundus European Master on Work, Organizational and Personnel Psychology (WOP-P), which is a cross-country program and offers various opportunities for students and faculty to connect in international activities—for example, students who are not in their program can apply to participate in their winter school, and outside faculty can apply to be a teaching or research scholar in the program WOP-P. In addition to broad academic programs, local communities may have numerous resources and potential partners, such as multinational businesses and cultural groups.

Questions to Guide Planning for Training and Retraining I–O Psychology Faculty for Internationalization

The following questions are presented to facilitate application of the information in this section regarding training and retraining I–O psychology faculty. Each program must determine its own vision and direction and must develop its own plan. There is no one best methodor cookie cutter approach, so these questions are designed to provide programs and individual faculty guidance in setting their direction.

1. How do you want to position your I–O psychology program in international I–O?

   a. Minimal competency for effectiveness given the orientation, philosophy, and objectives of the program.
   b. Some areas of strength, for example, one or two faculty members with international expertise, an international research program, a partnership or tie to a particular country or institution, a particular course or activity.
   c. Identity as an internationallyfocused program.

2. What are your international educational objectives in your program, and how large is the gap between where you are and where you want to be?
3. What actions would most likely achieve your educational objectives?
4. Is there a mechanism for action planning in your program in order to set goals and develop plans?
5. Which faculty members are or would be responsible for implementation of internationalization initiatives?
6. What are the current strengths in your faculty members, your program, and your university that can boost your efforts?
7. What are individual faculty members' developmental needs?
8. What are the challenges in accomplishing your goals?

What Now?

Although they were addressing undergraduate education, Green and Shoenberg's (2006) question, "Who is listening?" (p. 21), is relevant here. The authors state that "it is comparatively easy to get the enthusiastic agreement of a small group of committed people to lay out a particular course of action and generate ideas for its implementation" (p. 22). However, they questioned how many will actually change the curricula, develop initiatives, and, ultimately, change standard practices.

This chapter is broadly directed toward I–O psychology graduate programs and is intended to extend beyond the small segment of I–O professors with international interests and expertise. Perhaps this and other efforts can embolden faculty and students new to internationalization and generate movement. It will be helpful to shift our conceptualization of international I–O psychology from seeing it as a specialty of a few to accepting it as part of the field's ongoing developmental process. Just as faculty—individually and at the program level—stay up-to-date, learn new things, and try new endeavors, they also can identify internationalization objectives that are a good fit and feasible in their various situations.

Are we up to the challenge of ensuring that our field is relevant to the global context? Because faculty members are at the core of I–O psychology training, internationalizing I–O depends on them, and we must attend to the factors that influence their behavior. Issues that were discussed in the chapter may be grouped into two major categories to guide thinking about strategies to influence behavior: (a) the internal pull that comes from commitment and (b) the external push from the environment. First, the pull depends on increasing awareness and changing attitudes in order to provoke energy and commitment. Energizing factors, such as the excitement of learning new things, must be sufficiently strong to overcome reluctance and lack of self-efficacy. Second, the push takes the form of reward systems and support systems that encourage rather than discourage international activities. Individual faculty and I–O psychology programs may have limited power to influence external factors, such as tenure and promotion criteria and

funds available for travel. Nevertheless, they can assess their own situations, use ideas such as those in this chapter, share experiences, and develop effective ways to move forward.

What is our vision of an internationalized I–O psychology? In the past, I–O psychology grappled with incorporating civil rights law into employee selection, including women in the study of leadership, and expanding training to include rapidly developing technologies. What, at the time, seemed to be separate topics to be added to the curriculum are now core to those areas. Perhaps, in a similar way, I–O psychology in the future will be global at its core, and asking how to internationalize will seem as quaint and dated as asking how to train I–O psychologists to develop legally defensible employee selection systems. It is just what we do.

Appendix A

PEAK Self-Assessment

Personality/Traits/Personal Characteristics Good judgment, adaptable, open-minded, openness to experience, conscientiousness, tolerance for ambiguity, openness to change, nonjudgmental, perseverance, curiosity, patience, emotional stability, initiative, cultural flexibility, empathy, goal-oriented, self-efficacy, independent, enthusiasm, confidence, adaptability of frame of reference and behavior, adaptability and adjustment to new environment, openness toward intercultural learning and people from other cultures, flexibility, tolerating and engaging ambiguity, cross-cultural empathy, withholding judgment, curiosity and discovery.

> Strengths:
> Weaknesses:
> Examples of representative past experiences:
> Developmental plan:

Experience Building relationships with different cultures and experience with different cultures.

> Strengths:
> Weaknesses:
> Examples of representative past experiences:
> Developmental plan:

Attitudes/Values/Awareness Global citizen, meta-cognition, tolerance for differences among people, respectful for others, awareness of prejudices and stereotypes, cultural sensitivity, cultural awareness, valuing different national cultures, cultural humility, intercultural adroitness, awareness, sensitivity that leads to global citizenship, understanding others' worldviews, cultural self-awareness and self-assessment,

respect for other cultures, understanding the value of cultural diversity, mindfulness, ethno-relative view.

Strengths:
Weaknesses:
Examples of representative past experiences:
Developmental plan:

Knowledge/Skills/Abilities Good verbal communication skills, good listening skills, interpersonal skills, ability to manage stress, good nonverbal communication skills, effective coping strategies, general cultural knowledge, conflict resolution skills, effective intercultural communication, ability to identify and engage in unfamiliar cultural behaviors, behaving appropriately and effectively, achieving goals through intercultural interaction, intercultural interpersonal skills and accurate and appropriate communication, skills to listen and observe, adapting to varying intercultural communication and learning styles, skills to analyze/interpret/ and relate, deep knowledge and understanding of one's own and other cultures, understanding the role and impact of culture and contexts, cognitive flexibility between etic and emic, sociolinguistic competence, learning through interaction, culture-specific knowledge.

Strengths:
Weaknesses:
Examples of representative past experiences:
Developmental plan:

The competencies listed here are drawn from Deardorff's (2006) and Murray et al.'s (2013) work.

Appendix B

Guidelines: Assessment and Planning for Internationalization

This list provides a guide for faculty to internationalize their programs. The list reflects potential activities and areas where faculty can self-assess and plan and where they can develop knowledge and skills. It is presented as a guide for targeting activities in a step-by-step, ongoing effort and is not intended to be a short-term list to accomplish. Development of an individual faculty member is embedded in the process and is integral to internationalizing the program.

Assessment of Current Situation

Individual

• Perform quantitative and/or qualitative assessment for global competencies.
• Create a developmental plan to develop global competencies.

Program

- Articulate the mission, orientation, and philosophy of the program.
- Identify existing international content, activities, and initiatives in the program:
  - Course content related to internationalization.
  - Research topics related to internationalization—students and faculty.
  - Applied work with an international component—students and faculty.
  - Extracurricular activities with an international component
- Identify the international diversity of students.
- Assess the international expertise and experience of faculty members.
- Assess the commitment of individual faculty members to internationalization.
- Identify needs for internationalization in the program.

University

- Determine the university's approach to internationalization: bottom-up or top-down.
- If top-down, assess the congruency of university strategy with program objectives for internationalization.
- If bottom-up, assess the university climate for international activities.
- Learn the university's administrative structure for international activities.
- Learn the university's policies and procedures for international activities.
- Identify support and resources within the university for international activities.

External environment

- Identify support and resources from external sources for international activities.
- Identify multinational businesses in the local area.
- Identify cultural groups in the local area.
- Assess the international diversity in the local area.

Planning: Objectives and Action Plans

Objectives

- Position the program internationally in a way that is congruent with program objectives:
  - Minimum internationalization for competency in the field
  - Internationalization as a strength of the program
  - Program identified as an internationallyfocused program
- Specify and prioritize program objectives related to internationalization.
- Specify student learning objectives related to internationalization.

Action plans

- Conduct short-term planning and long-term planning for internationalization objectives. Include a time frame for each objective.
- Assign person(s) to take the lead on internationalizing the program—some/all of faculty.

- Select methods to achieve objectives—which activities: courses, extra-curricular, research, travel, international students, partner programs, etc.
- Assign person(s) responsible for each objective.
- Identify potential resources to support plans.
- Obtain resources needed for plans.
- Identify and address obstacles to fulfilling objectives.

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Part IV
Concrete Action

Chapter 11
The Making of Generation G: Education and Collaborative Teaching to Create the Next Generation of International Work and Organizational Psychologists

William K. Gabrenya Jr. and Wenhua Yan

Introduction

The recent, rapid development of international work and organizational psychology (iWOP) is taking place in the context of a broader academic movement toward internationalization in higher education. In the USA, the American Council on Education (ACE), the National Assn for Foreign Student Administrators (NAFSA), and the Institute of International Education (IIE) have taken the lead in this movement and many universities have become heavily involved. Similarly, Chinese universities, such as East China Normal University (ECNU), are placing great emphasis on international education. In the European Union, the Erasmus and Erasmus Mundus programs have contributed to this effort. These national and university movements provide a fertile environment in which all disciplines can internationalize. In this chapter, we discuss the educational needs for developing what we will term "Generation G" (the global generation) of professionals in international iWOP, and we review in depth our experiments in providing one kind of educational experience to students, collaborative teaching using international virtual team projects.[1]

What will Generation G do? Extrapolating from current trends in academia and in professional practice, this generation will participate directly in a myriad of overseas work experiences or will be indirectly involved through education, training, job analysis, selection, performance evaluation, and other fundamental components of organizational activity. To illustrate, Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, and Bolino (2012) introduced a typology of "global work experiences" that include corporate expatriates (overseas assignments by a company lasting several years), self-initiated expatriates

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[1] "Generation G" has also been used elsewhere to refer to the generous generation and to the video game generation. We prefer our usage.

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(people who relocate overseas on their own), short-term assignees (3–12 months), "flexpatriates" (1–2 month assignments in multiple countries), and "international business travelers" (1–3 week trips to multiple countries). What do people who participate in these international work activities need to know to do their jobs effectively? The skill sets are extensive and complex, to say the least. We explore Generation G's required competencies in the first half of this chapter, and then in the remainder of the chapter we present our experiments in "collaborative teaching" as a classroom strategy to build some of these competencies.

Globalization in Academic and Professional iWOP

Practitioners working in applied settings and academic industrial/organizational (I/O) psychologists alike should anticipate an increasingly internationalized lifespace. Practitioners may find themselves in consulting companies with numerous overseas branches that are, effectively, multinational corporations performing work for other multinational corporations. Interaction between multinational virtual teams is becoming commonplace in these work situations and takes place in the context of a plethora of cultural and organizational challenges. The work of these consulting companies will become progressively more culturally sophisticated. For example, although current practices in overseas offices of international consulting companies seem to focus on translating rather than adapting their proprietary instrumentation, true test adaptation (Hambleton and Zenisky 2011) will eventually become the norm and extensive skills will be needed to adequately perform this kind of work. Selection and training are now complicated by the need to include intercultural competencies among selection criteria and to train these competencies as required by the job characteristics. iWOP practitioners increasingly find themselves in positions to prepare employees for overseas work and to consult on the repatriation of these expats.

Academics are charged with the responsibility of preparing these practitioners for international careers. PhD programs in the USA have only begun to integrate this preparation into their curricula, although some business schools have been at the leading edge (e.g., Thunderbird). The development of one such program is described in detail in Griffith et al. (2012). Most research on iWOP topics is conducted by academic psychologists. WOP research is among the most methodologically sophisticated of the psychology subfields, but conducting cross-cultural research adds an additional layer of complexity, as writings on these methods illustrate well (e.g., Tsui et al. 2007). Most of the extant research, as well as discourse on research methods, is currently conducted by cross-cultural psychologists who specialize in organizational and social psychology, but we can expect the opposite pattern to gradually emerge: iWOP academics who have learned cross-cultural theory and methods will take the lead within a generation.

On the Proper Education of iWOP Practitioners

Practitioners in iWOP will need to know… a lot. First, practitioners will need the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) of a "global traveler," in Schaffer et al.'s (2012) words, about which much has been written (cf. Deardorff 2009). Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) list 326 constructs that have been studied with respect to overseas adjustment and performance, including domains they label motivation, knowledge, "higher order skills," "macro-level skills/competencies," "skills," composure, coordination, expressiveness, "contextual competencies," performance outcome, and "context" (situational variables). Theoretical, largely subject matter expert (SME)-driven analyses of required competencies have helped distill extensive lists of this kind. For example, Deardorff (2006) used a Delphi technique to identify seven general sets of competencies and 22 specific KSAs. The competencies included:

- Communication ability based on KSAs
- Adaptability, flexibility, frame shifting
- Identification and performance of new culturally appropriate behaviors
- Appropriate behavior in specific cultural contexts
- Ability to achieve goals through constructive interaction
- Interpersonal skills exercised interculturally
- Enlightened global citizenship (awareness, sensitivity, and communication skills)

Similar listing efforts have been undertaken by the US military using a combination of SME, qualitative research, and quantitative research strategies (Hardison et al. 2009; McCloskey et al. 2010; Johnston et al. 2010; McDonald et al. 2008; Spencer 2010). Gabrenya et al. (2012) compared these military competency models and found a high degree of convergence.

Several meta-analyses and qualitative reviews have attempted to identify key competencies and dispositional characteristics that are predictive of overseas performance. These reviews discovered that interpersonal skills, self-efficacy, language ability, Big 5 dimensions, communication competence, and interpersonal flexibility all contribute (although the empirical literature is not consistent for some of these characteristics, for example, Big 5-openness and flexibility). The competencies and dispositions collected in these theoretical and empirical efforts add up to a term coined by Paula Caligiuri, "cultural agility:" "…the ability to quickly, comfortably, accurately, and successfully operate across countries with people from different cultures—in other words, to use your cross-cultural learning effectively" (Caligiuri et al. 2011, p. 7). We do not yet know, conclusively, which of these many, often complex KSAs are subject to educational processes and experience and which are only selectable, but they certainly add considerable requirements for effective professional performance.

An ongoing debate in cross-cultural psychology is the extent to which culture competencies should be culture-general or culture-specific. We argue that both are needed: a culture-general toolbox and a great deal of culture-specific knowledge for specific overseas assignments. One assignment for academics in Generation G will

be to produce useful guidelines for delineating when culture-general and culture-specific competencies are needed by practitioners and, of course, how they should be taught in juxtaposition.

Two studies have been conducted to ascertain the training requirements of iWOP postgraduate students. Griffith et al. (2012) report the results of an SME qualitative study conducted by the first author's department. An SME sample of academics and professionals reported competencies for applied work highly similar to the sets described above. Nearly every SME in the study indicated that overseas experience was a necessary component of postgraduate education in iWOP. A survey study performed by the I/O program at Middle Tennessee State University that included a broader set of competencies and a cross section of I/O psychologists found that 46–56 % of respondents considered overseas travel and experience with other cultures to be important or critical to international effectiveness (Murray et al. 2013). Not surprisingly, respondents who themselves had had international experience rated this kind of experience as more important than those who had not. The extent to which SME responses in studies of this kind are a function of their reading of the literature or of other ways of knowing, such as direct experience, is unclear.

Academics and practitioners working in applied settings largely agree on cross-cultural competencies. Hunter et al. (2006) used a Delphi technique involving data from human resource (HR) department managers and international educators to identify the KSAs needed for what they termed "global competence" and to look for differences between these two samples. Few differences were found, although educators were more likely to emphasize a conceptual understanding of globalization and possessing positive attitudes toward diversity, while HR managers were more likely to emphasize foreign language skills. The most highly endorsed qualities that they termed "global competencies" were "speak another language more than 25 % of the time," "it is important to have experienced culture shock to become globally competent," and "knowledge and experience gained from multiple short-term trips abroad to a variety of countries." Thus, the crucial importance of direct experience emerged clearly.

Second, the iWOP practitioner needs to acquire "meta-knowledge" at a level above these competencies, that is, the practitioner needs to learn to recognize them in others, utilize them for effective selection, and train them when feasible and necessary. Thus, the competent global traveler must also be a "meta-global traveler," as it were. Finally, the iWOP practitioner needs a set of complex research and development skills that extend domestic WOP consulting activities involving selection, measurement, evaluation, etc., to international contexts.

The Education of Proper Academics

iWOP professionals working in academia perform two important functions: educate new professionals and academics and conduct research in applied cross-cultural psychology. We expect that a second-wave generational transition is taking place

with respect to faculty members' ability to perform their educational duties. The first wave, not yet complete, was the contribution of a corps of faculty who were educated in one of the psychology subdisciplines (social, personality, and I/O) and who trained themselves in cross-cultural psychology. This cohort, sometimes referred to as the second generation of cross-cultural psychology, now leads cross-cultural psychology (as evidenced, for example, by the officers of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology (IACCP); see www.iaccp.org). Much of the research, education, and pedagogical writing being performed in iWOP is conducted by members of this cohort who have a direct or indirect interest in applied psychology. The second-wave generational transition takes place as organizational psychologists who acquired their academic and often professional competencies as postgraduate students, or very early in their careers, now become educators themselves. Thusly, we beget a new, third generation of iWOP academics and professionals who have received formal education in the field: *Generation G.*

The skills needed by Generation G academics run the gamut from research and methodology to at least some of the professional skills outlined previously in this section. As teachers or trainers, they need to "walk the walk," that is, they should have had substantial overseas experience and experience with collaboration in multinational research projects. Gabrenya (1989) has described the necessary competencies of a cross-cultural psychologist, the most challenging of which may be a familiarity with social science fields outside of psychology. The iWOP academic would, ideally, share the competencies of a cross-cultural psychologist as well as the theoretically applied intellectual content of WOP. The demands on Generation G are indeed considerable. In the next section, we discuss two pathways to imparting on Generation G academics and professionals the KSAs they need for successful careers.

Academic and Experiential Learning

International Education

The burgeoning field of international education in the USA has generated a cottage industry of conferences, workshops, best-practices manuals, and awards. Six types of educational practices are seen as contributing to international education: (1) overseas educational experience, such as study abroad, (2) curriculum changes and culture-related coursework, (3) cocurricular activities such as campus activities outside of the classroom, (4) the development of international dual or joint degree programs, (5) overseas work, projects, or volunteering, and (6) intercultural experience through new communication technologies, termed collaborative teaching. In this section, we discuss the curriculum and how iWOP students can gain intercultural experience.

Curriculum and Coursework

The appropriate curriculum and the nature of coursework is discussed in several chapters of this volume. In this chapter, we raise some issues involving pedagogical and content strategies that must be addressed in the development of coursework.

Start at the Theory; Start at the Problem

Two approaches can be taken in designing a curriculum for the education of Generation G. The *integrated course work approach* puts applications first: begin with problems in WOP and work backwards to identify the relevant cross-cultural theoretical underpinnings of the phenomena of interest. Culture concepts would be integrated into all coursework. Cross-cultural psychologists once advocated for such an approach, expecting that the widespread acceptance of culture into psychology was inevitable, but alas:

> In the mid-1970s John Berry and I discussed what we thought the future of the *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* and cross-cultural psychology would be. We agreed that its main mission was to burn itself out, like a meteor, by becoming redundant after psychology in general took the necessary "corrective actions" to be totally inclusive. So much for naïve and starry-eyed predictions. (Walt Lonner, personal communication, November 26, 2012)

An applied problem such as performance evaluation—often the topic of a single postgraduate course—would be viewed from a cultural perspective. Theories of performance, motivation, and evaluation, and feedback would be decentered from their American or Western origins at the theoretical level and generalized to hook into cultural concepts where necessary. Measurement components of performance evaluation would be addressed with an eye to the problems of test adaptation, cross-cultural comparability, etc. The (re)introduction of cross-cultural psychology into social psychology in the last 15 years has followed this strategy to a limited extent. For example, each chapter in some mass market social psychology textbooks (e.g., Baumeister and Bushman 2013) attempts to incorporate some cultural material. To accomplish this integration, faculty who teach postgraduate classes would need to be familiar with the cross-cultural literature as it pertains to their courses.

The contrasting *specialized course approach* begins with a grounding in basic culture theory and then applies it to problem areas. This strategy would normally require one or more separate courses in which cross-cultural concepts are introduced and would be followed by applied courses that approach problems from a cultural perspective. Cross-cultural psychology has usually favored this strategy because it provides a course structure in which general theoretical culture concepts that would not normally find a home in other courses can be addressed, including some of the sociology of science material discussed in the next section. Rather than requiring each instructor to have a delimited grounding in a narrow domain of cross-cultural material, cross-cultural specialists would carry all of the water.

Start at the Beginning; Start at the Present

Cross-cultural psychology is at the intersection of several disciplines, including psychology, anthropology, sociology, and evolutionary biology. Donald Campbell's fish-scale metaphor (Campbell 1969) is perfect for cross-cultural psychology: each scale represents an academic research specialty ("performance evaluation," "national values," "expatriate adjustment/performance," etc.) that organizes academic research programs into special interest groups or "invisible colleges" (Frickel and Gross 2005). Disciplines (psychology, sociology, etc.) are historically evolved collections of specialties. Some specialties are central to a discipline (clinical psychology) and some are on the outskirts (cross-cultural psychology); however, it is recognized that the disciplinary boundaries are partially arbitrary, a function of historical/political/economic developments in academia, and harmful to the extent that they isolate specialties that need each other for theoretical or methodological reasons.

Analogously, cross-cultural psychology has established an uneasy, some would argue harmful, relationship to psychology, favoring quantitative methods, a positivist epistemology, and advanced statistics, while psychological anthropology favors qualitative methods and sometimes social constructivist epistemology (Gabrenya 1989). However, unlike the roughly parallel developments of social psychology in psychology and sociology departments, cross-cultural psychology developed out of anthropology and its earliest important research projects, such as the Six Cultures Study (LeVine 2010) and the culture-and-perception studies (Segall et al. 1966), were interdisciplinary projects involving psychologists and anthropologists. The dominant theory in cross-cultural psychology, the ecocultural model (Berry 1997), is an adaptation of anthropological theorizing (Gabrenya 1999), and a dimension ubiquitous in much cross-cultural research, modernization or modernity, was developed historically in sociology (Inkeles and Smith 1974).

iWOP builds on cross-cultural psychology and therefore indirectly upon anthropology and sociology. Indeed, it is highly derivative. Should Generation G know this?

The specialized coursework approach provides a venue for teaching iWOP in a larger historical social science context, whereas this is very difficult in the integrated coursework approach. First- or second-generation cross-cultural psychologist take as a given that students should understand where the theory and methods that they utilize to approach an applied problem come from. We speculate that the second generation of American psychologists early in the twentieth century, who probably still spoke German, had similar ideas. The advantages of a wide social science perspective for theory development and a flexible methodology (e.g., mixed methods; Burke-Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004) must be weighed against available instructional resources and space in the curriculum.

Teach Cultures; Teach Culture Concepts

The trend in cross-cultural psychology seems to be toward teaching culture-general concepts—theories, methods, and KSAs—although we know of no empirical evidence for this statement. However, this dichotomy may be misleading given that culture-general learning is nearly impossible, not to mention impossibly tedious, without introducing culture-specific material. For applied work, the relative merits of culture-general versus culture-specific knowledge are debatable, depending to a great extent on how the knowledge will be used. The successful iWOP academic or practitioner must acquire both, but for many global workers, culture-specific KSAs may well be sufficient. The best culture learning medium, discussed in detail later in this chapter, applies culture-general concepts to intensely culture-specific experiences.

The Place for Research Methods

Research methods, including measurement used in professional practice, are a major culture-general aspect of training. What is the appropriate content of such courses? The first author recently set out to develop a cross-cultural research methods course specifically for iWOP Generation G students. Attempts to find a model for such a course through institutional and personal networking failed to identify an existing precedent for such a course. The units of the course as it was developed, with helpful input from Mark Peterson and Ron Fischer, included:

    General strategies and issues in cross-cultural research
    Indigenous psychology, the emic–etic distinction, and epistemology
    Qualitative and mixed methods
    Overview of iWOP research methods
    Test equivalence concepts
    Conceptual and empirical approaches to culture distance
    Survey methods and test translation
    Experimental methods in cross-cultural research
    Test equivalence, bias, differential item functioning
    Response biases in self-report measures
    Dimensional research and isomorphism
    Multilevel research

We expect that a model for such courses will emerge soon as a consensus develops on the research skills needed by academic researchers and practitioners. As cross-cultural psychologists become increasingly interested in qualitative and mixed methods (Gabrenya 2009), we expect iWOP research to follow suit, suggesting a heavier emphasis on such methods at the expense of advanced multivariate techniques. The problem of appropriate prerequisite courses was encountered in this course, given the need for confirmatory factor analysis, item response theory, and multilevel modeling in teaching some topics. The "methodological arms race" that some see taking place in cross-cultural psychology (e.g., Gabrenya et al. 2009) is taking place within iWOP research as well, and will in turn drive the content and level of sophistication of methods courses.

Experiential Learning

To culturalists, experience is critical to understanding, as book learning is viewed as abstract, albeit necessary. Living overseas as a student or expatriate worker provides the best experience possible. Our experience teaching cross-cultural courses suggests that a typical classroom includes three sets of students: (1) students who have lived abroad, including international students; (2) students who have not done so, but are open and interested in things cultural; and (3) everyone else. The nascent cultural concentration in the Florida Tech I/O PhD degree program requires study or work abroad with this benefit in mind. Study abroad has been studied extensively (e.g., McKeown 2009), with the consensus opinion being that semester-long stints overseas are more beneficial than short-term, study tour, and "boutique" programs. Although a number of obstacles must be overcome to facilitate overseas experience by students, such as curriculum integration, costs, family obligations, and language skills, these obstacles are far more daunting after graduation as the individual enters a professional or academic career track. So: Students! Go now, go now! Don't wait!

Short of overseas experience, the classroom instructor has a few options for experiential learning. Multimedia resources are numerous in anthropology but still meager in cross-cultural psychology. As the textbook market improves in cross-cultural psychology, resources should follow suit. Resources for iWOP are even more sparse.

A staple of cross-cultural training conducted by public agencies such as the Fulbright Foundation, as well as private consulting companies, is the use of simulation games. Perhaps the most popular of these simulations is *Bafa Bafa* (Simulation Training Systems, Inc.) in which students are placed in generic, somewhat exaggerated individualist and collectivist societies. Other popular games include *Barnga* (Thiagarajan and Thiagarajan 2006) and *Starpower* (Simulation Training Systems, Inc.). These games are best used early in a course as a simple illustration of topics that are commonly included later in the course.

A narrow kind of international experience can be brought into the classroom through the use of new communication technologies to facilitate guest lectures by faculty in other countries. Students can be exposed to a faculty person from a different culture in a manner not unlike a keynote lecture at an international conference, albeit without the wonderful stimulation afforded by such a conference. Video conferencing hardware and software facilitates synchronous (live, two-way) communication. A less compelling variation on this theme is to capture keynotes as videos for classroom use.

International educators, primarily at the undergraduate level, have begun experimenting with various types of "collaborative learning." Generally, collaborative learning involves introducing activities into a classroom that bring together students studying in different nations. A Champlain College program, described in the next section, embeds international interaction in the core curriculum experienced by all undergraduate students. The authors of the present chapter have experimented with collaborative learning at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The following section describes these experiments in detail and offers advice on their adoption by others.

Collaborative Teaching

What Is It?

We use the term *collaborative teaching* to refer to interaction between students who are enrolled in courses taught in different nations. Several levels of collaboration are possible, ranging from social interaction akin to the seemingly antique term, "pen pal," to a near complete integration of the instructional activities of the classes. The most ambitious collaborative teaching project of which we are aware is performed at Champlain College, Burlington, Vermont, USA. All freshmen in their Global Modules Project are paired with students in other countries, mainly the Middle East, and required to interact in 4-week "modules" over the first 3 years of their undergraduate degree programs. Our experience is at an intermediate level in which students form international virtual teams in order to complete research projects. A virtual team is a group of individuals who work across time, space, and organizational boundaries using communication technology. Members of virtual teams may never meet face to face, although with modern technologies that enable video conferencing, the distinction between remote and face-to-face meetings is blurred. In our collaborative teaching experiments, we have sometimes created multinational virtual teams in which three countries participated.

What is the Goal?

Collaborative teaching can be focused on social goals, academic goals, or both. A social interaction focus seeks to provide students with cross-cultural interaction experience, necessarily involving learning to communicate and resolve intercultural problems, such as conflict, miscommunication, and scheduling across time zones. An academic orientation focus adds a component in which a scholarly product of some kind must be produced. Collaborative teaching for the purpose of providing cross-cultural experience has both process goals—learning about social and team interactions required to complete the class assignment—and content goals—the cultural concepts to be learned and the deliverables themselves.

There are at least three process goals in collaborative teaching. First, students must interact socially across cultures. Instructors may choose to focus on social interaction to the relative exclusion of other process and content goals, the purpose of which might be to reduce cultural stereotyping, learn to resolve basic communication problems, or obtain direct experience from the characteristics of people from the other culture (e.g., differences in individualism–collectivism) that might be useful in teaching the corresponding content areas of the course. Second, students must experience all phases of a cross-cultural team process: build a new team, develop a project, establish team goals and make specific plans including a schedule of project milestones, and carry out the project under often complex and trying conditions. Third, building on the second goal, they will be given a realistic preview of the international work team and business environment that has become increasingly ubiquitous for members of Generation G.

The content goals in collaborative teaching often involve not only acquisition of cultural concepts, potentially the whole of a general cross-cultural psychology course, but also the project outcomes or deliverables, such as a completed research project, a conceptual paper, or an integration of process-related experiences with theoretical concepts. If culture-comparative research is conducted by the teams, methods content is necessarily required, linking the project to methods sections of the course.

An implicit but intended meta-goal for collaborative teaching is to advocate for culture, i.e., to indirectly proselytize on behalf of a cultural perspective in psychology and to instill a sense of global citizenship. Both process and content goals can contribute to this meta-goal. The success of this meta-goal may depend on the success of the process and content goals, although we argue that a "failed" process can also contribute to meeting the meta-goal in that cultural issues are often responsible for less than positive outcomes. Students often have negative interpersonal experiences in collaborative teaching projects that may discourage additional intercultural interaction while alerting the students, if painfully, about the importance of cultural considerations in team activities.

Getting Started

University faculty members who wish to incorporate collaborative teaching in their courses need to find willing and able partners at universities in other countries. This process is not unlike finding international research collaborators and many of the same techniques and problems apply to both types of collaboration. Peterson (2009) discusses some of the issues involving international research collaboration. International conferences and international organizations provide the best venues for making these relationships. The IACCP has recently inaugurated a special interest group for international education designed in part to facilitate these types of relationships.

The necessary considerations and potential impediments to establishing a collaborative teaching relationship are easy to identify: the contents of the collaborating course need to be compatible (for a content-focused project); the academic terms must be reasonably well aligned; if class sizes are different, some way to form balanced teams must be feasible; and the faculty must have good work relationships. Ideally, the parameters of the project from inception to final reports and evaluations are agreed on beforehand; in practice, many issues evolve over the course of the project.

Our Experiments in Collaborative Teaching

In this section, we relate our experiences in collaborative teaching experiments. We refer to these experiences as "experiments" in the sense that each was an attempt to solve problems raised by previous collaborations with the goal of developing a

well-functioning procedure replicable by ourselves and others. We reveal how we resolved, or attempted to resolve, issues at each stage in the process, the difficulties we encountered, and how it all came out in the end.

Our collaborative teaching experiments commenced in mid-2006 through a purely chance meeting between the two authors at a poster symposium at the International Association for Applied Psychology (IAAP) conference in Athens, Greece. The initial experiment involved the first author's undergraduate social psychology class and the second author's undergraduate cross-cultural psychology class. Three subsequent undergraduate collaborations involved Chien-Ru Sun, now of Zhong-Zhi University, Taiwan. However, in this chapter, we focus on postgraduate level collaborative teaching experiences involving three universities: Florida Institute of Technology (FIT), USA (Gabrenya), East China Normal University (ECNU), China (Yan), and the University of Silesia, Poland (Barbara Kozusznik). These three individuals have multiple connections through IACCP and IAAP, and their universities have relationships as well. The two three-nation, postgraduate multinational collaborative teaching projects were undertaken in the Winter–Spring semesters of 2011 and 2012. Classes and students included a cross-cultural I/O psychology course (USA), an applied psychology research team (China), and students enrolled in several courses in a masters and doctoral level WOP program (Poland).

Goals

The projects were conceived with both process and content goals and, as such, included both social and academic experiences. The overriding process goal was to give students an opportunity to interact with people from different cultures and to experience a multinational virtual team. The teams were complex, composed of about five students from at least two and, in most cases, three countries. Few American students spoke Chinese or Polish, so the teams conducted all of their business in English. They worked across three time zones—the Americans and Chinese were exactly 12 time zones apart, with the Polish nearly at the midpoint. Teams had to work around different national and academic schedules in the context of large cultural differences, all of which produced a highly complicated cultural dynamic.

The content goals were tied to the course requirements of the cross-cultural iWOP class in which students were required to write a term paper based on empirical research conducted in the project. The project would last 8 weeks, and members of each team could decide if they would like to continue their research when the project formally ended.

Common Structure of the Experiments

As an overview of the project, Fig. 11.1 presents the circular, episodic structure of our experimental program. Although somewhat tongue-in-cheek, Fig. 11.1 provides
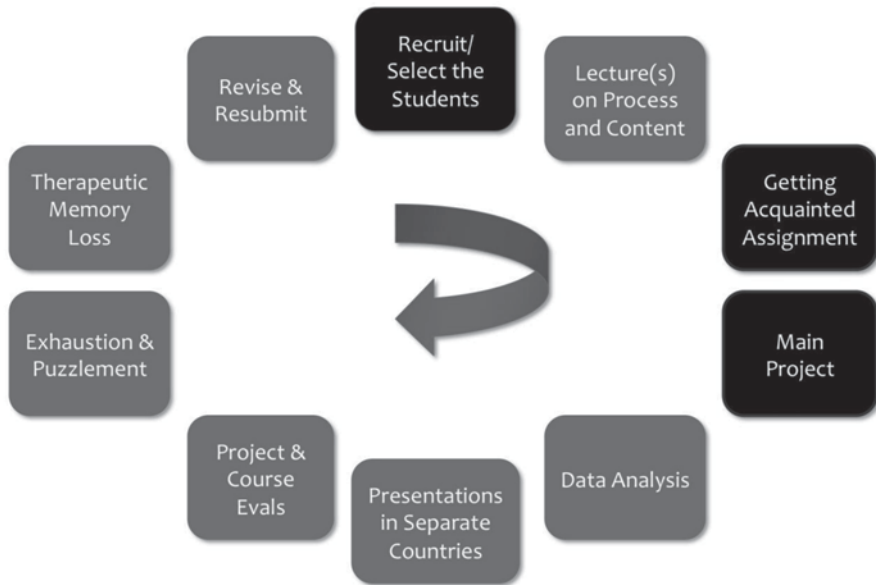
Fig. 11.1 Circular feedback model

the project structure from both the instructor and student perspectives. The project begins with the solid black box at the top, although considerable discussion and negotiation among the instructors would have taken place prior to this point.

The student selection processes differed in the three countries. For Polish students, the dean of the graduate program invited instructors to participate, and they in turn invited their students. For Chinese students, only postgraduate students who expressed an interest in the project were admitted. All students who were enrolled in the American iWOP class were required to join the project. Thus, from the beginning, students differed in background knowledge, expectations, and motivation.

We assumed that team building is prerequisite to team activities, so early in the project a "getting acquainted" exercise was assigned, based on earlier exercises that had been developed for the undergraduate experiments by the second author. This exercise also facilitated some social functions apart from the content of the project. The assignment required students to conduct structured interviews with each other using Skype or a similar video conferencing technology. Besides getting to know each other, this assignment forced students to begin to form a consensus on some basic working rules and, it was hoped, establish initial trust.

The instructors generated a list of research projects that (1) were relevant to iWOP or to cross-cultural research being conducted in their universities, (2) could be presented in a manner that posed a cross-cultural question, and (3) could be undertaken within a short time using resources available to the students. Some topics included: multicultural teams, the field of iWOP, expatriate adjustment, international student adjustment, supervisor–subordinate communication, religiosity and

professional life, social class and work values, organizational citizenship behavior, and student international stereotypes. A website accessible to students in all three nations was created to provide resources for the project.

Two methods were employed to create research project teams. First, we tried the *team first method*: instructors created research teams balanced as well as possible by nationality and knowledge (level of postgraduate degree program; specialty area). After completing the getting acquainted project, instructors assigned project topics to teams based on their preferences among the available topics, as shown in Fig. 11.1. The democratic decision process within teams was found, in post-project evaluations, to lead to a high level of dissatisfaction among students who were outvoted, which led in turn to low motivation on the part of these students and some unwillingness to contribute. In the second experiment, we tried the *preference first method*: each student expressed his or her interest in the available topics, and then the instructors created teams that maximized the student-preference fit while balancing nationalities as well as possible. Post-project evaluations and debriefings revealed that this method reduced the number of *refuseniks* in the groups but did not provide enough flexibility in group construction to adequately balance the expertise of group members, resulting in some groups lacking necessary research skills. The instructors were required to provide this expertise to such teams.

A set of milestones was established for the research project in order to keep the groups working at a suitably fast pace: finalize details of project research plans; complete data collection; complete data analysis; and present results. The instructors were, to various extents, heavily involved in each of these steps. Given the tight schedule, continuous communication and interaction was required within the groups.

Getting Acquainted and Main Research Project

All six of our experiments began with a variation of the getting acquainted exercise. Dyads or triads of students interacted to answer a set of questions about their personal and family backgrounds. Students were prohibited from using impersonal communication media such as e-mail, texting, or text chat. As noted below, the getting acquainted project was often the highlight of the project. The heart of the experiment was the "main" research project. This part of the team process engaged the most administrative planning and student time.

Problems and Challenges Encountered

The multinational virtual team project is "in a continual state of becoming," as symbolic interactionists would have it. As lessons are learned and new strategies are introduced, we accumulate a corpus of knowledge that we hope leads to improved project methods. In this section, we outline some of the problems we have encountered, and in the next section, we present lessons learned.

National Differences

Tertiary and postgraduate education differs between nations and regions reflecting, in part, not only fundamental cultural differences but also different historical trajectories in the development of university systems. The ontology and a full accounting of these differences are beyond the scope of this chapter, so we only focus on the differences that appear to have affected the project. Overall, these differences are stronger at the undergraduate level than at the postgraduate level.

National differences in the selection and lifestyles of undergraduate students are stark: compare the über competitive East Asian entrance exam system with the American "there's a college for everybody, even if it's in cyberspace" system. If admitted, East Asian students live in university dorms where they primarily study, whereas American students are distracted by campus sports, part time jobs, fraternities and sororities, etc. The highly competitive East Asian exam system begets a higher degree of academic skill, motivation, and overall anxiety among students than commonly found in American and European universities. The clear, recognized hierarchical ordering of universities in East Asia, combined with the exam system, produces relatively homogenous student bodies, whereas the more open admission system used by all but the most elite American universities contributes to several kinds of campus diversity, including intellectual ability.

East Asian students usually have never held a paying job before (and often during) entering university, whereas Americans begin working in paying jobs as early as age 14. Although sexual mores are changing in East Asia, most Americans and Europeans have had serious romantic relationships by the time they enter university, while East Asians are often just beginning to date. Our international collaborative learning projects conducted in undergraduate courses were strongly affected by differences in student quality, life experience, and extent of academic focus.

While hugely important in our undergraduate experiments, national differences in educational systems proved to be of relatively low import in our graduate level iWOP experiments with one exception: the academic calendar. East Asian universities organize their academic calendars around Chinese New Year (a floating lunar date usually in February), so the first semester begins in September and ends in January or February and the second semester begins in February and ends in June. American universities on the semester system usually organize their terms around the Christmas–New Year holiday: Fall semester, roughly August to December and Spring semester, January to early May. Polish universities follow a schedule more similar to East Asian countries, with a winter term, October to February, and a summer term, February to September. Therefore, the maximum overlap between the semesters across these three nations is mid-February to late April, while the practical overlap, i.e., time that can be devoted to collaboration, is early March to mid-April. The effects of nonaligned academic calendars on collaborative teaching must not be underestimated, particularly as they involve students' motivation and overall work load over the course of a term.

Cultural and Situational Differences

Students who persist and succeed in academia to the point of entering postgraduate programs in applied or WOP fields have been filtered to the extent that they may have more in common with their teammates in other nations than with their respective conationals. Nonetheless, cultural differences remain and can introduce challenges in collaborative teaching projects just as they do in "real world" multinational virtual teams. A few of these differences in our postgraduate collaborative teaching experiments include:

- Team orientation and dynamics and group cohesion
- Dealing with ambiguity or lack of top-down direction
- Time perception (punctuality, flexibility, and judgments of lateness)
- Friendship perception and expectations

A longer list would be generated for undergraduate students, as they have not been filtered to the same extent, and many of the national differences noted previously apply to them to a greater extent than to the postgraduate students.

Team orientation Although much has been written about differences in the social behavior and group dynamics of Western and Asian people (Gabrenya and Hwang 1996), our experiences were more complex. Based on our observations of the group process in all six experiments, and on debriefings of the American, Chinese, and Taiwanese participants, it appeared that the Chinese and Taiwanese undergraduates were more team oriented and cooperative than American undergraduates. However, among postgraduate students, Americans were more team oriented than both Chinese and Polish students. By "team oriented," we mean the extent to which individuals contributed to the team objectives, met deadlines, cooperated, and remained active in the group until the end of the project. In the context of the iWOP class experiments, two sets of educational practices appear to have trumped broader cultural effects. First, focusing on the students, we believe that the unusually intensive team-oriented instructional environment of the Americans' degree program had prepared them well for working in a team under pressure. The focus of several classes in the FIT I/O psychology program is on preparing students for careers in high-stress, high-work-load external consulting companies. Anxiety concerning deadlines was also greatest among the Americans, probably due to the motivational issues described in a subsequent section.

Second, the proximal organizational contexts experienced by students in the three nations differed in important ways. Foremost, students from different nations faced different contingencies for performance. For Americans, the project was mandatory and performance constituted a large portion of their final class grade. Their motivation and anxiety were very high. For Chinese, the project was partially voluntary, but there were no performance contingencies. For Polish students, the project was fully voluntary and there were no contingencies for performance. This difference was not lost on participants:

> The thing that I am feeling uncomfortable about is that I don't know how it is going to end up. American students will get [course grades] and they of course deserve them but I would feel more confident if we also get some papers or certificates that prove our work. We used a lot of time to complete this assignment so it would be nice if we also have something more out of it than basically satisfaction. (2012, Polish, postgraduate student)

Third, following in part from the second difference, we found that students in the three nations had different personal goals in participating in the project. Work goals were paramount for Americans; social goals, such as establishing relationships that would persist after the project ended, were important for Chinese; research goals, such as performing publishable research, were important to the Polish students.

Ambiguity We might expect the relationship between project structure and student anxiety and satisfaction to be moderated by national differences in Hofstede's (2001) highly cited Uncertainty Avoidance dimension. Country scores on this dimension suggest that Americans would have the most tolerance of ambiguity and Polish students the least, but we observed little reliable difference; tolerance for ambiguity differed more between groups than between nations. We raise issues of how structured this type of project needs to be in a later section.

Time perception We found that undergraduate classes differed markedly across nations in punctuality and adherence to project deadlines, and this difference was a primary basis for bad feelings between students in the two nations. Whereas Chinese and Taiwanese undergraduates, consistent with the nature of their educational systems, were highly anxious about time, Americans were relaxed and undermotivated. However, in the postgraduate iWOP experiments, the opposite pattern emerged—the Americans were more concerned about time than both the Chinese students and the Polish students. We attribute these differences to the contingencies under which the Americans worked rather than to a cultural difference.

International Judgments of Performance

Team cooperation and attention to time comprise two of the primary sources of conflict within the international teams. We collected post-project evaluation data that provide some quantitative information that illustrates team process issues. We have used a common project debriefing/evaluation form across the six collaborative teaching experiments conducted so far. The evaluation was conducted in English, but in some experiments, Chinese and Taiwanese students were invited to respond to open-ended questions in Chinese. The sample size for most quantitative questions was around $N = 170$ over the six experiments.

Two items in the survey addressed reliability of own country and other country teammates: "Overall, how would you rate the reliability of your partners *in the other countries*?" and "Overall, how…*in your own country*?" Students responded on seven-point scales anchored by "not at all reliable" and "very reliable." We use the term "nation-team" to refer to the subsets of members within each teach from each nation. Hence, teams were composed of two to three nation-teams. Treating

reliability as a repeated variable (rating of own country members' reliability vs. rating of other country members' reliability), a nation-team (14 teams in six experiments with 2–3 nations involved in each experiment) × own–other rating analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed a strong interaction effect and strong effects of own versus other, and nation-team.[2] Overall, the nation-teams felt that they were more reliable than their international partners, but Polish students showed the opposite pattern.

We added a parallel set of effort items to the standard evaluation for the postgraduate iWOP class experiments beginning in 2011: "Overall, how would you rate the amount of effort contributed by your partners *in the other countries* in working on this project" and "Overall… *in your own country*." Chinese and Polish students rated the other countries' students as working harder than themselves, and American students rated their own effort higher than that of the other nation-teams. A Chinese participant's comments on unequal effort:

> 大家都很友好。但是每个人的参与程度不一样。和参与程度高的人会更为熟悉一些。[Everyone was friendly. However, the extent of everyone's participation was different. I became most familiar with the individuals who were more involved.] (2012, Chinese, postgraduate)

One of the postgraduate teams in the 2012 experiment studied the team processes in the postgraduate and undergraduate classes, focusing on trust, conflict, effort, and satisfaction.[3] Some of the most interesting findings are summarized here. Americans trusted their fellow Americans in the teams more than they trusted the Polish and Chinese members, but Polish students showed no difference in trust. Among undergraduates, both American and Taiwanese students trusted the Taiwanese more, but the difference was stronger for the Taiwanese. Interpersonal conflict was notably high between Polish within teams. Taiwanese perceived more conflict than Americans among both themselves and the Americans. Effort and satisfaction data were only available for the Americans and Taiwanese. Undergraduate Americans felt that they and their Taiwanese partners put in similar effort, but Taiwanese felt that their effort was greater than Americans'. Despite Taiwanese–American differences in trust, conflict, and effort, no differences in overall satisfaction were found. Taken together, these data point to marked differences in the perceptions and, probably, the behaviors of students from the four countries who participated in the 2012 experiments.

Logistical Problems

The bane of international virtual teams is the apparent roundness of the Earth and its persistent rotational cycle, which places the sun over different sections of the planet

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[2] All differences and interactions reported here were statistically significant at p < .05 or better.

[3] We thank this group for providing us with their dataset: Marne H. Pomerance and Thomas Skiba, Florida Tech; and Emilia Bożek and Mateusz Paliga, University of Silesia.

at different times. A 2010 survey conducted by a culture training consulting company, RW3 CultureWizard (http://www.rw-3.com) of about 600 primarily American and European businesspeople found that the time difference is the most challenging problem reported for international virtual teams. Our collaborative learning projects support this finding. For example, American students are unaccustomed to using 24 h clocks, so 11 am became 11 pm and meetings were missed.

We have tracked use of technology by the groups spanning six experiments and 6 years. Evaluations of the difficulty encountered by students in setting up Skype conversations revealed little trouble, $M = 7.3$ on a ten-point scale ranging from 1 = poor to 10 = excellent. Qualitatively, in 2006 we needed to teach most students how to install and use Skype, and at FIT, we lent students microphones for home computers that did not yet have built-in mics. By 2012, students were informing the instructors about new voice over Internet protocol (VOIP) methods, and all laptops included microphones. Most interestingly, in 2012 several groups used Facebook to conduct their business. Technical capabilities aside, the common problem faced by virtual teams that communicate by e-mail was encountered time and again: nonresponsiveness by teammates in other countries.

Language

The second most difficult problem found in the RW3 CultureWizard study was language differences. English has become the international language of science and business, and it is the only option for most Americans. We had some trepidation about language ability, and in the early experiments the Chinese and Taiwanese instructors hand-picked participants based in part on their English proficiency. The Florida students had a natural advantage, while Chinese and Polish students had to struggle, despite instructions to the Americans concerning how to use linguistic accommodation strategies. The presence of a text chat channel in communication tools such as Skype proved useful. The language advantage held by American students was partly responsible for the tendency of the American students to become informal team leaders. (However, an equally important reason was the greater contingency on the Americans' performance.)

Our concerns about language may have been overblown, as 96.5 % of all participants in the evaluation survey judged that English communication over Skype was at least acceptable, and 66 % thought that it was at least very good. Interestingly, 74 % of Americans and 89 % of Poles reported that the English communication was very good or excellent, while only 48 % of Chinese and Taiwanese made that judgment. The Chinese/Taiwanese judgments may reflect a scale-use response bias (e.g., a modesty bias), or may reflect their own self-assessment of English language ability.

Social Goals and Relationships

Cross-culturalists are unanimous in their identity as "citizens of the world" who seek to possess the competency termed "enlightened global citizenship" in Deardorff's (2006) study, presented in a previous section, and we naturally hoped that our little collaborative teaching experiments would instill some enlightenment in our students as well. In a sense, we are carrying out a type of "jigsaw classroom" exercise (Aronson and Patnoe 1997) along the lines of the contact hypothesis (Allport 1954). However, we know that positive outcomes from intercultural contact are most likely in the presence of several moderating conditions, such as equal status contact, endorsement from authorities (that would be us), pleasant social interaction, and common goals(Pettigrew and Tropp 2006). Most of these conditions are met in our collaborative teaching projects, but the interpersonal conflict across national lines can potentially be very damaging. Collaborative teaching that treats global citizenship as a primary goal might want to attend more to social than to content goals, and might want to implement jigsaw classroom (interdependent task) techniques.

Although we did not attempt to assess the extent to which participating in the collaborative teaching project actually increased global identity, we hoped that students would at least form some long-term international relationships. Sadly, the post-project evaluation questionnaire showed that this was not to be. The project teams usually got off to a good start. Students enjoyed the highly social getting acquainted exercise, rating it M = 8.0 on a 1–10 scale, although postgraduate students liked it more than undergraduates. On a seven-point scale ranging from 1 = "unfriendly or antagonistic" to 7 = "close friends," students across all experiments rated the quality of their relationships with students in the other culture(s) as M = 4.5, just above the scale midpoint. We found no differences among national subteams. The national teams differed considerably in plans to keep in touch following completion of the project. Polish (62 %), Taiwanese (72 %), and Chinese (74 %) reported strong plans to do so, but Americans did not (39 %), with little difference between graduate and undergraduate classes. This finding may indicate that the social component of the project was not symmetrical: it meant more for the Chinese, Taiwanese, and Poles to meet Americans than vice versa. This open-ended response illustrates some of these issues:

> I think it was impossible to become a close friend because we were talking only about the work. I tried to talk about other things but I met a wall. I felt like I am the only one who [self-disclosed], so I stopped doing it and never come back. I think it would be more pleasant and interesting if we are more than a working team, but I am also aware of distance and time… We have our personal lives and we are busy. Apparently there was not enough time for more. However I do hope that we will continue our project and it will end up at conference or an article. This is really good developmental opportunity for me. (2012, Polish, postgraduate)

We speculate that the national difference in relationship development can be attributed to several other factors, including the high ethnic diversity in the USA, which reduces the novelty of meeting people from other cultures (and conversely for the Chinese); the relatively more insular worldview of Americans; or the greater task

focus of the Americans in this context due to grading contingencies. Calling again on the contact hypothesis, perhaps the conflictual relationships that arose in some teams reduced the possibility of the development of positive intergroup relationships.

Learning and Recommendations

Social goals and shaping citizens of the world aside, did students think they learned something about culture from the project? On a seven-point scale bounded by "didn't learn anything" and " learned a lot," students rated how much they thought they had learned about culture at M = 5.1, with no differences between national teams or by level of study. While significantly greater than the midpoint of the scale, we would have hoped for more. The research and team processes may have become far more consequential and focal than the psychological content of the projects themselves.

One way to assess students' overall response to the project is to ask them if they would recommend that the instructors assign it in the future. Using a seven-point scale anchored by "strongly recommend not assigning" and "strongly recommend assigning," students were generally positive, M = 5.1, with no differences across nations, years, or level. This middling positive evaluation was, nonetheless, above the scale midpoint. Here are two representative comments from the teams:

> Even if the project didn't work out for some students, I think the knowledge and skills gained from the experience are alone well worth the assignment. (2012, American, postgraduate)

> I like it very much, it's a great experience, possibility to practice English, meet new people, get new psychological information, know different cultures, know other ways of cooperation in science with using modern technologies. (2012, Polish, postgraduate)

Lessons Learned

We suggest that instructors who would like to add collaborative learning to their courses consider some of these 15 lessons we have learned over our six experiments.

1. *Work load for instructors.* Collaborative learning projects add a great deal of work for the instructor. How much work? For the lead instructor, perhaps 30–40 h of additional time is needed, from inception to completion and debriefing.
2. *Team composition and project choices*. The optimal method for creating multinational teams and assigning projects has yet to be discovered. Student interests, motivation levels, expertise, and of course nationality must be balanced.
3. *Ramp-up time.* Post-project debriefing revealed that it was difficult to agree on the details of a research project and to conduct it within the 8-week window during which the three academic terms overlapped. At the expense of some team process, instructors should consider providing completely "canned" projects.

 4. *Realistic expectations for projects*. The administrative overhead and the communication/coordination problems faced by students impair completion of serious projects, so expectations for outcomes need to be scaled back.
 5. *Project structure: milestones*. Milestones need to be added for every phase of the project in the form of deadlines that have consequences.
 6. *Monitoring progress: checking for group dysfunction*. Find a method to obtain continuous feedback from the project groups, perhaps at the milestones, to detect and potentially correct group dysfunction.
 7. *Preparing, training for cultural differences they will encounter*. Spend time in class, before intercultural interaction begins, to talk about cultural differences at both culture-general and culture-specific levels, especially concerning differences in motivation, academic orientation, work style, group interaction style, and communication style. Ideally, but illogically, the best time to begin the project is after the cultural course is complete.
 8. *High level of communication among instructors*. The instructors must be in constant communication, especially in order to share information about group and individual dysfunction.
 9. *Supervising projects is difficult if too numerous*. Obviously, creating a larger number of (smaller) groups implies more supervision; but fewer/larger groups will have more difficulty coordinating their efforts.
10. *Due dates are different, so deadlines are different*. Syncing milestones to more than one academic calendar is complicated. All holidays need to be identified, in addition to exam dates in some situations.
11. *Leadership*. Consider requiring the groups to choose a group leader early in the project. The leader will coordinate meetings and schedules. The nationality of the leader may prove to be problematic.
12. *Student expertise and project design*. Choose projects for which most students have the necessary expertise. Expertise in research design, implementation, and data analysis is taught at different points in different universities. Try to prevent undergraduate students from participating in a graduate level course.
13. *Go small.* Consider limiting the project to meeting only the social function, by which the degree of coordination problems and overall stress would be reduced considerably. However, instructors who hold real-world international virtual teams as the model for the project would not find this smaller project sufficiently veridical. A seventh (undergraduate) experiment conducted by the authors, as this chapter was being finalized, took this approach, with some success.
14. *Disappointment by instructors.* Remember that if you are a dedicated culturalist, you are not normal. Most students are unlikely to share your degree of enthusiasm for all things cultural, so although *you* may assume that any form of intercultural interaction is a great learning experience, *your students* may disagree.
15. *The dead fish test.* Pass around some Japanese snack food early in the course and watch to see which students eat the dried fish. These brave souls will be your best students.

Future Directions for Collaborative Learning

Collaborative teaching projects can develop in several directions as communication technology improves, WOP programs become more interested in culture, and faculty gain expertise. One direction would be to "go large." Perhaps the prototype for a large-scale international virtual team project is the *X-Culture International Student Collaboration Project* run by Vas Taras, a professor of Management at the University of North Carolina-Greensboro. Our understanding is that the X-Culture project faces many of the same issues that we have grappled with, including problematic team process issues. Organizations like the Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology (SIOP) or IACCP could develop large-scale projects of this kind, although management of the projects would be an all-encompassing occupation.

A strategy to go even larger would be to institutionalize international WOP collaborations at the degree granting unit level, such as a consortium of WOP programs. The Erasmus Mundus program, sponsored by the European Commission, provides one model for doing so. International interaction and experience may be intrinsic to such consortium models, but a program broader than the European Erasmus program would be challenging to develop.

The lessons learned list points out several reasons for collaborative teaching efforts to *go small,* not large. Without institutional support by international organizations or by instructors' home institutions, the difficulty involved in performing well-run and effective collaborative teaching projects may prove too great to sustain them over the long haul. They may prove to be an irrational use of time by early career faculty who have other contingencies to contend with. The development of international teaching consortia, such as the European Erasmus program, or of smaller international research connections, may preclude the need for collaborative teaching at the postgraduate level, shifting the social, process, and content goals out of the classroom and into the larger context of international educational and research activities.

A Final Synthesis

In this chapter, we have attempted to identify the teaching and training needs of Generation G's new academics and practitioners, address some of the issues involved in these educational efforts, and describe in detail one instructional method, collaborative teaching. Collaborative teaching, of course, takes place in the context of the four educational issues discussed early in the chapter and must support educational activities aimed at developing the competencies of both future practitioners and future academics. In this section, we contextualize collaborative teaching with respect to educational issues and competencies.

Collaborative teaching is flexible with respect to a theory versus problem-focused orientation. Activities such as the one described in this chapter are clearly problem focused, but we could have assigned highly theoretical project topics, with the

expectation that students would be less interested, unfortunately. However, collaborative teaching is probably not suited to communicating the historical development of the field. Collaborative teaching does provide an excellent opportunity to blend culture-specific and culture-general approaches: like any good research project in this field, both culture-general theory and methods are used in the context of the specific nations of residence of student participants. Finally, our own collaborative teaching has emphasized empirical, mainly quantitative culture-comparative research, but other ways are certainly possible. It is not feasible to apply the new methodological and statistical innovations in cross-cultural research to projects of this small size, but students cannot help but become aware of the many pitfalls to such research as they proceed with their projects. For example, although we require back-translation of instruments, we do not expect students to address the formidable equivalency problems inherent in culture-comparative research (e.g., Van de Vijver and Fischer 2009).

Collaborative teaching ventures, such as our experiments, can build several types of competencies. Using Deardorff's (2006) list, presented in a previous section, all six competencies would contribute to a better team process. The extent to which each competency is enhanced by the collaborative teaching experience needs to be investigated empirically. We speculate that the most powerful effect of the experience is on the corrective feedback that students receive as they work through process issues: how to communicate effectively (or not) with teammates; adapting to the inevitable problems that are encountered; finding adaptive behaviors to resolve conflict; adapting interpersonal skills to the specifics of the intercultural interaction; and in the end, finding ways to achieve group goals using these adaptations, or perhaps in spite of, some not-well-learned competencies.

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Chapter 12
International Collaboration Experience (ICE): Using Multi-Country Student Collaboration Projects to Enhance Learning and Faculty Research

Vas Taras, Tim Muth and Beth Gitlin

Studying international business (IB) solely in a classroom is like learning to ride a bicycle on a stationary bike. The instructor may provide detailed instructions on how to use the equipment, and the stationary bike may have the latest technological equipment. However, you cannot learn to ride a bicycle until you practice riding on the road, struggle with turns, bumps, and the wind and maybe even fall off the bike a few times. Likewise, students need to actively experience a more realistic IB environment to understand the challenges of the global workplace. Unfortunately, international experiences requiring travel may be prohibitively expensive or unrealistic due to time and course schedule constraints. However, multi-country student collaboration projects may be a viable option to provide students with practical global experience and enhance learning in IB courses.

Educators and businesspeople have long recognized the value of reinforcing theoretical concepts through practical, real-world experiences. Business schools provide practical experiences in a variety of ways, such as writing business plans, developing social media marketing campaigns, using simulation games to manage a diversified investment portfolio, and incorporating entrepreneurial projects into business courses. These experiences allow business students to apply their knowledge to situations they will encounter when they enter the working world.

According to Kolb (1984), experiential learning is a "holistic integrative perspective on learning that combines experience, cognition, and behavior" (p. 21). It means turning experience into learning (Boud et al. 1985). Experiential learning is not a new concept. It can be traced back to ancient times and it likely appeared long before the conventional classroom-based model developed. As far back as 500

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B.C., Confucius is believed to have said, "Tell me and I'll forget; show me and I may remember; involve me and I'll understand."

Modern experiential learning theories take root in the early nineteenth century based on the work of leading theorists of human learning and development. Empirical support for the effectiveness of experiential learning is ample. Numerous studies tested experiential learning theory in IB education and present evidence of the positive effects of the experiential approach on learning outcomes, including in IB education.

Designing an experiential project for an IB course is challenging because, by definition, the project requires an international context. Unfortunately, finding international partners and coordinating geographically dispersed teams presents several major challenges. It would be easier to simulate a cross-cultural environment in classes with a large percentage of international students. However, this does not give students a complete international experience. Many international students are acculturated and act similarly to domestic students. In addition, it is impossible to simulate time zone differences and international communication hurdles in a regular classroom.

In this chapter, we discuss our experiences with the X-Culture project. X-Culture is a large-scale international student collaboration project designed to enhance learning in IB and related courses through participative learning and first-hand cross-cultural interaction and collaboration. Our experience suggests there are numerous positive outcomes associated with international collaboration experience (ICE) projects and they extend far beyond merely learning to use online communication tools. Furthermore, our data show many benefits for the students and professors from participating in the X-Culture project. The project has proven to be an excellent research platform on team dynamics and cross-cultural interactions. In addition, we will discuss the challenges of and recommend best practices for using ICEs.

A Brief History of the X-Culture Project

The X-Culture project was launched in 2010. It was designed to allow IB students to gain practical experience by working in a global virtual team (GVT) with international students in similar courses. The teams are comprised of five to eight students from different universities and countries. The teams develop a business proposal for a multinational company. The students communicate using the latest online collaboration tools and social media, such as e-mail, Skype, Dropbox, Google Docs, Facebook, Doodle, and others. The project term is 6–9 weeks. Rich multisource, multilevel data are collected throughout the project to document individual and team performance and experiences for grading and research purposes. Participation in the project is free; however, students must meet a number of requirements, such as the ability to communicate in English and have regular access to the internet.

Professors are typically recruited through the Academy of Management (AOM), Academy of International Business (AIB), and other professional associations. Personal contacts and targeted invitations are used to attract participants from underrepresented countries.

In the first season of X-Culture, 436 students from seven countries participated in the project. Over the past 2 years, the project has grown considerably. In spring

2013, there were 2,328 students enrolled at 86 universities in 43 countries located on six continents. Both Master's level and undergraduate business students participate in the X-Culture project with undergraduates comprising 70 % of the population.

Why Use Multi-country Student Collaboration Projects?

Enhanced Learning

Practical cross-cultural experience is the main reason to include ICE projects in IB courses. Interacting with people from other countries and working together toward a common goal improves cross-cultural communication and understanding, information management, and online communication skills, as well as, for many students, English communication skills.

In addition to learning by applying the theories and concepts learned in class to a real-world situation, students also learn from one another while working in international teams with their peers. The exposure to people from diverse backgrounds and experiences increases the variety and quality of ideas being exchanged among the team members, which enhances their creativity and learning (Larruson and Alterman 2009).

Although the participants are college students, the challenges they are dealing with are very real, whether it is the difficulties of communicating and finding common ground with people from different cultures or collaborating across time zones. The practical experiences provide a preview of the challenges students will face in the workplace and help to form more accurate expectations, recognize gaps in their knowledge and skills, and identify areas for improvement. Additionally, through these practical experiences, students are able to improve their ability to assess the knowledge and skills needed to complete large, complex X-Culture-like projects as well as show signs of improvement in self-efficacy (Ertmer et al. 2011).

Analysis of the data collected as a part of the X-Culture project reveals student learning in several areas. First, a comparison of the students' pre-project and post-project cultural intelligence test scores shows a significant improvement. Second, the results provide support for the long-accepted intergroup contact theory (Allport 1954) that postulates that interaction with people from other cultures reduces prejudice and stereotypes. Pre- and post-project measures of perceptions of interethnic differences significantly decrease over the weeks the students work together, and the reduced prejudice has been observed for both the cultures that were represented on the team and those that were not. The results suggest that a global interaction experience increases cross-cultural tolerance in general and not only toward the cultures involved in the activity. At the same time, self-efficacy has been shown to increase as post-project surveys reveal that students find international collaborations less challenging after the project than what they report before the project starts. In addition, post-survey comments by students indicate they have a better understanding of the traits required for effective teamwork in a cross-cultural context.

Finally, the student and professor feedback and observation data strongly suggest enhanced learning, particularly with respect to new practical skill and knowledge acquisition. Experimental studies on student satisfaction show that X-Culture students report significantly higher satisfaction across all dimensions of course evaluation compared to control groups of students in course sections that used alternative team-based assignments, and the effect is consistent for undergraduate and graduate students and across the different countries in which the experiments were conducted (for a complete assessment of the learning outcomes, see Taras et al. 2012).

The benefits of ICE extend beyond student learning. The X-Culture experience shows that multi-country collaborative projects provide an excellent platform for enhancing faculty research and for professional, personal, and interinstitutional networking.

Research Foundation

Multi-country collaboration exercises present an opportunity to conduct high-quality research on GVTs and related topics. The data are suitable for addressing questions related to teamwork, human interaction, management, entrepreneurship, marketing, and many other research topics. The large number of people working together for an extended period of time provides ample opportunities to observe iterations and team member experiences in a variety of settings and under various conditions. Most of the performance monitoring and evaluation is required for course grade purposes. Student surveys and project records provide even richer data for research purposes.

Online data collection and performance-monitoring tools allow for collecting data, even though the respondents are scattered around the world. If required, experiments may be incorporated in the project. However, normal variation in team composition, communication mode, and team dynamics allows for "natural" experiments that test the effects of these factors and conditions on team processes and outcomes.

Most importantly, the data collected and analyzed by researchers, to publish papers, are shared with students to enhance their learning. Furthermore, a large group of international researchers provides the brainpower required to analyze data and write papers. With proper organization and coordination, extensive and intensive research can be conducted without the need for significant research grant money. Furthermore, the variety of backgrounds of the participating instructors aid creativity and innovation (Jackson 1992; Nemiro 2002; Watson et al. 1993).

InterPersonal and InterInstitutional Collaboration

Bringing together researchers, educators, and students interested in IB and related disciplines, ICE projects provide a wonderful opportunity for interpersonal and interinstitutional collaboration, both for the students and for the instructors. Based on

their experiences, we have seen the following positive results: (1) Students continue to communicate with their teammates long after the project is completed, and some teams meet face to face; (2) X-Culture instructors collaborate on research projects; (3) institutions consider signing student exchange agreements and collaborating with other university projects; (4) students consider applying to graduate programs at schools they learned about through X-Culture; (5) students express an interest in getting involved with X-Culture research projects; and (6) several teams, primarily MBA students, plan to continue developing their business proposals and may commercialize their product.

It is too early to predict what will happen, but we certainly see an opportunity for professional and career collaboration among X-Culture participants. Furthermore, the X-Culture project is an opportunity to strengthen a student's resume. We have received numerous reports from students saying their X-Culture experiences have helped them in job interviews, internships, and ultimately, acquiring a job.

Challenges and Best Practices of ICE Projects

Challenge 1: Project Coordination

The most acute challenge in developing a multi-country collaboration project is coordination. Experience shows that in order to run smoothly, an ICE project needs a central coordinator who manages recruitment, document distribution, data collection, communication, workload distribution, and other everyday tasks. The person must be able to devote significant time to the project. Patience and cultural sensitivity are helpful traits as the job will inevitably involve dealing with student and instructor complaints and mediating conflicts. Ideally, the project coordinator will teach a related course and their class will participate in the ICE project. In addition, the project coordinator needs the support of his/her university and adequate resources (e.g., graduate assistants) to manage this type of large-scale, complex project.

Challenge 2: Recruiting and Selecting Partner Universities

Finding reliable partners for an ICE project presents several challenges. First, there must be a way to inform potentially interested partners, both foreign and domestic, about the project. Even though IB courses are taught at most business schools, to make it possible for students from different universities to work together, several conditions must be met: (1) The course content must accommodate this type of project, (2) the university term schedule must overlap significantly to enable collaboration, and (3) all students must be able to communicate, written and orally, in one common language.

The expansion of the membership of professional associations, such as the AOM, AIB, or Society of Industrial/Organizational Psychology (SIOP), to dozens

of countries around the world makes it much easier to reach large, targeted international audiences. The X-Culture project primarily relies on the AOM's International Management Division and AIB's mailing lists to inform and invite potential partners. Each semester, calls for participants generate applications from up to 200 professors. About half of the applicants are disqualified due to schedule mismatch, course content misfit, and related reasons.

To prevent information overload, the call for participants sent through professional associations' mailing lists should contain only a brief project description and a link to a website. Regardless of how much information is provided in the call for participants and on the project's website, the project coordinator will receive an avalanche of messages with additional questions and, often, suggestions.

Our experience shows that most applications come from US-based universities. It is not likely to be a problem in most instances, but if the goal is to keep the student teams culturally balanced, as would be the case in IB projects, then a disproportionally large number of US-based universities may necessitate the rejection of applications from overrepresented regions, particularly from those universities with large class sizes and a small percentage of international students.

In contrast, some geographic regions are likely to be underrepresented. The X-Culture experience shows that it is difficult to find partners in Africa, parts of Asia and Latin America, and former USSR republics. The AOM and AIB membership is limited in these regions, and it is necessary to rely on personal contacts, targeted mail invitations, and local professional associations.

Due to differences in skill level, we recommend use of an online training program for both students and instructors and a pre-project "readiness" assessment. The assessment should cover major topics and can be quite simple. The readiness test assesses not only the knowledge and skills but also the commitment to the project and infrastructure availability. While the project coordinator may not feel comfortable requiring his/her colleagues to complete these pre-project tasks, a survey of X-Culture instructors shows that they overwhelmingly support this practice.

Challenge 3: Coordinating Academic Schedules

Ideally, we want students from different countries to work together during the entire semester. Unfortunately, semester start and end dates vary drastically across countries and universities. Therefore, for some of the participants the project starts earlier in the semester and may end mid-semester, and for others the project may start later in the semester and conclude at the end of the semester. Generally, the active collaboration period lasts 2 months. To align the project with the semester schedule, we recommend filling in the "empty" parts of the semester with more in-depth pre-project preparation for those students whose semesters start early and more in-depth post-project discussions, presentations, and reflections for those students whose project ends later in the semester. This makes international collaboration the theme of the entire semester, even though the actual collaboration spans only 2 months.

It is critically important that the start and end dates and deadlines are identical for all students when developing an ICE project. Our experience shows that any inconsistencies in project schedules lead to team conflicts, varying levels of student involvement and student dissatisfaction. Inconsistencies in the exam, holiday, and semester break schedules should also be taken into account when setting project deadlines.

An ICE project should constitute a substantial part of the course and the weight of the project grade in determining the total course grade should also be substantial as it strongly affects student motivation.

The project organizers should be aware that even if the project is limited to 2 months, some universities still will not be able to participate due to schedule differences. Many schools are on a trimester or quarter schedule which does not align with the traditional semester-based schedule. Our experience shows that these "out-of-schedule" schools tend to be in the UK, Ireland, India, and some schools in the USA. The only way to get them involved entails splitting the project into an "early" and a "late" track. This division, however, requires additional coordination resources.

Challenge 4: Designing Project Deliverables

Developing project deliverables that fit the design and structure of IB courses offered in many different countries can be a major challenge. ICE works best for standard courses, such as IB or International Marketing. Although the content of traditional IB textbooks is similar, there is still much instructor-specific variation in the course content and structure, which makes it difficult to design a task that universally fits all participating courses. Furthermore, students at different schools have various levels of course-specific knowledge, general knowledge, and technical skills, which may lead to the "Goldilocks effect" where it could make the task "too easy" for some, "too hard" for others, and "just right" for a few.

Another challenge is finding a reasonable balance between clearly defining the project process and deliverables versus allowing student flexibility and creativity. On the one hand, students want clear structure and specific guidelines. On the other hand, students may learn more by finding novel ways to approach and complete the project. We recommend that team tasks and instructions are general enough to fit a broad range of courses, instructor styles, and student capabilities. The scope of the project should be broad and cover multiple disciplines. For example, the X-Culture project could be used in IB, marketing, management, entrepreneurship, and communication courses. In this way, students will receive a fuller and richer experience similar to the business world in which employees are engaged in team projects comprised of people with different skill sets and backgrounds. Students will typically split the workload so they can assign tasks based on the expertise of each teammate. Even though the project should allow for student creativity, experience shows that some structure is needed and appreciated for completion of the business proposal report. Therefore, clear formatting guidelines, report topic suggestions, page limits,

reference styles, and other guidelines are necessary. Within the project research and teamwork activities, students are able to use their flexibility and creativity, but for the project deliverables, with the proper guidelines in place, students are evaluated more equitably, and the instructors will receive higher quality deliverables based on the expectations set for the students. Additionally, numerous interim deadlines, preferably one every week, encourage steady and timely performance.

To make the project as realistic as possible, it is best if students rely on free online collaboration tools such as Facebook, Skype, Twitter, Google+, Dropbox, Doodle, and e-mail, rather than a designated project platform and discussion boards. The latter are project specific and will not be used in the real workplace, while the former are used almost universally. This approach is a major benefit that allows students to adopt collaboration tools that many of their instructors are not even aware of yet. For example, our records show that many X-Culture teams adopted some collaboration tools, such as Facebook's video chat or Google Drive even before the instructors became aware of the availability of these tools. In addition, since many students now use smartphones they are able to communicate on a 24/7 basis with their teammates.

Challenge 5: Recruiting and Selecting Students

Most X-Culture participants are students enrolled in IB or related courses, and participation in the project is one of the course requirements. However, in some cases, students are recruited across the campus and participate in the project for no academic credit. In cases like this, the college deans felt that the project would be a valuable learning experience for their students, but it did not have a good fit with any specific course.

Many instructors want to participate but feel that not all of their students are ready for a global collaboration project or are concerned their students will not be productive teammates. In some courses, instructors select only part of the class to participate, those students who are more fluent in the working language or are otherwise better prepared. Our experience shows that it is desirable to let students opt out of the project and only have the most interested and committed students participate. This strategy helps to avoid future problems with absenteeism and free riding. In addition, it drastically improves the positive experience of those students who participate because they can work with other students with similar levels of commitment and desire to interact with students from different cultures.

If a university decides to let "volunteer" students participate, the following questions must be answered first: What is the best method to recruit volunteers? Will these students receive academic credit? If not, how will you motivate them? How will the project be marketed to students? Can you recruit an instructor to sponsor these students? What participation incentives can you provide if there are no grades or course credit?

Obviously, for efficiency reasons, instructors want all their students to complete the same assignments for the course. Splitting students into X-Culture and "other

groups" creates classroom problems. If some students are unable to participate they can be given an alternative assignment (e.g., write a paper) that requires about the same amount of time and effort. The instructor must take a leading role in this area. He/she must explain the importance of the project and potential benefits to the students. In addition, he/she must clearly explain his/her expectations, the weighting of the project in the final grade (more about this topic later), and how he/she will evaluate the student's individual performance and teamwork. If the problem is poor working language proficiency, students may be put on single-country teams or on international teams in pairs with their classmates who are more skilled in English. In either case, all students complete the same project and are graded in the same manner.

Challenge 6: Master's and Undergraduate Students

A call for participants will likely attract both professors who teach Master's and undergraduate level courses. Should the Master's and undergraduate students be placed on mixed or separate teams? The concerns are that the more experienced Master's students will be held back by the limited skills and knowledge of their undergraduate counterparts and the higher quality expectations of Master's students' work. On the other hand, it may not always be possible to place Master's and undergraduate students on separate teams.

We found that Master's students are better prepared and more mature, but not necessarily more committed. Master's students often have jobs, families, and less time to spend on the project. They may already have some international experience and consequently not value the ICE opportunity. At the same time, Master's students are more serious about their education and may get more upset if their teammates do not display the same level of commitment and have high performance expectations.

Even though our data show that differences are not that great in terms of commitment and technical skills, if something goes wrong, Master's students tend to blame it on their undergraduate teammates, who they see as not serious or skilled enough and complain to their instructors. In these cases, the instructor must clearly explain his/her expectations to the Master's students and strongly urge them to take a leadership position on the team. In many ways, this accurately mirrors the business world. People have different talent, experience, commitment, and interest levels. A good team leader must find ways to blend the skills of each team member so everyone works toward successfully accomplishing his/her goals.

Based on our experience, we recommend that, if possible, Master's and undergraduate students be assigned to separate teams in order to avoid some of the challenges discussed above. Unfortunately, Master's students tend to come from the same or a few cultural regions, which makes it difficult to form reasonably diverse all-Master's student teams. Assigning one or two Master's students to a larger team can be beneficial. Master's students tend to be team leaders, contribute a breadth of knowledge and experience, and improve team structure, making it a more enjoyable

experience for everyone. If Master's and undergraduate students must be mixed, it is best to pair Master's students with senior students to minimize age and knowledge differences. Additionally, the instructor should clearly communicate, in advance, his/her reasons for the team assignments and his/her expectations for teams and individuals to prevent future misunderstandings. Overall, however, our X-Culture experience shows mixed teams do as well as separate teams, although student satisfaction in mixed teams tends to be slightly lower.

Challenge 7: Assessment and Project Grades

Differences in assessment and grading can significantly affect student motivation and lead to conflict within teams. Therefore, all participating instructors should use a universally agreed upon assessment and weighting system to evaluate all students in a similar fashion. Unfortunately, a unified approach is not always possible due to differences in institutional policies, instructor preferences, and teaching styles. Thechallenge is finding a balance between consistency and flexibility in grading.

A second significant challenge is finding a way to assess individual student work and to determine a fair balance between team and individual work, one that provides a strong incentive for individual performance but does not remove the need for teamwork. Teamwork is the foundation of ICE projects. Therefore, the grade should be based on team performance as much as possible to encourage teamwork. On the other hand, many students will not be satisfied if their grades depend on the performance of people in other countries, especially if they do not have control over the situation or encounter team members whose performance is low. The key is to devise a system that ensures a student earns a satisfactory grade as long as there is evidence that the student has worked to his/her full capability and provided reasonable assistance to his/her team, even if the other team members performed poorly. We recommend several steps to take in order to address the above challenges.

First, instructors should consider ways to maintain grading consistency. Inconsistencies in team evaluations lead to several problems. For example, students of instructors who place a greater emphasis on the ICE project and set the bar high in their grading standards tend to take the project more seriously and become disappointed when some of their teammates underperform. We recommend that instructors work together to determine the team evaluation standards prior to the start of the X-Culture project.

Another way to establish grading consistency is to set upper and lower limits for the weighting of each evaluation criterion. The project coordinator can make this recommendation at the beginning of the ICE project. Our experience shows that it works best when an ICE project accounts for no less than 20 % but usually not more than 30 % of the final course grade. Setting limits helps instructors set student expectations for the importance of completing the ICE project.

It is also important to give evaluation criteria guidelines to the instructors prior to the start of the project with at least 80 % of the criteria agreed upon by all instructors.

This policy gives the instructors some flexibility in setting evaluation criteria for their course but maintains a certain level of grading consistency at the team level.

Project coordinators should implement a mix of individual and team deadlines and tasks. In this way, instructors can base the students' final grades on a combination of individual- and team-level criteria. For example, the X-Culture project uses the following individual criteria for evaluation: (1) A training test should be administered prior to the start of the project that students must complete. (2) Four surveys must be completed. One should be administered prior to the start of the project, a second and third during the project, and a fourth upon completion of the project. (3) Two peer evaluations should be completed by individual students for each member of their team—one during the project and the second upon project completion. At the team level, student evaluations should include the following team-level criteria: (1) three team deadlines that include completing a report on establishing contact with team members, finalizing the company and business proposal idea, and completing the final team business proposal report and (2) numerous dimensions in the team report evaluation including novelty of the business idea, economic feasibility of the proposal, ability to identify challenges and suggest solutions, clarity of the presentation, attention to detail and thoroughness of explanations, formatting quality, and writing style.

This combination of individual and team performance deadlines and expectations ensures that the majority of a student's grade depends on individual performance; yet, there is enough team performance criteria embedded in the project design to provide motivation for the students to work interdependently as a team.

Experience shows that using a Pass/Fail grading system, as opposed to continuous grades, for most project components seems to work best. This approach removes much of the peer-dependency anxiety and stress, while still providing sufficient motivation for participation. Expectations for a pass should be high but reasonable enough that students know that as long as they do their best, they can earn a passing grade. As a result, the students seem to enjoy the project more.

It also helps to build into the course several additional X-Culture assignments. For example, throughout the project an instructor can have his/her students write blogs about their experiences. At the end of the course, students can be required to write a reflection paper or present their experiences, including lessons learned. In addition, instructors can incorporate some aspects of the X-Culture project into their final exams. Finally, we found that discussing the X-Culture project for a few minutes each class period improved student motivation and commitment. Since the instructor was continually stressing the importance of the project, and checking on student and team performance, they understood the project was an important component of the course that required their best effort.

Furthermore, the project coordinator should provide instructors with as much team and individual performance data as possible and should send updates frequently. Students must be aware of their team's performance throughout the project. The project coordinator should also communicate to the students and instructors that some differences in performance appraisal make the project more realistic. For example, in the business world, members of GVTs are not paid the same and are not evaluated based on the same criteria.

Challenge 8: Managing communications and coordinating a multi-country collaboration project

The main purpose of an ICE project is to give students a unique learning opportunity to experience the challenges and to learn the best practices of international collaboration. One of the biggest challenges in initiating and executing an ICE project is learning how to manage communication and coordination among all of the stakeholders including the project coordinator, instructors, and the students. If the project involves a large number of participants, communication and coordination challenges are likely to be overwhelming, particularly for the project coordinator. The instructors, additionally, should be prepared for some of the same coordination and communication challenges that the students face as they will also be working in the instructor GVTs. For project coordinators and instructors, it is important to keep their correspondence informative, succinct, and respectful.

Language differences also present a major challenge. Even though the project is conducted in English, participants will encounter varying degrees of English speaking and writing proficiency among students and instructors. Additionally, communication in an international context will require additional time and effort due to time zone differences. For example, if participants from South Korea and the USA are on the same team, they will have delayed responses in e-mail communication due to the 12–13-hour time difference.

Technical challenges can also cause communication difficulties. There are occasional problems with some e-mail accounts, particularly "generic" e-mail accounts (e.g., Gmail, Hotmail, and Yahoo). Team members start panicking when they cannot reach their teammates, and instructors may receive several e-mails with complaints. Unfortunately, by the time the nonresponsive student is located, much time is lost and the team falls behind schedule.

Using online communication media as opposed to face-to-face communication can present a challenge. Complications may arise because initially students know little about their teammates (e.g., nationality, gender, age, race, or personality). Participants may not know how to address each other, writing styles may differ in e-mail communication, and some may feel uncomfortable speaking to each other using Skype or social media. Differences in cross-cultural communication styles can lead to misunderstandings. For example, a direct communication style may lead to complications if all team members are not used to this style.

Based on our experience with developing, executing, and evaluating the X-Culture project, we recommend assembling a detailed instructor's handbook that anticipates some of the major challenges that may arise with the participants. The handbook should contain: policies that will address major issues; links to all forms, documents, websites, and other resources; all templates (or links to them); a list of all deadlines; and frequently asked questions (FAQs) and appropriate responses. This invaluable instructor resource will save time and limit unnecessary e-mail traffic.

For situations requiring instructor collaboration, it works best if discussions are moved to Google Docs or other web-based discussion boards, rather than numerous e-mails. Unfortunately, fewer people tend to take the extra step to share their thoughts

outside the usual communication channels, such as e-mail, but discussion boards offer an option of anonymous replies, which facilitates openness and creativity.

Challenge 9: Data Collection

Multi-country large-scale ICE projects present a wonderful research opportunity. However, data collection can be a challenging task. Generally, student performance data are collected for grading purposes and can be used for research purposes.

The challenge is to devise a data collection system that is reliable, convenient for students and instructors, and the resulting data are easy to read and share. Most importantly, the data collection efforts must not compromise the academic values of the project. It is tempting to use access to a large number of students to collect data on a wide range of issues. The project organizers will receive numerous requests from their colleagues and graduate students to help with data collection for various projects. We strongly encourage keeping the participant surveys and observations to a minimum and only collect data directly related to the project that can be used to further enhance student learning. Collection of any data not directly related to the project is likely to be frowned upon by the students, reduce student satisfaction with the project, and divert students' attention from more important issues. In addition, survey overload may lead to survey response fatigue, which may seriously compromise data validity.

Multisource data are also important; self-report data (self-report surveys) are easy to administer and collect, but may lack validity and reliability. Since the ICE project typically relies on online collaboration tools, the data should be collected online. Centralized collection helps to avoid discrepancies in data collection methods and instructor-specific factors. Ensuring that all students have access to the data collection tools is critical. Depending on the size and scope of the project, free or low-cost online data collection services are likely to be sufficient in most cases. If the size of the project and the sophistication of the data and research design increase, more advanced online data collection tools may be needed.

We strongly recommend that invitations to surveys be sent out with personalized links that contain the respondent's information embedded in them (name, university, etc.). This method not only allows for shortening the surveys since much of the information is recorded automatically but it also ensures consistency in the identification of respondents and their teammates. The use of personalized links and macro-data that automatically recognize the respondents and retrieve names of peers for peer evaluations greatly simplifies data preparation and merging.

We recommend that survey reminders and thank you notes be sent out centrally by the project coordinator. While it may seem reasonable to leave this responsibility up to the instructors, our experience shows it is better to have the project coordinator perform these functions and keep the instructors updated on who has and who has not completed the survey. This approach ensures consistency and reliability.

Once the data are collected, it is important that they be shared along with a detailed data codebook. While the project coordinator or data administrator may be familiar with the data set, it is unreasonable to expect that all project participants

will be able to make sense of the data on their own. Therefore, a detailed data code-book must be prepared to accompany the data set to provide additional information about each variable.

Finally, team reports should be considered a form of data. We recommend that team reports be submitted electronically. Even though it may be tempting to request hard-copy submissions, electronic submissions make it easier to compile the complete database of reports and share them with the instructors for grading purposes. For research and grading purposes, we also recommend that each team report be evaluated by several instructors, at least by those instructors whose students compose the team. This way, each report is evaluated by multiple independent raters which improves the reliability and validity of the assessment.

Our experience shows that a system of centralized submission (similar to Drop-box in Blackboard) works better than submissions through individual instructors. The X-Culture team uses TurnItIn which not only allows for centralized document submission but also checks team reports for plagiarism.

Once the reports are submitted electronically, the project coordinator needs to make sure all instructors review the reports within 2 weeks so the assessments are available on a timely basis. We have experienced some challenges regarding instructors failing to submit assessments on time. The expectations of assessments' deadlines should be communicated in advance to ensure the instructors allocate the necessary time for the task and take it seriously.

Challenge 10: Co-Developing Research Papers

Multi-country ICE projects yield data suitable for high-quality research. A large team of instructors is a valuable asset. However, the size of the team also presents a coordination challenge. First, collecting, merging, and sharing the massive multilevel/multisource databases are a laborious task. Second, differences in opinions, beliefs, and preferences among instructors are likely to present challenges at the data analysis, interpretation, and paper write-up stages. Finding a balance between using multi-perspective brainpower and keeping coauthor teams manageable is critical. Third, multiauthor teams are likely to experience challenges related to issues of authorship and data copyright. For example, if the team size is large, it may mean that a paper written by the team may have a dozen or more coauthors and this may lead to some dissatisfaction among the coauthors, who may feel they are not getting enough credit for their work.

To prevent many of these problems and maximize the potential of the research team, we recommend that research and coauthorship policies be developed in advance and clearly communicated to all current and prospective project participants. Data preparation and merging works are best if done by one dedicated person. The task is simply too complex and difficult to explain to multiple people, and it is generally more efficient for one or a few people to handle the task. If resources permit, it would be ideal to have a full-time research assistant or employee specifically for this task.

To ensure that high-quality research is produced and that it benefits the larger community, we encourage research participation (i.e., idea generation, input in data

analysis, and paper write-up) both within the team as well as of qualified "outsiders." It may be tempting to restrict access to the data only to instructors whose students participate in the project, but if the goal is to generate knowledge—and not necessarily stretch the curricula vitae of the few—allowing access of qualified outsiders to the data will likely help.

When a proposal for a paper is put forth, the lead author should develop a detailed plan and set deadlines for the paper's development process. This procedure will curtail ambiguity and delays. Once the paper outline is collectively developed, the lead author should provide clear instructions for all coauthors as to what needs to be done and how, to ensure that the final product is coherent.

There will be coauthors who will sign up to work on every proposed paper, but they may not be able to provide meaningful input due to busy schedules, lack of skills, or limited work ethic. Decide early on how the author order will be determined, how input quality will be measured, and what will qualify as "unsatisfactory" participation. Additionally, make a determination and set guidelines and policies that clearly delineate the qualifications and expectations for participation and, if these are not met, make a decision on how to handle removal of the participant from the coauthor team. To avoid errors and time loss, resulting from multiple manuscript copies, always maintain a copy "in the cloud" using Google Docs or Dropbox. Use Track Changes (if using Microsoft Word) to view changes and identify the author making the changes. However, no matter how reliable the system may seem, the lead author must often save a copy on his/her hard drive as the main copy "in the cloud" will be mistakenly deleted or altered.

An Instructor's Perspective

With all the challenges and extra work required, instructors must carefully weigh all the pros and cons before incorporating an ICE project into their courses. As we discussed previously, there is a lot of work required and you will face many challenges with ICE projects. However, we believe ICE projects provide a unique learning experience for the students to gain first-hand knowledge of what it is like to work on a GVT, communicate across vast time zone differences, meet strict deadlines, and produce a final deliverable. Beyond these benefits, the students begin to understand the value of teamwork and diversity. Moreover, they learn how to reach consensus with a diverse group of people. In addition, they learn to find each person's strengths and to determine how each person can best contribute to the team report. They come to grasp that while everyone is different, there are some areas in which everyone shares similar values, such as family, friends, and Facebook. Finally, they learn no country has an exclusive monopoly on smart people or free riders. These are all valuable lessons which they will use throughout their professional careers.

Some instructors expand this experience to help the students see an even broader picture. Through in-project blogs and end-of-project reflection papers and presentations, the students are encouraged to recognize the reasons people acted in certain ways, find creative solutions to their team challenges, and identify steps they

could take to improve their cultural awareness. In addition, X-Culture lessons can be reinforced through case discussions involving similar themes. Sometimes current events allow the instructor to relate X-Culture challenges to the real world. For example, the recent Euro zone debt crisis highlighted the cultural differences between certain European countries and the culture-driven challenges they face to reach acceptable compromises in order to resolve the crisis. Finally, the instructor can incorporate several aspects of the X-Culture project into their final exams. The students use traditional IB concepts to develop their team reports, and these concepts can be reinforced in their exams to help them understand the relationship between the X-Culture project, their course work, and the global business environment.

The instructor needs to have a thick skin and a positive attitude. The students will complain, and unforeseen things will occur. Every student will say he/she is working exceptionally hard on the team report, but their teammates would not respond to their messages, refuse to help, or turn in substandard work. Moreover, the best complaint is, "this is so much work and I wish I took Instructor Easy Grader's IB course." Yes, these complaints are the same that one hears in class team assignments, except now they have a global element to them. It is in these moments, the instructor smiles at the students, explains the value of perseverance, encourages them to keep moving forward, and promises them there will be a happy ending to their X-Culture story.

It is a very rewarding experience for the instructor to watch his/her students learn and grow throughout this project. Some of the student product and service ideas are very creative. In a recent class, students had the following ideas: a McDonald's and Weight Watchers partnership to serve healthy food, a YouTube application called GroupIt allowing people to categorize similar video topics, a Walt Disney "Little Entrepreneurs" program to teach small business skills to preteens, and a new Apple gaming console called iGame.

In one blog posting, an instructor used the following formula to describe his X-Culture experience:

X-citing + X-cruciating + X-hilaration + X-haustion = X- Culture

From an instructor's viewpoint, it feels like an emotional rollercoaster ride. Sometimes the activity is very exciting and challenging and other times the students are frustrated and discouraged. In the end, most students are exhausted but elated to finish their team reports and proud of their accomplishments. Perhaps, the culmination of this experience is best stated by the musical group Green Day in their song Time of Your Life, "… it's something unpredictable but in the end it's right, I hope you had the time of your life."

Where Do We Go from Here?

The X-Culture project has proven to be a very beneficial undertaking for IB instructors wanting to provide experiential learning for their students. Additionally, it is a data gold mine for those interested in studying the antecedents and outcomes using

a multitude of variables related to GVTs. We have several ideas for ways to expand the X-Culture project concept to benefit future students, researchers, and instructors.

We are exploring ways to expand this project so students will work directly with multinational companies. This extension would make the project even more "real life," and create opportunities for IB students to meet and interact with corporate executives. The project teams would present their business proposals to company executives and, in an ideal situation, the company might even implement the best business proposals. As more companies incorporate GVTs into their work practices and organizational structure, ICEs at undergraduate and graduate levels will provide companies with new hires who have already experienced the opportunity to work on GVTs. Companies will save valuable time and training dollars. In return, there is an opportunity for multinational companies to sponsor projects and fund opportunities to expand the X-Culture project so that more students can participate. For companies, the X-Culture project could amount to a semester-long job interview. Given the detailed data on performance, it could be a great way for companies to select future employees.

We plan to use X-Culture as a springboard to get our students involved in and exposed to academic conferences. The best X-Culture student teams will be invited to present their team reports at regional and national AIB and AOM conferences. In addition, we are encouraging students to submit papers to these conferences and academic journals. This practice will serve the dual purposes of improving our students' communication skills, while reinforcing the lessons they learned during the X-Culture project. Our challenge will be to find funding sources to defray our students' travel costs. We are exploring various funding sources: government grants, private foundations, university funds, and corporate partnerships.

Many universities sponsor business plan and ethics competitions. We think the time is right to start an IB X-Culture competition. The competition could be sponsored by one university or, perhaps, by several universities and could be held in different international locations. Annually, we would bring together the top 10–15 college teams to present their business proposals. We would recruit corporate executives, college instructors, and government officials to judge the competition. Using the funding sources identified above, we would provide cash prizes to the winning teams. As importantly, these competitions would promote student networking that will be beneficial for future career opportunities.

We have been approached by non-IB instructors about expanding X-Culture to include other disciplines. This project could be expanded to cross-cultural management, industrial organizational psychology, civil engineering, human resources, and many other areas. We are open to this idea but need to ensure there is adequate administrative support and that the students possess the requisite business skills. Alternately, we may "franchise" the X-Culture approach and allow other disciplines to adapt the basic X-Culture framework to fit their specific needs. We believe that in the near future there will be X-Culture-like projects hosted in other languages. It is not difficult to imagine a Chinese (Mandarin), Spanish, or Arabic X-Culture project.

The research opportunities from this project are unlimited. We already develop papers in large coauthor teams with the numbers reaching a dozen or more

collaborators. A more radical idea is to take crowdsourcing a step further and make all X-Culture data freely available to the academic and professional community. Using crowdsourcing techniques, we would involve a much larger number of researchers and practitioners. We believe this change would significantly increase the quantity and quality of new research. Since the main goal of X-Culture is to enhance our students' learning and make them more valuable in the workplace, we believe this approach is in line with our goals. We still need to resolve several issues on data ownership, privacy, and authorship but we believe this approach holds unlimited potential for X-Culture research.

We are exploring ways to fund this project in order to provide services and outreach to even more students and instructors. Pay-based participation would provide the much-needed financial resources for improved project infrastructure and dedicated support. However, X-Culture believes in open access and, therefore, there are no current plans to switch to a pay-based system.

Conclusion

Our X-Culture experiences have been very positive. Our data show that over the course of the project our students become more culturally sensitive and open to new ideas. They have improved their ability to work in GVTs and communicate across large time differences and cross-cultural communication barriers using the most current social networking tools. They have used their IB knowledge to develop innovative and creative business ideas. In addition, they have learned to deal with complex situations and to meet strict deadlines. For instructors, X-Culture provides an opportunity to meet their foreign colleagues and collaborate on academic papers and other research. It helps us bring the real world into our classrooms and enhance the learning experience for our students. We have many ideas of ways to improve and grow the X-Culture project. The future is bright, and we look forward to working with those who have the same interest, excitement, and dedication to making ICE projects an important part of every student's academic program.

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Chapter 13
Challenges of Conducting Global Research

Kwok Leung, Jie Wang and Hong Deng

Globalization is a major trend in business, and firms are increasingly keen to take advantage of overseas operations to lower cost and increase access to talent, tap foreign markets for expansion and growth, and form international alliances to increase competitiveness. It is common for people of different nationalities to work under the same roof as a result of such globalization forces. Immigration also increases the cultural diversity of many workplaces around the globe. For example, Hispanics are forecast to be the largest minority group in the near future in the USA. In Western Europe, the Muslim populations are increasing. At a more macro-level, many major challenges of humankind, such as climate, terrorism, and control of nuclear weapons, require the cooperation of many nations. People from diverse cultures need to work together to address these global challenges.

Academic research clearly lags behind this globalizing trend, as most papers published in academic journals are conducted in a single nation, with little concern for the influence of culture. To take advantage of the multicultural work force, there is a clear need for research on the influence of culture in the work context. Cross-cultural research is concerned with the comparison of individuals from different cultures, whereas intercultural research is concerned with the interaction of individuals with different cultural backgrounds. These two types of research share many theoretical and methodological challenges, but also involve some unique issues. In a globalizing world, psychologists are often confronted with cultural issues in their research and practice, but some may not be professionally prepared to tackle such issues. For instance, Byrne et al. (2009) noted that "psychologists with little training in cross-cultural psychology increasingly are conducting cross-cultural research" (p. 95). It is important for graduate students in psychology to acquire some knowledge about conducting global research, as many will encounter situations in which culture is a major issue in their professional life. The goal of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive overview of the theoretical and methodological issues confronting cross-cultural and intercultural research.

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Theoretical Issues in Cross-Cultural Research

We begin our analysis with theoretical issues confronting cross-cultural research. Informative cross-cultural research is based on sound theoretical analysis. Four major theoretical issues have to be tackled in developing the theoretical foundation of a cross-cultural study: specifying the relevant cultural constructs, theoretical frameworks for studying culture, theoretical justifications for the selection of cultures, and construct equivalence.

Specifying the Relevant Cultural Constructs

Culture includes objective elements (such as population density) and subjective elements (such as values, beliefs, and norms). Over 50 years ago, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) provided a well-known definition of culture: "Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts" (p. 181). Triandis (1972) distinguishes between physical elements of culture (such as buildings and transportation networks) and subjective elements (such as values and norms). Scholars who subscribe to cultural psychology tend to view culture as manifested in the interpretation of meanings, which can be traced to Geertz's view of culture (1973) as "an historically transmitted pattern of meanings in symbols" (p. 89). Smith and Bond (1998) have proposed a simple definition of culture: "a culture is a relatively organized system of shared meanings" (p. 39).

Cross-cultural research mainly focuses on subjective elements of culture, such as values, beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, affects, cognitions, meanings, and mental processes. The scope of subjective culture is still quite broad, and a general notion of culture is too broad-brushed to shed light on the dynamics underlying a given observed cultural difference. For example, when we note that Chinese regard education achievement as determined by effort more than Americans do (Hess et al. 1987), it is easy to attribute this difference to culture. However, this general explanation provides no insight about the processes underlying the observed difference. The cultural difference may be produced by a whole host of reasons, such as school climate, parental style, and achievement motivation. Cross-cultural researchers generally agree that it is necessary to "unpackage" culture into specific elements and identify the specific elements that are responsible for an observed cultural difference (Brockner 2003; Matsumoto and Yoo 2006; Whiting 1976). The specific cultural constructs relevant for a study have to be clearly articulated and justified. When a specific cultural construct is identified as the cause of an observed cultural difference, the relationship between this cultural construct and the cultural difference should be subjected to empirical scrutiny. A good example of this approach is provided by Debus et al. (2012). Using a sample of 15,200 employees from 24 countries, Debus and colleagues found that country-level enacted uncertainty avoidance and a country's social safety net affected how an individual reacted to job insecurity.

Theoretical Frameworks for Studying Culture

In Schaffer and Riordan's (2003) review of cross-cultural methodologies for organizational research, 79 % of the studies they examined followed the practice of operationalizing culture as country. Although country may be a convenient and appropriate proxy for culture under many circumstances, this operationalization can be problematic. First, treating country as a proxy for culture may ignore cultural differences within a country. Some countries such as Canada and Switzerland have relatively heterogeneous subcultures with clear linguistic and ethnic boundaries (Peterson and Smith 1997). Second, observed country differences may actually be due to differences in economic development, political structure, or other institutional differences, and researchers may misattribute the observed cross-country differences to subjective culture. In order to eliminate alternative interpretations, researchers should minimize the use of country as a proxy for culture and incorporate specific cultural constructs into their theoretical frameworks. An in-depth theoretical analysis is important because it provides the basis for generating a priori predictions and plausible theoretical explanations for the cross-cultural results obtained.

In the literature, there are several major theoretical frameworks that may guide the study of culture. Early theoretical frameworks of culture mainly focus on values, among which Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural typology is most influential. Based on data from subsidiaries of International Business Machines Corporation (IBM) around the world, four dimensions of cultural values were identified: (1) individualism–collectivism, referring to the importance of groups for individuals; (2) power distance, defined as the extent to which a society accepts unequal power distribution in institutions and organizations; (3) masculinity–femininity, referring to the extent to which the dominant values in society are assertive and materialistic, or caring for others and emphasizing the quality of life; and (4) uncertainty avoidance, referring to how tolerant a society is for uncertain situations and deviant behaviors. Subsequently, Hofstede and Bond (1988) developed the fifth dimension, long-term vs. short-term orientation based on the Chinese Values Survey. Long-term orientation refers to future-oriented values such as persistence and thrift.

Hofstede (1980, 2001) was clear that his framework was intended only for the culture level, and a culture cannot be both individualistic and collectivistic at the same time. However, Triandis (1995) suggested that individualistic and collectivistic orientations can be found within any given culture in different situations. He proposed the use of cultural syndromes to better understand cultural differences, which refer to patterns of shared attitudes, beliefs, categorizations, self-definitions, norms, role definitions, and values that are organized around a theme and can be identified among people who speak a particular language, during a specific historic period, and in a definable geographic region. Examples of such cultural syndromes include: (1) tightness, referring to the extent to which a culture has many norms across many situations to guide members' behaviors; (2) cultural complexity, describing the number and complexity of different cultural elements; (3) active–passive, defined as the number of active and passive actions cultural members may engage in; (4) honor, reflecting cultural members' tendency

to defend their honor; (5) collectivism; (6) individualism; and (7) vertical and horizontal relationships, which reflect the importance of hierarchy.

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project (House et al. 2004) developed a value typology in a large-scale international study on culture and leadership. Using data from 62 cultures, 9 cultural values were identified, with 7 that are quite similar to Hofstede's (1980) typology: (1) uncertainty avoidance; (2) power distance; (3) institutional collectivism, reflecting the extent to which collective distribution of resources and collective action are emphasized; (4) in-group collectivism, corresponding to Hofstede's individualism–collectivism dimension; (5) gender egalitarianism, referring to the level of gender role differentiation; (6) assertiveness, describing the level of assertiveness, confrontation, and aggressiveness; (7) future orientation, reflecting the tendency to plan, invest in the future, and delay gratification; (8) performance orientation, emphasizing performance improvement and excellence; and (9) humane orientation, with an emphasis on being fair, friendly, generous, caring, and kind. The last two cultural values, performance orientation and humane orientation, may be unique to GLOBE.

Leung and Bond (2004) developed a cultural typology based on general beliefs rather than values. Values tap what is regarded as important, while beliefs tap what is regarded as true. They termed these beliefs social axioms, which refer to context-free general beliefs people hold about the relationship between two entities in their social environment. They collected student data from 40 cultures and community data from 13 cultures, and both types of data converged on a five-factor structure: (1) social cynicism—a negative view against powerful people, a mistrust of social institutions, and a disregard of ethical means for achieving an end; (2) social complexity—the belief that multiple ways are possible for achieving a particular outcome and that human behaviors can be inconsistent; (3) reward for application—the expectation about the usefulness of effort, knowledge, careful planning, and the investment of other resources in achieving positive outcomes; (4) religiosity—the belief in the existence of supernatural forces and the beneficial functions of religious belief; and (5) fate control—the belief that life events are predetermined and that there are ways for people to influence these outcomes. The dimension of fate control is interesting because it includes beliefs characterized by both internal and external locus of control (e.g., Zhou et al. 2009).

Most recently, Gelfand et al. (2011) called attention to cultural variation in the degree of tightness–looseness, which mainly focuses on the strength of social norms and tolerance of deviant behavior. A tight culture has many strong social norms and is less likely to be tolerant of deviant behavior. They surveyed individuals from 33 cultures and collected archival data from diverse databases, and some interesting findings were revealed. For example, tight cultures have higher population density, face more natural disasters, experience more resource scarcity, and suffer from more human diseases in history. That is, cultures that have encountered ecological and historical threats have stronger norms and lower tolerance of deviant behavior. Tightness–looseness is reflected in societal institutions and practices, such as autocratic government, control of media, strictness of criminal justice institutions, and religiousness. Finally, tightness–looseness is also related to the regulatory attention

directed at the self, such as prevention focus, self-regulation strength, need for structure, and self-monitoring. Gelfand et al. concluded that tightness–looseness is a critical aspect of societies that deserves more research attention.

In sum, the broad theoretical frameworks reviewed above can help researchers operationalize culture and decipher the meaning of cultural similarities and differences. This review is illustrative rather than exhaustive, and there are other frameworks (e.g., Inglehart and Welzel 2005; Schwartz 1992, 1994) that researchers can draw upon to develop theoretically grounded interpretations of cultural similarities and differences.

Theoretical Justifications for the Selection of Cultures

The selection of cultures is an important theoretical question in a cross-cultural study as it determines whether or not the research questions in the study can be meaningfully examined. There are three types of sampling procedures for the selection of cultures. First, convenience sampling is frequently adopted in cross-cultural studies. A culture is selected simply because researchers may be from that culture, have personal connections in that culture, or happen to be in that culture for some reason. The culture selected in this way is driven by convenience and not related to the research questions raised. As a result, it is rare for these studies to develop a priori predictions about cultural similarities and differences. Instead, these studies tend to rely on post hoc explanations for cultural similarities and differences found.

Second, systematic sampling, in which cultures are selected on a systematic and theoretical basis, is perhaps the most common approach in cross-cultural studies. The choice of culture is based on the distribution on a theoretical continuum, such as individualism and collectivism. For example, in a study by Chirkov et al. (2003), four cultures were selected, namely, South Korea, Russia, Turkey, and the USA, which were selected because of their different emphasis on vertical versus horizontal and individualistic versus collectivistic practices. South Korea is high in both horizontal and vertical collectivism, the USA is high in individualism, and Russia and Turkey are in between.

It should be noticed that in the systematic approach, comparison between two cultures is usually not adequate unless there is a compelling theoretical framework for interpreting the results. When the theoretical framework guiding a study is not well developed, more cultures should be sampled so that alternative explanations can be ruled out more convincingly (Campbell 1986). Two cultures are very likely to differ from each other in many aspects, which lead to numerous alternative explanations for an observed cultural difference. This problem of interpretative ambiguity is to some extent alleviated with a large sample of cultures. The larger the number of cultures sampled, the fewer the alternative interpretations that are compatible with the pattern of cultural similarities and differences found. Another common practice is to sample cultures that are far apart on a cultural dimension to maximize the likelihood of detecting cultural differences. Cultures that are polar opposites are often sampled to maximize the contrast.

Finally, random sampling refers to an approach in which a large number of cultures are randomly selected. This approach is often used to evaluate a universal structure or a pan-cultural theory. It is nearly impossible to follow a truly random sampling approach because few researchers have the resources to randomly select a large number of cultures for a single study. However, studies that include a large number of diverse cultures may approximate a random sampling approach. There are around 200 countries and territories in the world and a convenience sample of 50 cultures may produce generalizable results. The influence of confounding variables is likely to be immaterial if a meaningful pattern is found across a sufficiently large sample of cultures. For example, the structure of values has been examined in 60 cultures (Schwartz et al., 2001). Leung and Bond (2004) sampled 40 cultures in their study of social axioms. Schmitt and Allik (2005) surveyed people from 53 nations on global self-esteem.

Construct Equivalence

Construct equivalence is a major theoretical concern in cross-cultural research because meaningful cross-cultural comparisons are possible only if constructs share a common meaning across cultures. Not all concepts have the same meanings in different cultures. For example, the concept of "filial piety" as understood by Chinese is not identical to similar constructs in the West, such as respecting parents or caring for them. Filial piety is a central traditional Chinese value, which includes attributes of respecting, obeying, caring for, and showing love and affection toward parents. However, in Western societies, people's concept of filial piety is likely to be narrower, perhaps with a lower emphasis on obedience and caring (Yeh 1997, 2003). In the extreme case where a strong emic (a culture-specific construct) exists, the cultural uniqueness involved will render this construct inequivalent across cultures. An example is the concept of reproductive success. Its meanings can range from the number of offspring reaching sexual maturity to the degree of one's genes contributing to the gene pool of successive generations, resulting in a situation where "it cannot be compared cross-culturally" (Crognier 2003, p. 358). Cross-cultural comparison based on such constructs is impossible as its meaning is not cross-culturally comparable.

In general, shared meaning across cultures is more likely for relatively simple and straightforward constructs, such as job satisfaction and stress. On the other hand, construct equivalence is less likely for multidimensional constructs with nuanced meanings and attributes. For example, Farh et al. (2004) proposed that the content of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) should be different between China and the West because China is a collectivistic culture. Indeed, they found that only five out of ten dimensions of OCB in China were similar to the major OCB dimensions in the West, and one dimension, interpersonal harmony, was clearly unique to China. Therefore, if researchers use a Western OCB scale in China, some indigenous aspects of OCB are not captured by the imported scale. Another example is concerned with cultural differences in the relative importance of novelty and appropriateness for creativity. Using repeated measures scenarios of cooking

and textbook products, Paletz and Peng (2008) surveyed more than 400 students from Japan, China, and the USA, and found that all three groups valued novelty for evaluations of creativity. However, Americans and Japanese valued appropriateness more than the Chinese in the evaluation of creativity and preference for products.

Methodological Issues in Cross-Cultural Research

Cross-cultural research involves comparison of two or more cultural groups on some psychological variables of interest. This unique feature give rises to a whole host of methodological issues not commonly encountered in monocultural studies, from issues concerning measurement equivalence, instrument translation, sampling to data analytic techniques. Cross-cultural researchers have to be fully aware of the methodological traps and risks involved and their solutions, which is the focus of this section. An overview of key methodological concerns in cross-cultural research is first presented, with trends of future development discussed at the end.

Equivalence and Bias: Concept, Taxonomy, and Solutions

Perhaps, the most important threat to meaningful cross-cultural comparison is inequivalence and bias across cultures, which are pivotal concepts in cross-cultural assessment (Harkness et al. 2003). The question of whether measurements obtained in different cultures can be interpreted in the same way has to be dealt with in every cross-cultural study, and the issues of inequivalence and bias are central to this question (van de Vijver and Tanzer 2004). Bias exists when the same measurement score has different meanings in different cultures (Poortinga 1989). Suppose that a test contains the item "What is the capital of Cambodia?" If this test is used to measure the level of geographic knowledge of pupils across countries, distance of the country to Cambodia is a source of bias: Pupils from countries closer to Cambodia have an advantage over pupils from countries far away, such as European countries. Equivalence can be seen as the opposite of bias, which refers to the level of comparability of measurement outcomes and is a prerequisite for valid comparison across cultural populations. Only when instruments are free from bias can measurement outcomes be equivalent and meaningfully compared across cultures.

It is noteworthy that both bias and equivalence do not refer to intrinsic properties of a measure, but to the attributes of a cross-cultural comparison of that measure. A measure that does not have any bias in a monocultural application may become biased when used in a cross-cultural study. Statements about bias or inequivalence thus need to be tied to a particular cultural comparison, because a biased instrument for a specific group of cultures is not necessarily biased when it is used for a different set of cultures.

Three types of biases can be distinguished (van de Vijver and Leung 1997). The first one is construct bias, which occurs if a construct is not equivalent across the

cultural groups compared. For example, Western cultures put less emphasis on social intelligence in the definition of intelligence, whereas social intelligence is a core element of the concept of intelligence in some non-Western cultures (Super 1983). The use of an intelligence test that excludes components of social intelligence in the comparison of Western participants and participants from these non-Western cultures is likely to be biased.

The second type is method bias, a label for all sources of bias associated with the research methods adopted. Three types of method biases can be further distinguished, depending on the source of bias. First, incomparability of samples can lead to sample bias. For example, samples from different cultures may have different degrees of concern for social desirability, which may bias the responses to certain questionnaire items. This incomparability may result in different levels of biases in the responses to socially sensitive questions, thus seriously threatening the validity of a cross-cultural comparison. Another example is concerned with cognitive ability, which is influenced by education level. When participants from different cultural groups are disparate on education level, the cross-cultural comparison is likely to suffer from sample bias.

The second type of method bias is caused by the differential research conditions and procedures across cultures (administration bias). For example, physical conditions (home or meeting room) may influence interviewees' willingness to reveal their true feelings.

Third, method bias can also result from characteristics of measurement instruments (instrument bias). Stimulus familiarity, response style, and response procedures associated with a measurement are common sources of instrument bias. For example, Hispanics are more likely to choose extreme scores on a five-point scale than European Americans, which can lead to a biased cross-cultural comparison (Hui and Triandis 1989). Item bias or differential item functioning may exist (Holland and Wainer 1993), which is frequently caused by poor translation of scale items, ambiguities in scale items, low familiarity/appropriateness of some scale items in certain cultures, or influence of cultural specifics such as connotations associated with the wording of some scale items in a given culture (van de Vijver and Leung 2011). For instance, the phrase "butterflies in the stomach" denotes a symptom of anxiety in English, but the same metaphor in Dutch ("Vlinders in je buik hebben") refers to a symptom that occurs when someone falls in love and carries an erotic connotation (van de Vijver and Tanzer 2004).

Equivalence has been traditionally treated from a measurement perspective and three types of hierarchically linked equivalence can be distinguished (Poortinga 1989; van de Vijver and Leung 1997). The first is structural equivalence or functional equivalence, which requires that the same construct is measured equivalently across all cultural groups. This type of equivalence is associated with an etic position and implies the universality of the construct. Structural inequivalence, in contrast, is associated with the emic, relativistic viewpoint. A similar factor structure is an indicator of structural equivalence, and so are similar relationships with different behaviors or characteristics across cultural groups. A construct shows functional equivalence if it displays a similar pattern of convergent and divergent validity across cultures (van de Vijver and Leung 1997).

The next level of equivalence is called metric or measurement unit equivalence. Metric equivalence can be obtained if two scales have the same units of measurement but a different origin. For example, Kelvin and Celsius scales for the measurement of temperature have the same unit of measurement, but their origins differ 273 degrees. Metric equivalence allows relative comparisons between cultural groups.

The highest level of equivalence is scalar or full score equivalence, which occurs when measures have the same measurement unit and the same origin across cultures. For example, when temperature is measured using a Celsius scale in both groups, scores obtained can be directly compared between the two groups. Unfortunately, while this type of equivalence is common in natural sciences, it is much less frequent in psychological measures, making direct comparison of different cultural groups difficult (van de Vijver and Leung 2011).

Bias and a lack of equivalence can significantly threaten the validity of results obtained from a cross-cultural comparison. Chen (2010) empirically examined the consequences of using an instrument imported from a foreign culture. When the factor loadings of the items of a predictor variable were higher in the culture of origin than in the borrowing culture, a predictive relationship based on this predictor variable was stronger in the original culture than in the borrowing culture. These results suggest that the items are not equivalent across the two cultures, and cross-cultural comparisons based on these items may be misleading.

A Priori Remedies for Inequivalence and Bias

There is an extensive literature on strategies to identify and deal with inequivalence and bias. A priori and a posteriori procedures can be applied, depending on whether they are based on how a study should be conducted (e.g., design and administration procedure) or on how data should be analyzed (van de Vijver and Leung 2011). A priori procedures are further distinguished on the basis of the type of bias they address (e.g., construct, method, or item bias). The use of informants with a thorough knowledge of the local culture and language can reduce the use of biased constructs. A powerful tool for minimizing construct bias is cultural decentering (Werner and Campbell 1970). The appropriateness of item content is maximized for all cultural groups by removing cultural particulars. For instance, in the construction of the Social Axioms Survey, effort was made to eliminate expressions that are hard to translate into other languages (Leung et al. 2012). Decentering is widely used in large-scale projects in which researchers from all participating countries jointly develop the instruments to tap the constructs (e.g., the GLOBE project: House et al. 2002). More examples can be found in the International Social Survey Program (http://www.issp.org) and the European Social Survey Program (http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org). Another approach to deal with construct bias is the convergence approach, in which instruments are independently developed in different cultures and administered to participants in all cultures (van de Vijver and Leung 1997). If convergent results are obtained despite the use of instruments developed in different cultural contexts, bias is unlikely to be severe.

There are strategies that mainly focus on addressing method bias. One example is the provision of extensive training to research administers and interviewers from different cultures, so that a study can be conducted in the same way across different cultures. The development of a detailed manual that describes the procedures involved is useful, especially if a contingency plan on how to intervene when unusual problems occur is included. A different approach to control for method bias is to include covariates to reduce the influence of confounding variables, such as education level. For example, education background can be a confounding variable in cross-cultural comparison of creativity. If two cultural groups differ in education level, a cultural difference in test scores of creativity may reflect educational differences rather than cultural differences. Measuring these variables allows researchers to statistically check their influence in a covariance or regression analysis (Poortinga and van de vdver 1987). Cultural differences can be assessed after the influence of these confounding variables is taken into account. Because response styles, such as social desirability, acquiescence, and extremity, are important sources of method bias, their influence needs to be assessed to ensure that cross-cultural results are not biased. Including a measure of social desirability can provide information about its influence on the results obtained. Response patterns can be examined to look for evidence of the existence of acquiescence and extremity tendencies, which may bias cross-cultural results obtained. Item bias can be reduced by a careful scrutiny of the potential cross-cultural variation in the meaning of items from a linguistic or psychological perspective. An example of a linguistic approach is given by Grill and Bartel (1977), who found that in the Grammatic Closure subtest of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, more than half of the errors on these items were appropriate in nonstandard English. These errors may not reflect lower proficiency in English for minority group members who regard nonstandard English as acceptable. This source of item bias can be avoided by engaging linguistic experts to screen items that may exhibit this bias.

A Posteriori Procedures for Assessing and Mitigating Bias

A posteriori procedures are statistical in nature and mainly address the question of whether measurement equivalence exists or not. Three techniques are commonly used for diverse purposes. The first is exploratory factor analysis, which is often used to test structural equivalence. The procedure requires a factor analysis for each culture independently, and structural equivalence is supported if the factor structure identified is similar across cultures. The strength of this approach is its simplicity, but it is limited in its flexibility as its focus is on factor structure only.

The second procedure is based on confirmatory factor analysis, a more flexible analysis that can address all levels of equivalence or invariance. The test of configural invariance examines whether the pattern of the factors is similar across cultures. The test of metric equivalence answers the question of whether factor loadings are invariant across cultures. Scalar invariance, which allows the comparison of scale means across cultures, can be evaluated by examining the intercept associated with

a latent factor across cultures. For a review of the assessment of cross-cultural invariance by confirmatory factor analysis, see Vandenberg and Lance (2000). The advantage of using confirmatory factor analysis is that it can evaluate different types of invariance in a hierarchically nested model. However, it shares the common problems associated with the application of structural equation modeling, including the sensitivity toward sample size of the chi-square statistic for assessing model fit, and the lack of objective cutoff values for fit indexes.

A variety of statistical techniques have been proposed to deal with item bias. Analysis of variance is flexible and easy to implement. The sample is split into several score levels based on the total score on all the items. An analysis of variance is computed for each item with score level and country as independent variables and the item score as the dependent variable. An item is unbiased if the score level by country interaction is not significant. A more sophisticated approach is the item response theory, which can identify biased items with a statistically more rigorous procedure. Item response theory stipulates a nonlinear monotonic function or an item response function to describe the relation between a respondent's standing on a latent variable and the observed response (Lord 1980).

Unpackaging Culture

In its earlier stage, cross-cultural research was characterized by efforts to document cultural similarities and differences across cultural groups. Although this research provides the basis for subsequent theory development, the field has moved beyond this initial stage and shifted attention from exploring differences to explaining differences (Bond and van de Vijver 2011). Culture needs to be unpackaged to identify the specific element that produces the cultural difference observed. Another way to put it is that when we identify the cultural element responsible for a cultural difference, we can effectively make culture "disappear" by taking into account the cultural difference on this element. For example, Lam et al. (2005) found that cultural differences in affective forecasting—a tendency to overestimate the emotional consequence of future events—disappeared after cultural differences in focal thinking were taken into account. This result showed that the observed cultural differences in affective forecasting were due to cross-cultural differences in focal thinking, and that individuals from different cultural backgrounds with the same standing on focal thinking would be similar in their affective forecasting. This unpackaging approach was once typically done with an analysis of covariance with the explanatory variables as covariates and country as an independent variable. Regression analysis is now a more popular strategy, with the explanatory variables and country as predictors. For example, in Singelis et al. (1999) study, independent and interdependent self-construals were found to account for most of the variance in embarrassability across ethnic groups. The observed difference in embarrassability across ethnic groups disappeared after self-construals were included in a regression model. Similarly, Shen et al. (2011) "unpackaged" the cultural phenomenon that Asians are more likely than North Americans to refuse a small gift from a casual acquaintance

by examining the underlying feelings induced by reciprocity norm. Because Asians tend to avoid the feelings of indebtedness experienced if they cannot reciprocate a favor, they prefer to reject small gifts from casual acquaintances. The mediation analyses indicated that when these feelings were introduced as a mediator, the effect of culture was reduced to nonsignificance.

Strategies for Strengthening Causal Inferences in Cross-cultural Research

Cross-cultural research is non-experimental and correlational by nature, because researchers cannot randomly assign participants to a culture. In a true experiment, a random assignment ensures that confounding variables are equated across experimental conditions, so that the threats of alternative explanations are minimized. Cross-cultural research falls in the category of quasi-experimental research, and drawing causal inferences in this type of research is very difficult.

Recently, Leung and van de Vijver (2008) borrowed from evolutionary biology and epidemiology and introduced the consilience approach to strengthen the validity of cross-cultural causal inferences. The idea behind this approach is the integrated use of evidence from diverse sources to buttress causal arguments in the absence of experimental data. Four kinds of consilience are required for stronger causal inferences in cross-cultural research. Contextual consilience requires that diverse evidence is collected from a wide range of cultural contexts. Methodological consilience requires the demonstration of a causal relationship with diverse methods, such as surveys, experiments, and longitudinal studies. Predictive consilience is achieved when diverse predictions based on a causal theory are evaluated and confirmed. Exclusive consilience requires that no alternative explanation is able to account for an effect except the proposed causal explanation. The highest level of consilience is achieved if all four kinds of evidence are available. The gist of this approach is that causal inferences in cross-cultural research are most convincing when supported by diverse evidence based on a sound theoretical basis, multiple sources of data, different research methods, and explicit refutation of alternative interpretations (for detail, see Leung and van de Vijver 2008).

Three broad strategies are further proposed under the consilience framework, including the systematic contrast of cultural groups, the inclusion of covariates to rule out alternative explanations, and the use of multiple research methods, such as cross-cultural experimentation. Some of the strategies coincide with the methods for dealing with inequivalence and bias mentioned earlier. Systematic contrast primarily aims at contextual and predictive consilience by a strategic choice of diverse cultural contexts. According to the number of cultural groups involved, this strategy can be further divided into the multiple contrast strategy and the temporal contrast strategy. In the multiple contrast strategy, three or more cultural groups that represent low, moderate, and high values on a relevant cultural dimension are sampled. The key is whether the expected cross-cultural difference emerges in the anticipated order. The availability of at least three cultural groups reduces the interpretational

ambiguity associated with two-group comparisons and strengthens the ecological validity of the results. The temporal contrast strategy resembles a time-series study in many ways. A single group is studied over time and the temporal change of a focal cultural characteristic of this group is related to the change of a dependent variable. The major strength of this strategy is that the use of a single group or similar cohort groups alleviates the validity threats associated with nonequivalence. Again, if the effect of culture is controlled for statistically, the observed cultural difference should disappear. In this regard, this strategy resembles the "unpackaging culture" approach discussed earlier.

The covariate strategy primarily aims at exclusive consilience and relies on the measurement of confounding variables and the use of statistical techniques to rule out rival hypotheses. In the simple covariate approach, culture is conceptualized and measured as an individual difference that is expected to be responsible for an observed cultural difference. A good example is provided by Earley (1989), who found that when collectivism–individualism of participants was included as a covariate, the difference in social loafing between Americans and Chinese disappeared. In complex covariates, variables based on alternative hypotheses are included together with a cultural variable hypothesized to be the cause of a cultural difference. For example, Chen et al. (1998) evaluated several facets of individualism–collectivism, and identified collective primacy as the only variable that was able to explain the cultural difference observed in in-group favoritism.

A multimethod strategy aims at methodological and predictive consilience and involves the employment of diverse research methods. Two novel developments under this type of strategy are multiple dependent variables and experimental strategy. As different dependent variables may be associated with different confounding variables, a consistent pattern observed across multiple dependent variables excludes the possibility that one single confounding variable causes the observed differences across the variables. The central idea behind experimental strategy is that the effect of culture can be demonstrated by experimentally creating a specific situation for a predicted cultural effect to emerge. For example, to demonstrate a "culture of honor" prevalent in the south of the USA, Cohen et al. (1996) designed an experiment in which a participant was insulted by a confederate. The results showed that Southerners were more likely to feel a threat to their masculine reputation and show more anger as compared to Northerners. In general, experimental strategy first identifies a cultural construct as the cause of a cultural difference. An experiment is then designed to show that variation in this element shows an effect on a dependent variable.

Multilevel Modeling

Two levels can be distinguished in cross-cultural research, culture and individual, and individuals are nested within their cultures. The multilevel approach has implications for both the conceptualization of research questions and the way in which data are analyzed in cross-cultural research (Fontaine 2008; Li et al. 2012). Five

fundamental characteristics can be identified in multilevel modeling (Hox 2010). First, different levels of analysis are differentiated, such as culture and individual. Second, the levels are hierarchically ordered. Third, each level is treated as a population on its own from which a random sample is drawn in a multistage sampling procedure. Fourth, relationships are analyzed at each of the hierarchically ordered levels. Finally, interaction effects can be investigated between the hierarchically ordered levels of analysis, known as cross-level interaction effects. Among the multilevel approaches, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) is perhaps most popular. For instance, using data including over 100,000 employees nested in 49 cultures, Huang and Van de Vilert (2003) tested whether country-level characteristics (i.e., national wealth, social security, cultural individualism, and cultural power distance) played a moderating role in the relationships between job characteristics and job satisfaction at the individual level. Similarly, Bond et al. (2012) analyzed the World Values Survey and explored the impact of national context on the strength of the relationships of values and religious engagement with life satisfaction.

Another powerful, but less popular technique is multilevel structural equation modeling (MLSEM), which is especially useful when a large number of cultural groups are considered. The primary difference between MLSEM and multilevel regression modeling (e.g., HLM) is that the variables being assessed and modeled in MLSEM are latent constructs with multiple indicators, so that measurement errors are considered (Selig et al. 2008). Recently, Preacher and his colleagues have developed several general MLSEM frameworks implemented with Mplus, making this technique more user-friendly (e.g., Preacher et al. 2011, 2010). An application of this procedure is provided by Oishi et al. (2012), who found that taxation predicted satisfaction with public good, which, in turn, predicted subjective well-being. An important feature of MLSEM is that it partitions variances into within-group and between-group components. For example, using MLSEM to decompose the variance of an individual-level measure of sexism into within-level and between-level components, Brandt (2011) demonstrated that individuals' sexism exacerbated inequality in the gender hierarchy within their society across 57 societies.

Intercultural Research

The previous materials assume a comparative perspective and offer guidelines for comparing members from different cultures. In contrast, intercultural research is concerned with the interaction of people with different cultural backgrounds. Knowledge about cultural similarities and differences helps us understand how people with different cultural backgrounds interact, but additional theoretical frameworks are needed to provide a full account of intercultural interaction because the contact involved gives rise to dynamics unique to this setting. In addition, there are unique methodological issues associated with the intercultural nature of the context. We first discuss the central theoretical issues involved in intercultural research, followed by a discussion of the major methodological issues involved.

Theoretical Issues in Intercultural Research

As in cross-cultural research, an in-depth theoretical analysis is important for intercultural research. Theoretical development in intercultural research is in an early stage, and we identify two major theoretical perspectives, i.e., individual difference and intergroup dynamics, for studying the processes and outcomes of intercultural interaction.

A dominant perspective on intercultural research is the individual difference perspective. Many types of individual differences can influence how an individual interacts with others from different cultures in the globalizing work environment. In the literature on expatriates, Black et al. (1991) suggested that self-efficacy and relational skills have a positive impact on expatriate adjustment. People who believe in their own competencies persist in exhibiting newly learned behaviors even if they receive negative feedback, and the resulting learning can improve their adjustment to a new culture. People with good relational skills are equipped with a variety of tools and techniques that facilitate the formation of interpersonal ties in a foreign culture. Through these ties, expatriates gain useful information and feedback from members of the host culture and find out what is acceptable and what is not (Black et al., 1991). Indeed, across two meta-analyses on expatriate adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. 2005; Hechanova et al. 2003), self-efficacy is related to both work and interaction adjustments, and relational skills are positively related to general adjustment. The relationships between the Big Five personality dimensions and expatriate job performance have also been investigated. A meta-analysis shows that extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are predictive of expatriate job performance, but surprisingly openness is not (Mol et al. 2005).

Some context-specific predictors can explain additional variance in the context of expatriate adjustment. For example, Mol et al. (2005) found that cultural sensitivity—"an individual's ability to develop a positive emotion toward understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication" (Chen and Starosta 1997, p. 7)—had a relatively strong and positive relationship with job performance. Constructs tapping capabilities for intercultural effectiveness have been proposed. Based on theories of intelligence (Sternberg 1986), Earley and Ang (2003) developed the construct of cultural intelligence (CQ), which refers to "an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings" (Ang et al. 2007, p. 336). CQ has four dimensions (Ang and Van Dyne 2008): (1) metacognitive CQ—mental processes for acquiring and understanding cultural knowledge; (2) cognitive CQ—general knowledge and knowledge structures about culture; (3) motivational CQ—the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in intercultural situations; and (4) behavioral CQ—the capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions in intercultural interactions. Some empirical evidence has demonstrated that the framework of CQ provides a novel and useful perspective on the dynamics involved in effective intercultural interactions. For example, metacognitive CQ and cognitive CQ are related to cultural judgment and decision making; motivational CQ and behavioral CQ are related to cultural

adaptation; and metacognitive CQ and behavioral CQ are related to task performance (Ang et al. 2007).

The notion of global mindset has been proposed to be a key construct for global leadership development and success (Black and Gregersen 2000; Kedia and Mukherji 1999; Oddou et al. 2000; Pucik and Saba 1998). Quite a number of frameworks for global mindset have been proposed, ranging from skills, attitudes, and competencies, to behaviors, strategies, and practices (Levy et al. 2007). Based on a review of the various frameworks, Levy et al. have identified three different perspectives—cultural, strategic, and a combination of the two. The cultural perspective holds that managers constantly face the challenge of overcoming the ethnocentric mindset in managing culturally diverse relationships. The strategic perspective conceptualizes the global mindset in terms of the increased complexity created by globalization and emphasizes the importance of cognitive complexity. Finally, the multidimensional perspective integrates the cultural and strategic perspectives. Based on the review, Levy et al. defined global mindset as "a highly complex cognitive structure characterized by an openness to and articulation of multiple cultural and strategic realities on both global and local levels, and the cognitive ability to mediate and integrate across this multiplicity" (p. 244). While the importance of global mindset for global leadership effectiveness seems obvious, very little empirical research has been conducted and the results are mixed (e.g., Harverston et al. 2000; Kobrin 1994; Levy 2005; Nummela et al. 2004).

Another dominant theoretical perspective for intercultural research is based on intergroup dynamics. A key finding of research on intergroup relations, prejudice, and discrimination is the prevalence of in-group favoritism—the tendency for group members to evaluate their in-group more favorably than the out-groups. According to the social identity theory (Mackie and Goethals 1987; Tajfel and Turner 1986), people achieve a positive self-image by showing in-group favoritism. In the context of intercultural encounters, in-group favoritism may lead to discrimination, ethnocentrism, and even wars and genocide. Efferson et al. (2008) suggested that in-group favoritism does not arise from a shared set of beliefs, behavioral norms, and behavioral expectations, but instead come from symbolic markers that contribute to in-group cohesiveness. In a series of experiments, they found that arbitrary symbolic markers, although meaningless initially, evolved to play a key role in cultural group formation and in-group favoritism because they enabled a population of heterogeneous individuals to solve important coordination problems.

Characteristics of cultural groups can influence intergroup dynamics, and a key characteristic is differences in group power or status. A variety of theories, such as group position approach (Blumer 1958; Bobo 1999), realistic group conflict theory (Sherif 1966), social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979), and social dominance theory (Sidanius and Pratto 1999), all suggest that membership in an advantaged vs. a disadvantaged group can motivate individuals to either sustain or change the existing social hierarchy. In particular, members in disadvantaged groups are more motivated to change the status quo than members in advantaged groups are. Thus, the relative status of two cultural groups can influence how members of these two groups interact.

Finally, much research has been devoted to cultural diversity in teams. In a recent meta-analysis of research on multicultural work groups, Stahl et al. (2009) examined similarity—attraction theory, social identity theory and social categorization theory (Tajfel 1982), as well as information-processing theory, and concluded that cultural diversity is likely to increase divergent processes and decrease convergent processes. That is, cultural diversity tends to increase creativity and conflict, and decrease effective communication, satisfaction, and social integration. Moreover, such effects should be stronger for deep-level cultural diversity, such as differences in values, than for surface-level cultural diversity, such as race and ethnicity. What is less known is the conditions in which the positive effects of cultural diversity are elevated, and the negative effects suppressed.

Methodological Issues in Intercultural Research

In addition to the methodological issues relevant for cross-cultural research, there are a number of concerns unique to intercultural research. Identity issues are particularly salient in this type of research, and the implications of the procedure and design of a study for the cultural identity of the participants studied may affect the results obtained. For instance, the use of a foreign language may trigger a tendency to affirm one's cultural identity (Bond and Yang 1982). The cultural/national identity of the researcher may exert confounding influence on the intercultural processes observed. In addition, the implications of the procedure and design of a study on the relative status of the cultural groups studied may also bias the results obtained. Members of a subordinate group may resent a study in which their subordinate status is highlighted, resulting in biased responses on their part.

Several major research areas can be identified in intercultural research, and each area involves some unique methodological issues. First, research on acculturation, i.e., how an individual adapts to life in a host culture, has been a major topic in the past decades. Researchers focus on the nature, causes, and consequences of the mutual accommodation of migrant and receiving groups. One major methodological issue in this line of research is the measurement of people's attitudes toward adopting the culture of the host society. How acculturation preferences should be measured is controversial (Brown and Zagefka 2011), and asking people how much they desire contact with members of the host culture and how much they wish to adopt the host culture can result in very different answers (Berry and Colette 2008). Another methodological issue in this research area is the possibility of longitudinal designs, as immigrants can be studied over a relatively long period of time to evaluate how contact with the host culture has changed their values, beliefs, and norms.

Second, intercultural negotiation has a relatively long history, and a major methodological feature of this research area is experimentation. Intercultural negotiation researchers often use laboratory simulations to probe the negotiating processes involved, and the context is simplified to its bare features to avoid interpretative ambiguity (Kramer 2004). Although such an approach provides strong evidence for causal claims, the external validity of the findings is often questioned. Recently,

a number of negotiation scholars (e.g., De Dreu and Carnevale 2005; Druckman 2005; Hopmann 2002; Moore and Murnighan 1999) call for the combination of diverse methods, which is similar to methodological consilence discussed before. Much progress has been made along this direction, and diverse research methods have been adopted, including experimental methods, qualitative approaches, and surveys (Buelens et al. 2008). This research area provides a good illustration of the utility of methodological diversity.

Finally, culturally diverse teams represent a special form of intercultural interaction that has received a great deal of attention (Stahl et al., 2009). More recently, globally distributed virtual teamwork has become popular in organizations, and research has also focused on this special type of culturally diverse teams. For global virtual teams, team performance is not only affected by the typical antecedent variables related to team processes, geographic dispersion, and cultural diversity, but also by the degree of virtuality such as the type of communication and media tools used (Leung and Peterson 2011). The information and computer technology deployed can interact with culture to influence team processes and outcomes. A major methodological issue in this research area is how to capture the effect of the cultural configuration of a team, which is rarely touched upon in intercultural research. For instance, a team composed of three extreme individualists and three extreme collectivists is probably quite different from a team composed of three modest individualists and three modest collectivists, although the average individualism–collectivism level of the two teams is similar. Research on the cultural configuration of culturally diverse teams is rare, and much is needed to be done to develop effective research methods to explore its effects.

Conclusion

The world is becoming a global village. In this chapter, we highlight the major theoretical and methodological issues in cross-cultural as well as intercultural research. We need knowledge about how cultures are different from each other, but we also need to know the major issues that confront the interaction of members from different cultural groups (Gelfand et al. 2007). We describe the key issues essential for conducting cross-cultural and intercultural research in the chapter, and interested readers are encouraged to consult more detailed sources for a deeper understanding of the issues that they find interesting.

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Chapter 14
Doing Research in International Organizations

Allen I. Kraut

The purpose of this chapter is to help researchers in international settings to do a better job of conducting effective research. The information and anecdotes presented here are based on the assumption that the reader is already attuned to doing research in his or her own country and understands best practices in methodology. Rather than focusing on *what to do* (as might be found in a methodology chapter), this chapter is primarily concerned with the *process* of doing research in organizations that go beyond one's own national boundaries. It is aimed at the reader who will be leading an international research effort or perhaps collaborating in such efforts.

Based on my experience and the work of others, I believe that doing research in international organizations is different from working in one's own country, primarily due to *culture* and *communications*. So those are the two areas on which I will focus and aim to provide illustrative examples, relevant research, and useful references and instructional materials. Starting with the topic of culture, we will present a useful way to think about cultural dimensions and demonstrate how they may impact research efforts. From there, we consider attempts to describe clusters of countries with similar cultures and how research efforts may differ across these clusters.

I will also consider the arguments that cultures around the world are converging and discuss the forces that have powerful impacts on national cultures and the organizations which operate in them. Note is taken of organizational cultures (aside from their national cultures) and we conclude by citing some sources that can be used by faculty, students, and practitioners to gain worthwhile information about various countries.

The chapter then moves to a consideration of communications issues in conducting international research and methods to cope with these challenges at both the personal and project levels. We will then present examples from three international efforts that illustrate how researchers experienced, managed, and overcame

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problems in conducting international research. These examples cover several areas connected to the science and practice of industrial and organizational (I–O) psychology including international employee opinion surveys, the design and implementation of global selection systems, and the installation of new human resources (HR) management systems.

Culture

Culture has been defined as the shared ways of thinking, feeling, and acting that members of a group have in common (Schein 1992). Although we note company cultures, in our discussion we are interested primarily in national cultures.

It is worth remarking that most members of a group take their own culture for granted. As an analogy, it is said that a fish is the last to notice water. They just take it for granted. (Some resources to improve cultural awareness are suggested in the Appendix to this chapter.)

Broad and thoughtful studies of culture have been conducted by scholars in our field, and several are especially valuable to I–O psychologists. These studies would include the work by Hofstede (1980, 2001), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012), the GLOBE studies by House et al. (2004), Schwartz (1999, 2011), and the work of Ronen and Shenkar (1985). We will now review what these leading studies teach us about doing research more effectively in international organizations.

Cultural Dimensions and Their Impact on Research

Let us start with some of the earliest work in cultural dimensions, that done by Geert Hofstede (1980, 2001). In my view, it is the most straightforward and the most useful framework.[1] In addition, his original work has been replicated and extended by others, as noted above. I find the most readable version of his findings is *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005).[2] After studying worldwide samples of IBM employees in 74 countries, Hofstede proposed five major dimensions of culture. Two of the cultural dimensions, power distance and collectivism (versus individualism), are particularly relevant to doing research in an international organization, and we will discuss them first.

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[1] In the spirit of full disclosure, I note that Geert Hofstede was a close colleague at IBM while collecting his initial survey data.

[2] An expanded version of this book has since been published (Hofstede et al. 2010). It adds a sixth dimension, they call Indulgent–Restraining. It is based on a society's tendency to allow people to gratify their desires for happiness. This dimension is quite similar to the notion of loose or tight cultures, as described recently in the research of Gelfand et al. (2011).

Power Distance Index

Power distance is the cultural dimension which describes the extent to which people see and accept differences in society between people, especially between high-status and low-status individuals. Differences on the dimension indicate the acceptance of hierarchy and inequality in a society. A low *power distance index* (PDI) culture is one where there are few status differences between people, and society is generally egalitarian. Let us look at some examples of how the PDI dimension would impact a researcher working in an international setting.

In a recent talk describing a global employee survey project, the speaker described the Danes as "brutally honest" (Johnson 2011). To anyone familiar with Hofstede's work, this fact would be no surprise. The Danes rank 72nd out of 74 nations studied on power distance. This is quite low. They are neither willing nor accustomed to large status differences, and therefore, they are likely to speak out frankly on personal and work-related conversations when they have a different viewpoint. I have had similar interactions with Dutch and German colleagues. The Dutch rank 61th of 74 on PDI and the Germans 70th of 74, so these low ranks on PDI may also explain some of my own impressions.

Another example of the importance of power distance is noted in a recent book, *Startup Nation: the story of Israel's economic miracle* (Senor and Singer 2009). Although the authors do not note that Israel is ranked 73rd out of 74 on the Hofstede's PDI, they do describe a land where formal rank means little. In a country where all men almost serve in the reserve armed forces, an army commander is quoted as saying "rank is almost meaningless in the reserves." A private will tell a general in an exercise "what you are doing is wrong, you should do it this way" (p. 50). These attitudes and behaviors extend to the industrial arena, so that argumentation and pushback is common. The authors see these tendencies as one of the secrets for entrepreneurial success.

International researchers who run into such straightforward feedback on their projects may initially be upset and dismayed. They may even feel (or accuse) the provider of the feedback of acting inappropriately, of being hostile, and trying to undermine the project. It is often more accurate and useful to recognize that such behavior is based on an expected cultural difference. These mismatches of behavioral expectations based on cultural differences may occur at many points in a project's life, including initial proposals, brainstorming new possibilities, project reviews, and even writing up of the final results.

The risks for an international researcher may depend partly on his or her own national PDI. (According to Hofstede's data, the USA is a moderately low PDI country, ranking 58th of 74.) Being open to feedback can be critical if the research study is flawed. Defects are best fixed early if good research is desired, even if it is painful to learn about defects one had not recognized. When faced with a Danish partner or client, the researcher may get more direct criticism than expected and feel upset. This may be especially true not only in a face-to-face situation but also when a written document such as a proposal or a journal submission is the subject of negative feedback. When faced with a colleague in a high PDI country,

the high-status researcher should expect the colleague to be reluctant to point out any flaws in the study or process that the researcher may want to know about. The researcher may have to take extra steps to tease out negative reactions that would otherwise be held back.

When global research teams have a mix of high and low PDI team members, the lead researchers should use processes that take account of different cultural expectations about appropriate behavior. These processes involve building norms of open and frank communications, where questions and concerns are treated seriously and with respect. In general, one's first reaction to unfavorable opinions may be to attribute them wrongly to personal or individual "styles" (or imperfections). Researchers getting strong negative statements from outspoken, low PDI, members should recognize that different cultural assumptions may be a key factor. Of course, negative comments may be right on target, even if unwelcome or unexpected. The researcher might also gain a balanced perspective by asking others in the international work team for their opinions and reaction. Going further to get feedback, lead researchers may need to stimulate or ask for indirect (even unidentified) written comments from more reserved, high PDI, members to get their unvarnished thoughts.

A chilling example of PDI's impact on group performance is found in Malcolm Gladwell's book *Outliers: the story of success* (2008). Highlighting research by psychologists Helmreich and Merritt (2000), Gladwell presents a convincing case on the role of power distance in fatal airplane crashes. On high PDI national airlines, the reluctance of subordinates in a cockpit to tell the airplane captain about problems that he may have overlooked is responsible for disastrous consequences. Gladwell describes a study of the PDI among pilots around the world that found that "the ranking of plane crashes by country … matchup very closely" to the PDI of the pilots' home countries. (Gladwell, p. 209).

Collectivism (Versus Individualism)

Another global dimension described by Hofstede is that of individualism as opposed to collectivism. This value refers to the society-wide tendency to consider self-interest in making a choice or decision versus taking into account the interests and feelings of others, especially those individuals in one's in-group, be it the family, coworkers, or company. In individualistic societies, people look out primarily for themselves. In collectivist societies, people are more concerned about the feelings, concerns, and interests of the groups to which they belong. In collectivist societies, for example, there may be a strong resistance to merit pay plans, because they differentiate individuals, or to performance appraisals, because explicit feedback may undermine harmony. Public recognition of individual achievements in a global project may actually be embarrassing and unwelcome for those team members from collectivist countries.

The available data show strong contrasts between the extremely high individualism of the USA (and other Anglo-American countries) and the collective orientation

in most Asian nations. For example, while American researchers in an international situation may be predisposed to move quickly to the "task," individuals from collectivist societies will want to spend more time building personal relationships. In effect, one must first build trust, becoming part of their in-group.

For this and other reasons, international researchers should plan for work meetings to take longer than they might in their own country and plan to create processes that help team members to get to know one another. Using off-site locations for meetings, group dinners, visits to local tourist sites, and even bar-hopping may qualify as worthwhile events.

Of course, not all individuals in a collectivist society will be collectivist in their behavior. At the same time we are aware of societal differences, we need to be sensitive to unwarranted stereotypes. Within all societies, there will be substantial variation, especially for people who are broadly traveled, experienced, or educated. In the fast-growing economy of China, a collectivist society, many young professionals easily jump from job to job for personal advancement showing some dramatic changes in traditional behaviors at the individual level (Qinxuan et al. 2010).

Still, the cultural dimension of collectivism/individualism can have a big impact on international work projects, especially projects that are complex. An illustration of the effects of this cultural dimension upon decision making is found in a classic article by management guru Peter Drucker (1971). He contrasts the decision-making style of Japanese and American firms. The Japanese take an extraordinarily long time making a decision with endless meetings with varying sets of participants. In reality, this practice is an attempt to build a consensus early on by involving all those individuals and groups who will be carrying out the decision.

My own experience in Japan during the 1970s, conducting an international survey (and having been stationed there earlier with the US Army), confirms Drucker's insightful analysis. In advance of a final approval, multiple meetings with different sets of people were needed to ensure a communal comfort with the survey's timing, arrangements for translation, printing, distribution, data collection, analysis, and access to the results. These interactions were necessary for the Japanese staff to feel that everyone who would be involved was onboard and would be able to fulfill their agreement. The survey in Japan went off without a hitch.

In short, it takes far longer for Japanese companies to make a decision, but they have the benefit of implementing that decision almost immediately. By contrast, an American decision-maker may take it upon himself to decide on a major issue, and then spend months trying to sell it to others to get his decision implemented. American-based researchers who will work in collectivist nations must learn to become more patient than is their custom. Instead, they should be sure to ask local colleagues questions like "who else needs to be involved in this decision?" and "who are the appropriate people to help decide this?" Researchers in individualistic countries might also benefit from asking such questions to minimize delays in implementing decisions that were thought to be resolved.

A colleague who has worked in financial intergovernmental consortia and international organizations tells me that such a dynamic may account for the absolute need to lay out in advance of key meetings any major decisions to be taken and the

facts and reasoning behind them. (Such organizations may even need to provide documents translated into the official language of the institution that is involved.) If this pre-meeting step is not completed, delegates from high collectivist countries are likely to necessarily delay or block any move toward decisions because they need to confer with their colleagues before making a commitment that will be seen as acceptable and valid in their home country (S. Feder, personal communication July 3, 2012)

The "collectivists" need to cover all their bases in their home country for today as well as for their own career future. They are expected to conform to home country rules and procedures, especially for research which may have a direct or indirect impact on policy or resource commitments. My colleague gives as an example the specification or selection of data sets that will be used for comparative analysis of national performance. Also, he mentions the design of information systems needed to implement data collection and the security given to such data. Research that is related to a unit's reorganization raises many questions about "why" as well as related costs and benefits. Supposedly, straightforward issues of sampling and funding can be unexpectedly sensitive. This experience-based wisdom may also prove to be good advice for any I–O project involving people from such collectivist countries.

Masculinity–Femininity

On this cultural dimension, masculinity refers to the societal tendency to behave in an assertive, even combative way, as well as to acquire success and possessions. The opposite pole, femininity, refers to a far greater willingness to desire and foster good social relationships; such behavior in a project will manifest as a tendency to compromise and negotiate in dealing with conflicts. Scandinavian countries score particularly low on masculinity. People in these nations are more interested in building and keeping good interpersonal relationships and are more likely to strive for consensus. Researchers will find that their associates in feminine societies will more highly value social contacts, leisure opportunities, chances for mutual help, and working things through to mutual satisfaction. In discussions about project aims and timetables, for example, researchers in feminine societies will sense a genuine enthusiasm for collaboration rather than just pressing for one's own point of view as is more typical in masculine societies.

There may also be many more women in professional jobs than in masculine societies like Japan and Germany (notwithstanding German Prime Minister Angela Merkel), according to Hofstede. Thus, researchers likely will encounter more stereotypical male (in American eyes) views and styles of meeting behaviors in high masculine countries. In such cases, team members from masculine societies can be expected to push hard for their own views rather than try to understand and accommodate other team members.

Uncertainty Avoidance

This dimension refers to the tendency to accept ambiguity or prefer well-understood rules to determine one's behavior. In countries with a high Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), people will feel threatened or anxious about unclear or new situations. According to Hofstede, the Latin American and Latin European nations score high on UAI. Russia, Poland, and Japan also score high on UAI. Scandinavian countries as well as Great Britain and the USA are relatively low in UAI.

In high UAI countries, international researchers are more likely to be asked for specific work rules and protocols and, also, to get higher regard and acceptance of their expertise. Formalization is preferred over ambiguity. In low UAI countries, colleagues may chafe at too many rules, and will feel comfortable improvising, and dealing with ambiguity and unexpected events. In a study involving many nations, high UAI countries will welcome a detailed study plan. In low UAI nations, it may be felt as too specific. The life of the international researcher is not always easy!

Time Orientation

After Hofstede and his colleagues studied Asian nations they came to add a fifth dimension, that of Time Orientation. Unlike Anglo-American countries, most Asian nations put a high premium on long-term rewards. This value is manifested in an emphasis on education, thrift, and investment in long-term payoffs, such as growth in market share. This value also shows up in investments in long-term personal relationships. Assignments to task forces or research projects must take into account the assignees' views on the desirability for long-term networks and contacts, as a clue to their work motivation.

By contrast, in countries whose orientation is short term, people in an international work group are less likely to expect or desire long-term relations as an outcome. Relatively more focus will be put on the short-term benefits to their pay and careers, and visibility to superiors. These different motivations should be taken into account by the international researcher. At the end of a major project, people from short-term orientations may most appreciate a congratulatory letter to the person and/or his/her superior. Individuals from long-term orientation countries may also like this, but would put higher value on continuing contacts afforded by an e-mail address (or holiday greetings cards). A great way to end a project, valued by all in my experience, is a signed group photo/certificate with the name and dates of the project in a desk ornament. Both the memory and the display in one's office will be enjoyed.

Other, Similar Research

It may be worthwhile to briefly mention some prominent later studies of culture around the world. Most of their findings overlap with the dimensions we have just

reviewed. Hofstede's (1980) trail-blazing work was followed by other scholars doing a mammoth project known as GLOBE, an acronym for the "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness" research. The first comprehensive volume, *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (House et al. 2004) was based on results from about 17,300 middle managers from 951 organizations in the food processing, financial services, and telecommunications services industries. Chokar et al. (2007) produced a second major volume. It complements the findings from the first volume with national leadership studies to provide in-depth descriptions of culturally driven leadership. The authors describe nine cultural dimensions, which in many ways overlap with the earlier work done by Hofstede. Scholars who want to delve more deeply into the dimensions of culture will want to read some of the related work done by Inglehart (1997) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012)

Country Clusters: A Different World Map

Knowing how closely a country's culture is to another country's culture can greatly help in anticipating how easy or hard it will be to use your home country's practices in another setting. For international research, it may be even more useful to understand how countries might be grouped into sets with similar cultures. Instead of comparing the characteristics of several dozen countries, we can compare a smaller group of clusters of countries, each cluster being relatively homogeneous.

One of the first to do this with a large set of countries was Schwartz (1999, 2011), who used a set of seven value dimensions, based on a priori theoretical concepts. Not too surprisingly, they overlapped a great deal with Hofstede's five dimensions. Schwartz (2011) reports the results from a sample of 72 countries, surveying 55,000 school teachers and students, with which he was able to establish eight "transnational groupings."

Each grouping includes countries that are much more like one another than they are like countries in the other sets. Despite a few surprises, it seems a useful categorization, as shown in Fig. 14.1, where they are projected onto a two-dimensional space that approximates their cultural distance to one another. They are:

- Western Europe (including France and Germany)
- Baltic and East Central European countries (mostly Protestant and Catholic, like Latvia and Poland)
- Eastern European and Balkan (mostly Orthodox, like Russia and Bosnia)
- Latin American
- English-speaking, the Anglo-American group
- Southern and South East Asia (like Pakistan and the Philippines)
- Confucian (like China, Korea, and Thailand)
- Muslim Middle Eastern and Sub-Saharan Africa

Knowing these clusters can help in personnel assignments and individual development. Moving or working in another country in the same cluster (think Canada and

Fig. 14.1 Schwartz's cultural map of world regions groups the world by culture. (Adapted from Schwartz 2011)
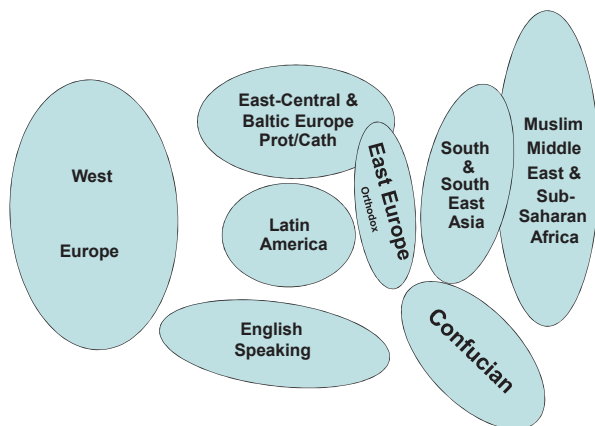
the USA) is much less of a stretch, but also less of an opportunity to see a different way of dealing with problems than would be a move to a country in a different cluster (think Canada and Bosnia). Of course, a big stretch may also equate to a much more difficult assignment.

These findings are helpful in understanding which countries are similar to one another in cultural values (including work values) and, therefore, may be similar in terms of working in them. For example, there is a clear-cut Anglo-American complex of nations, even though they may be geographically far apart. These nations include the USA, Canada, Britain, Australia, and South Africa. In many respects, all these countries are far removed in cultural aspects from Asian nations, and therefore, would require an understanding of the appropriate ways to work with people from countries in a different cluster. A global project may not need representatives from every nation, but perhaps every cluster ought to be represented. Knowing which clusters the team members come from may also help to anticipate and understand the interactions and challenges a team will face. Assignments to a research team may also be made with a person's learning and development in mind. Some countries will be a bigger "stretch" for a person than will be other countries.

Integrating Many Clustering Studies

Perhaps the most sophisticated picture of how countries are similar to one another overall has been shown by Ronen and Shenkar (2010). They reanalyzed data from Hofstede, GLOBE, Schwartz, and eight other major original cross-cultural studies. Each of these studies included 16–52 countries and resulted in as few as 6 to as many as 15 clusters by the original researchers when they tried to make cultural groupings. The median number of clusters was 11. Of course, each researcher had somewhat different countries in their sample, as well as different measures and sample sizes.
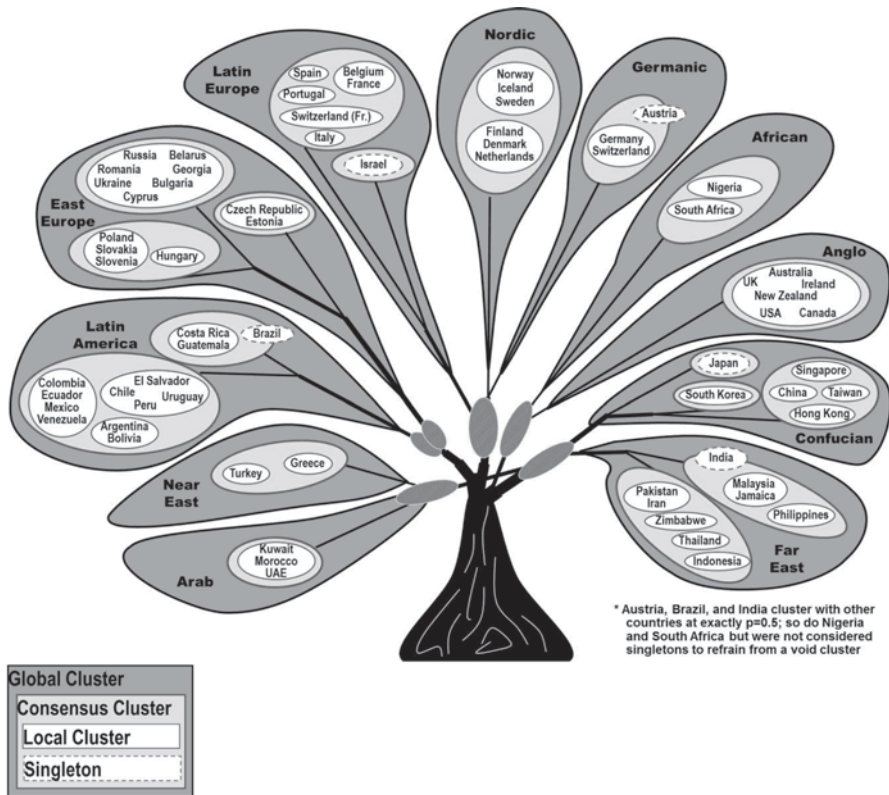
Fig. 14.2 Country clusters break down the globe into regions. (Reproduced from Ronen and Shenkar 2010)

Ronen and Shenkar used hierarchical cluster analysis to see what conclusions might be drawn from the existing body of published research about cultural groupings. They found 11 "global clusters" based on proportion scores showing that any two countries within that global cluster had previously clustered together in at least 25 % of the groupings in the original 11 studies in which both countries appeared. Within each "global" cluster were nested "consensus clusters" of countries that had been linked together in at least 50 % of the original studies. They also used a multiple dimensional scaling (MDS) analysis to confirm the 11 global groups and their closeness to one another.

These groups are shown in a chart (Fig. 14.2) designed as a tree. The 11 branches show all the countries in their combined studies and show the subdivisions ("consensus" clusters) within each branch. Unlike Schwartz's one grouping for all of Western Europe, Ronen and Shenkar, based on all 11 studies, split this European group into three sets: Romance, Germanic, and Nordic countries. Like Schwartz (and others), they found a few exceptions in some clusters. They label these as "Independents" (e.g., India, Brazil, or Israel) and put them in the global cluster they best fit.

Again, we can see how different methods of grouping may vary findings but still help us to identify culturally similar countries and to imagine how a researcher might have to change his or her native assumptions and working premises. For example, in assigning team members to subgroups, these clusters help one to see that a person from Singapore is likely to have cultural assumptions that are closer to a team member from Taiwan than to one from its geographically closer neighbor, the Philippines. The researcher might make assignment decisions differently at various points in a project. A premium might be put on promoting more harmony (say, in project execution) versus a desire to creatively use differing cultural perspectives (as in designing a project). In another situation, a conflict between two individuals from countries in the same cluster might be best interpreted as a genuine disagreement that is not based on a different cultural outlook.

Cultural Convergence, Divergence, and the DELTA Forces in Globalization

Some scholars argue that cultural differences are being reduced as travel and communications expand across the world (Leung et al. 2005). As globalization of commerce and knowledge expand, more people share the same or similar education, information, entertainment, and assumptions. To the extent this argument is true, we might expect growing similarity of cultures, at least among the elites in all countries. These individuals are the people most subject to influences from other nations. Yet, other scholars point to substantial cultural differences remaining steadfast (Ghemawat 2001).

The columnist Thomas Friedman captures this tension in his popular book *The Lexus and the Olive Tree* (1999). He contends that many of each country's elites, such as the people who design, sell, and buy luxury cars like the Lexus, are indeed more familiar and comfortable with the cultures of other nations. At the same time, there is a sizable group of nonelite traditionalists in every country tending and eating from their ancient "olive trees" who are not familiar or comfortable with changes in traditional ways of thinking and acting. Their cultural habits shift quite slowly, if at all.

Still, when we think about the rapid shifts in countries like China and India, with their recent increases in level of development, standards of living, and education, we have to wonder just how much old cultural habits remain unchanged. Although prior scholarly research on culture is a great starting point for doing successful research in international organizations, we must beware of rigid stereotypes. Cultural differences are real, but may also be changing, albeit slowly. Stereotypes would have us believe that all people in a given country think, feel, and act the same way, and that would be wrong. It is more prudent to assume a great deal of individual variation across modal cultural profiles. At an executive education class, I taught recently in Singapore, one young professional asked when all these studies on cultural differences were done. She felt the dimensions describing Singapore did not

represent her very well, and suspected that time had eroded their validity, at least for her. This possibility is all the more reason for a team leader who is meeting a cross-national research team for the first time to build in to the work process some ways for group members to get to know each other as individuals, so they do not fall back on cultural stereotypes. Some suitable "ice-breaking" possibilities will be suggested below when we discuss a global employee survey project.

The DELTA Forces

In understanding cultural changes, and even changes impacting a single country (and perhaps an organization), it is helpful to have a conceptual framework to consider the various environmental forces that create such a change. The DELTA approach to country assessment has been suggested by Kraut and Korman (1999). In calculus, the term "delta" refers to change. So it seems appropriate that the authors use this word as the basis for an acronym to understand the changing environment that countries (and even companies) deal with over time. A researcher starting to work with an unfamiliar nation can use this approach to understand the changing forces that impact HR strategies, policies, and practices as well as underlying cultural values. This list of forces is especially useful in helping us to prepare for research in fast-changing countries, such as China, Brazil, India, and Russia. The term includes the major headings shown here:

- **D**emographics refers to a nation's workforce as related to its birth rates, "baby booms," age distribution, gender of available workers, levels of education, as well as patterns of immigration and migration.
- **E**conomics includes degree of global competition, dominant sectors of the economy, wage rates, banking structure and availability of capital, and level of inflation.
- **L**egal and regulatory force includes laws for labor relations, minimum wage, and other employee benefits, laws on worker discharge and layoffs, civil rights, equal opportunity, and privacy laws. It also covers the impacts of government regulations.
- **T**echnology refers to changes and innovation in the means of communications, information technology, lasers and fiber optics, as well as medical and drug advances.
- **A**ttitudes and values would include attachments and loyalty to the organization, views on work, careers, organizational citizenship behaviors, and even balancing out work and family.

Differences in Organizational Cultures

Although our focus in this chapter is on national cultures, we should remind researchers that international organizations also have their own corporate cultures.

Cultural differences exist among various companies, even those rooted in the same country. In effect, these corporate cultures are superimposed on national cultures. Some of the differences researchers will have to cope with may be based on the particular industry. One can easily imagine the differences between innovative high-tech firms and those that are retail organizations or in the hospitality industry or firms with longer time horizons such as oil producers or utility firms. The interested reader should see Schein (1999) for a good overview of how researchers can diagnose and "survive" in such various settings.

We believe the DELTA forces can also influence international organizations to evolve (or be set up) into different forms. International organizations are not all the same. They may go through stages before becoming truly global organizations. Whether it is a corporation, a nonprofit (like the International Red Cross), or a nongovernmental organization (like the World Bank), different types of international organizations present different sources of authority and beliefs about how to operate in the organization. For the I–O researcher, each type of organization presents a different set of values and assumptions about influence and power during the research process.

According to Bartlett et al. (2004), companies that evolve beyond their home nation are of three *major* types:

- *International* organizations, which have a few major facilities overseas. Usually a first step, when a firm opens an operation overseas. Direction, initiatives as well as policy and practice are almost exclusively from the "home" country that may even call itself the "domestic" operation. Innovation and know-how come primarily from the home country.
- *Multinational* corporations, which have facilities in many different countries, and they are often clones of the home country operation. More attention is given to the demands of the local market. National subsidiaries are fairly autonomous and direction from the home country headquarters is much more general.
- *Transnational* companies are the type that the popular press and business media usually refer to as *global* companies. In these organizations, there is a strong pressure to integrate knowledge and innovation throughout the entire firm, usually with the idea of creating and providing products or services for a global market. Units in different countries help to develop and innovate, and share knowledge.

Communication

One of the truisms in international research is a need for the researcher to communicate fully and often with other team members, subjects, or employees, and clients. But national cultures may influence what works better in one country than another. Americans, in particular, should understand when communications may be indirect, as a matter of national or cultural assumptions. For example, in Asian cultures, people not wanting to be embarrassed (i.e., lose face) or to embarrass the listener

(i.e., cause the loss of face) may be reluctant to say "no" to a proposal with which they do not agree. Famously, Japanese will say "hai" which means "yes," in many conversations. When in many cases they mean only "yes, I have heard you," much as an American might say, "uh-huh." If asked a direct question, and the Japanese responds "maybe," that is very likely to really mean "no."

In some countries, notably the Anglo-American, communications are expressed directly and explicitly. The intent of the message is in the words, and commitments are made explicit, much as a contract might be. In others, notably Asian nations, the message is indirect and not expressed solely by the words. Such settings, where the message is not explicit, have been referred to as high-context cultures. (Anglo-American countries are "low-context" countries.) In the high-context setting, one has to read more clues, such as the stature of the people involved in the conversation, the relationships among them, and subtle clues based on the situation (Robbins and Judge 2010).

English is usually the language chosen for international meetings. As a result, it is often most people's second language and fosters the opportunity for misunderstanding. As a rule, a high-quality meeting should be planned to take a good bit longer for an international meeting, to ensure enough back-and-forth that understanding is achieved. Building in a process to check mutual understanding is critical.

There is no guarantee of accurate communications even with native English speakers, if they come from different nations. Winston Churchill once said that the USA and England were two nations divided by a common language. I have witnessed this issue of language several times. One example that stands out is the time that a contentious issue was being discussed, and I made a suggestion to table it. The British agreed and went on to discuss it. When I asked, "why are we continuing to talk about this item that we agreed to table," I learned that when the British use the term "to table an item" they mean that it should be put on the table for discussion. Americans typically mean that it should be taken off the table and not discussed at that time!

Useful communications provide the opportunity to get feedback and check that one understands. Two-way communication is critical, and it cannot usually be achieved by writing letters or e-mails that do not require a response. Such one-way communication can easily be misunderstood for matters beyond the routine or simple. Face-to-face meetings, at least in the early stages of a project, and two-way conversations are vital to assure correct and mutual understandings.

In meetings, reflective listening is also extremely important. (This is saying back in your own words what you understand the speaker has said.) Paraphrasing another's thoughts is a way to show one is listening and also to test the accuracy of understanding. Scribing key ideas on an easel chart or blackboard during a meeting is also a way to promote better understanding, as many nonnative speakers can read a language better than they speak it. In international communication, it is always better to check for understanding than to assume it.

At a meeting in Tokyo some years ago, I was reporting the results of assessment center research to a group of IBM Japan's HR managers, whom I was told all spoke some English. They were attentive and nodding when I decided to check their reaction. "What do you think of these findings?" I said. They continued to nod, while

saying nothing. I knew I was in trouble. I proceeded, but spoke more slowly and asked a Japanese colleague who was a fluent English speaker to occasionally translate what I said. The rest of the meeting went much better.

In international workshops, it can also be useful to actually simulate or practice a research task, such as filling out a questionnaire or conducting a practice interview. This method can illustrate a "lesson" and also reduce apprehension. There is an old Chinese maxim that is worth repeating. "To hear is to forget, to read is to remember, to do is to understand." This proverb normally applies to learning but could apply nearly as well to communications, especially in international settings.

As a personal approach to improving communications, I have found it helpful to learn some basic words in the language or country in which one is working. These words are usually the most popular and simple words for "please," "thank you," "good morning," and so on. A vocabulary of 50–100 words can help the researcher greatly in navigating through simple situations, and invariably they bring him or her some credit for trying to learn a bit of the local culture and language. Even being able just to say "hello" and "thank you" will help one to get off on the right foot.

Some Examples of International Research and Application

It may be useful now to present a few examples of I–O psychologists doing international research to illustrate how they experienced and dealt with the problems that can come up in such a work. We have selected three international efforts on topics common to the science and practice of I–O psychology. These efforts include employee opinion surveys, selection programs, and the improvement of HR management.

The International Employee Opinion Survey

The interaction of culture, language, and organization take place in many areas of I–O psychology. Perhaps nothing illustrates this phenomenon better than the case of the international opinion survey. There are quite a number of things that need to be done to conduct a good international opinion survey. The ordinary challenges of a large employee survey in just one country are greatly compounded when collecting data internationally. These challenges include the obvious tasks like having good translations and administrative procedures. However, there are many less obvious aspects like setting up a team with sufficient representation, building trust, using a timetable that takes account of local holidays and vacation periods, and knowing local and national laws on data privacy.

Johnson (1996) has written insightfully about the extraordinary level of planning and preparation to make an international project successful. For example, when the survey research is being conducted in several languages, it is critical that the translations are correct and are seen as valid. Meeting this requirement often involves the

iterative process of back translation as well as the involvement of local managers to gain acceptance for the survey content and the process of gathering and disseminating the results, including actions in response to the findings.

The organization's history must also be taken into account. Johnson notes that the survey may simply be a repeat of a survey started in a home country and copied overseas, or it may be the first in a global organization, or a cobbling together of different surveys that have emerged in various countries. As a result, the traditions, assumptions, professional expertise, management understanding and expectations for a survey, and even the infrastructure to conduct and use the survey will vary a great deal among an international team's members. Doing such a project for the first time, lead researchers must build in enough time and conversation to check everyone's assumptions, experience, and expectations in order for the project to go well.

More recently, Johnson (2011) has described how one does such a survey in a world of virtual connections. Her eloquent comments, based on extensive experience, underline the skills necessary to form and maintain a team to carry out the project. She recommends a face-to-face meeting to start, even if much of the later work is done electronically (e-mail, video-conferencing, and by telephone). While this is often costly, especially on an academic's budget, it is worthwhile to attempt it. One should attempt to build it into all international research budgets. Another possibility is to combine such meetings with international professional conferences or similar opportunities.

Throughout, the task is to build a capable and trusting group, who are clear about the mission and their part in it, and have all agreed upon a timetable and work norms. Such norms include when conference calls can be held, as one person's day will be another's night. Clear expectations are also helpful on issues like how many hours are permitted for a timely response, what ways are used to test and confirm agreements, frequency of meetings, and subproject deadlines.

The process of planning and conducting a virtual meeting can be complex. Figure 14.3 illustrates the basic steps in forming, developing, and maintaining a high performing team.

- Plan extensively before the actual meetings, with a clear agenda and a chance to comment on critical documents.
- Share personal information at the start of the meeting to begin building familiarity and trust within the team.
- Engage members and keep them involved during the meeting.
- At the end of the meeting, encourage posting action items and deadlines.
- Between meetings, use electronic postings and notes to keep up the energy.

Based on her experience, Johnson (2011) says the management of a successful global team must build on traditional team management and logistic skills, but it should also add the skills of managing a team that can communicate in a virtual (electronic) environment and, further, add the skills of managing a global team, which requires cultural intelligence (about language barriers and cultural backgrounds). Done properly, such team management gives members a chance to accomplish important work while also being challenged, learning from one another, building camaraderie, and having fun.
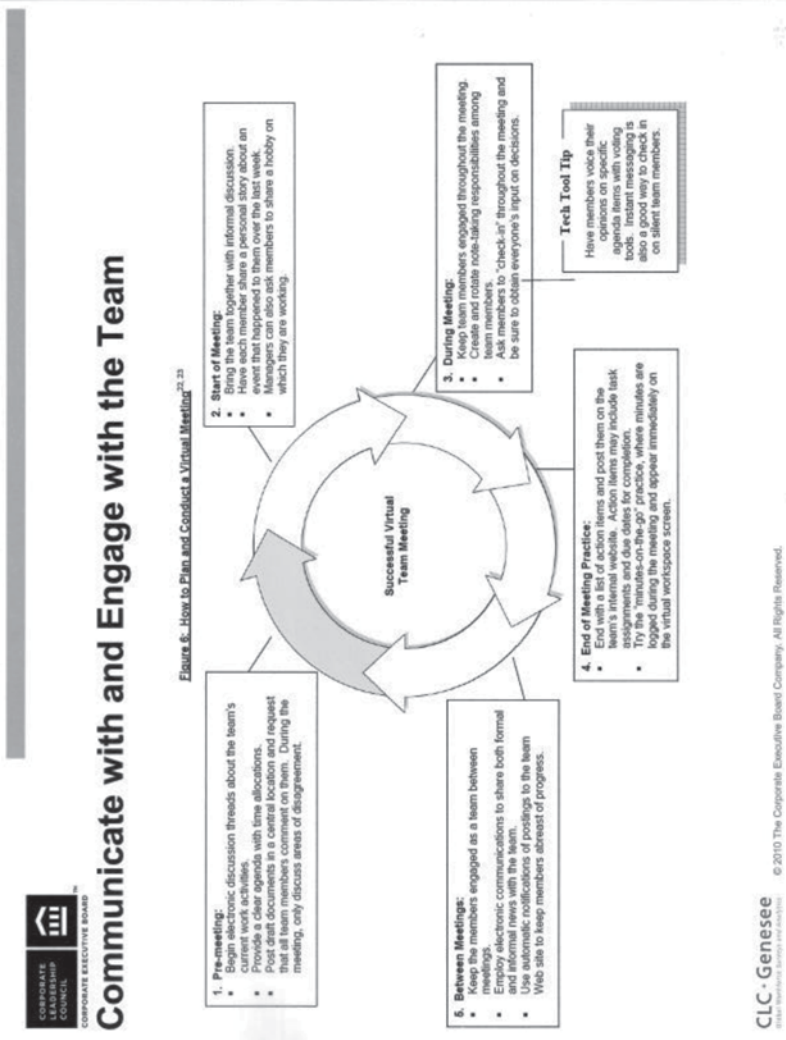
Fig. 14.3 Graphical representation of high performance team development. (Reproduced from Johnson 2011)

The International Selection Research

Ryan and Tippins (2009) have done an outstanding job of describing the challenges of installing a selection system that goes across national boundaries. Drawing upon their experience in many organizations, they lay out the vast array of challenges that may impact the I–O researcher working on selection in an international setting. These may range from selection processes developed by a local consultant for one country to another country that has never used selection tools. Potential employees in one country may be totally unfamiliar with a certain type of test and translations may neglect to use appropriate examples (such as the euro or the rupee rather than the US dollar). Worse yet is the possibility that a selection process may violate the laws of a particular country for proven validity or data privacy, or the firm may need to first negotiate with a union or legally required Works Council.

Ryan and Tippins cite many advantages to global selection systems, such as ensuring consistency in the quality of hiring, reducing costs through standardization, and encouraging strategic talent management globally. However, there are many barriers to be overcome. These include resistance to change based on supposed "cultural acceptability," which may merely disguise other feelings. In addition, employment laws may forbid certain testing approaches, and there may be discomfort or unfamiliarity with specific test formats. Global systems must also deal with inconsistency in test administration, such as when Internet-based platforms are not feasible. Poor translations and differences in workforce skill levels and labor markets are other sources of difficulty.

After noting, the characteristics of a good selection system, Ryan and Tippins point out that there are vast differences in the use of various selection tools in different countries. For example, countries like Australia, Canada, and others in the Anglo-American group often use employer references. By contrast, Germany, Greece, and Spain rarely do so. Spain, Belgium, and the Netherlands often use cognitive ability tests, while France and Germany rarely do so.

Cultural differences also have an impact. Applicants in high individualistic countries will be more comfortable than "collectivists" to point out their past achievements and will like selection devices that allow them to do so. Applicants from collectivist countries, by contrast, "… may focus on group accomplishments and have difficulty talking about their specific role" (Ryan and Tippins 2009, p. 72). Thus, the results from structured interviews may come across quite differently in one country than another, based on the national culture.

Many useful tips are provided for marketing selection processes internally across cultures. For example, Ryan and Tippins (2009, p. 79) suggest the following:

- Note how cultural values were considered in process design.
- Clearly describe the need for and the fairness of any differential treatment of applicants (e.g., adaptive testing, multiple hurdles).
- Discuss how friendship and family ties can play a role through referrals.
- Provide ample opportunities for input into system design.
- Communicate throughout the development process.

- Emphasize the importance of training of interviewers and administrators in cultural sensitivity.
- Show respect for traditions in discussing needs and rationale for change.

Their book on global selection systems includes a review of the laws and practices that cover selection in major countries around the world. It also includes a review of "best practices" in the design of global selection systems, with cautions about how such practices, usually American based, will play out in different countries. For example, they emphasize the importance of avoiding jargon, metaphors, and idioms, references to sports terms and cultural events that may be poorly understood in other countries. They also stress the need to pay attention to "best practices" in the *implementation* of such selection systems. Fortunately for us, they offer useful advice to I–O psychologists on how to achieve success in doing the research, development, and installation of selection systems in international organizations.

Installing an Effective Human Resources Management System

Many of I–O psychologists' major interests show up in the research and application of HR management systems. These include employee recruiting and selection, training and motivation, team formation, and leadership development. An illuminating and valuable illustration of such techniques in international organizations is provided by Luo et al. (2008) in their advice to guide an expatriate leader to success in China. While most of the guidance is restricted to moving into one country, their account illustrates the range of issues that are required in translating and developing successful practices to another nation (especially for an American leader).

The growing economy in China makes it harder to find qualified college graduates. So it is important to understand what such recruits like. Luo notes that multinational organizations, particularly Western companies, are highly desirable although companies with poor reputations are avoided. On the other hand, shift work is extremely unappealing, and relocating away from parents may be difficult. While health benefits are very important, there is a split in attitudes to performance-related compensation. Though nonmanagement workers seem to prefer group incentives, college graduates in China are happier to see their pay tied to their own performance, reflecting a shift in traditional collectivist Chinese culture. Luo bases his suggestions on recent survey data, rather than accepting stereotypes that may be popular for Asia.

Chinese applicants, we are told, are very effective in selling themselves in interviews. Therefore, training is required of managers to be effective interviewers, after a job analysis has clearly specified the competencies needed in a position. As credentials are subject to exaggeration or fabrication, reference checks are viewed as important as are tests or simulations that actually check on an applicant's skills and abilities. In addition, probationary periods are often used in China and are recommended as part of the overall selection system. In some respects, such steps are

taken for granted in the USA, but they may be new in China (and other countries), so they must be carefully developed and introduced.

Trust is particularly important in China between managers and their staffs. But because Chinese communication tends to be high context or nonspecific, it is easy to get a "disconnect" between an expatriate manager and local employees. Miscommunications can be caused by both managers and employees and it may take some time to build a mutually understood set of expectations.

One of the most difficult areas for non-Chinese managers in that country is performance management. Traditional Chinese enterprises put a high value on personal attributes and these are often used to evaluate an employee. Performance goals, by contrast, are often static or not measurable. As a result, performance evaluations are done ritually at the end of each year and filed in HR. Luo suggests that tradition and cultural differences make performance management particularly difficult in China. For example, egalitarianism is preferred over individual performance recognition and the notion of accountability is not commonly understood. Also, the emphasis on indirect communication makes an explicit performance evaluation difficult.

Luo's accounts of implementing good HR practices are instructive, although the solutions often seem a commercial advertisement for the DDI consulting firm. Nevertheless, the anecdotes provide a good illustration of the issues to be faced by I–O psychologists in introducing our knowledge for application in a different country. Such applications, for example, structured interviews, are typically based on international research and their implementation can be considered as the end stage of meaningful research.

Summary

This chapter has tried to alert researchers to the "speed bumps" and special hurdles that are part of doing research in an international organization. As opposed to doing research merely in one's home country, the cultures of other nations add complexity to how the I–O psychologist does research. These cultural differences influence the fundamental ways in which citizens of each nation think, feel, and behave. Many of these differences are not obvious at first and may be mistaken for personal idiosyncrasies. Fortunately, enough research exists to usefully describe and illustrate systematic differences from country to country, and thus prepare us to interact more effectively with others in the international setting.

Major cultural differences, such as the expected and acceptable levels of hierarchical power or the amount of individualism in a society, are also complicated by the difficulty of good communications with colleagues or audiences who speak another language or have different cultural styles of expressing themselves. Interpersonal communication is all the more important when a research team has to function globally, without face-to-face communication and through different time zones.

This chapter has explained and illustrated the hardships to the *process* of doing research internationally. Both cultural understanding and communications are the

keys to more effective practice. I have also shared a framework to understand the relevant cultural dimensions and I have given useful sources for teaching and learning more about the culture of various nations. We also gave examples in several areas—of employee opinion surveys, selection programs, and HR management—of effective work by seasoned I–O psychologists in doing research and applying their results. These examples show that research in international organizations may be harder than working just locally, but such research can be done well and be quite rewarding.

Chapter Appendix—Useful Sources for Cultural Information

For Americans to get a better understanding of American culture, a quick way to start would be to travel out of the USA. A new awareness based on travel experiences would probably prove true for most people in other countries as well. Fortunately, there are less expensive alternatives (and supplements) to actual travel. These methods include talking to people who have been in other countries about their experiences, watching movies from and about other countries, reading books set in other lands, and learning from studies specifically focused on national cultures. Some specific and useful sources are described below.

Internet The web is a major asset in learning about country cultures. A website called culturecrossing.net is a fabulous resource for learning about appropriate everyday behavior in most countries around the world. The site describes proper greetings, eye contact, use of personal space, and touching, as well as taboos and also covers topics like meetings, negotiations, and even gift giving. There are also special sections for students and business people. This site also offers links to a variety of short and interesting (if somewhat uneven) videos that can be the basis for orienting and training members of a research team.

Not surprisingly, Google and other web search engines will give researchers fascinating information, by searching for a combination of "culture" and "country name." Wikipedia and other data sources can be most helpful. Hofstede has created a website to give culture dimension scores and some explanation for more than 80 countries. (See http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html.) Sites such as everyculture.com and also a "fact book" by the US Central Intelligence Agency (see http://ciaworldfactbook.us/countries) offer good factual descriptions of most countries' history, geography, politics, population, holidays, and culture[3].

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[3] For many years, the US State Department had "Post Reports" available online for every country where it maintained an embassy or consulate. These would describe life in that post, including typical citizen behavior, etiquette, and other cultural aspects, in addition to discussions of food, transportation, and ethnic makeup of the population. The Department no longer keeps its post reports on the internet; it now hosts those reports only on its intranet. Nevertheless, one can see many of the older versions through a commercial website: http://www.ediplomat.com/np/post_reports/post_reports.htm.

Films An appealing way to appreciate another culture is to see it come to life in a movie. For example, a recent film called "Outsourced" starring Larry Pine tells the story of an executive whose US call center is shut down and he goes to India to train his replacement. He encounters vast cultural differences in every aspect of his business and personal life. Such movies are often easily available on DVD or via streaming websites such as Netflix.

A number of other useful films come to mind, such as "Gung Ho," the comedy with Michael Keaton, that has a Japanese firm re-opening an American auto plant, and introducing its own cultural traditions, like morning calisthenics and company singing. Other films, such as "Lost in Translation" with Bill Murray, show the travails of an American executive doing business in Tokyo. Such films may not always be relied on for accurate profiles of culture, but may provoke worthwhile interest and discussions.

Cultural Etiquette A valuable, perhaps surprising, resource for dealing with other countries comes from a former White House social secretary, Leticia Baldrige, who has written a book on business etiquette (Baldrige 1993). It includes many topics that are important to effective I–O research in international organizations when it involves interacting with people from other countries. The book covers behaviors and attitudes on punctuality, dress, the acceptance of women, dining, and even the appropriate time to open a gift, which varies by country. Hand gestures that are innocent in one nation can take on offensive meaning elsewhere. Showing the soles of one's shoes to another, or handing over an object with the left hand (sometimes associated with toilet paper) can be an insult. Researchers can read Ms. Baldrige's book, *New Complete Guide to Executive Manners* as a checklist of cultural differences, both striking and subtle, from one's own country. Her chapter on Doing Business Internationally is especially relevant to our efforts, as it covers topics like meetings, social customs, and gift giving. Of special note might be the section titled "American habits that displease people from other countries." Among other things, she warns against teasing about sacred matters, even in jest.

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Chapter 15
A Global Context: Future Goals of Work and Organizational Psychology and Demands of Civil Society

Francesco Avallone

Within the first century of its existence, work and organizational psychology made significant gains in both basic and applied research, in the development of products, and in the area of intervention models. These gains are, on the one hand, connected to the development of psychology—in particular, the growth of cognitive and social psychology—and, on the other hand, undoubtedly reflect technical, economic, cultural, and social evolution of specific countries as well as globally. Basic research, applied research, the development of products, and intervention models represent the central aims of work and organizational psychology's mission. More importantly, this mission will not undergo substantial variations in the future but, rather, will continue to move along this same line of continuity.

The birth of psychology, and thus, also that of work psychology was characterized by reductionism and simplification: first of all, as happened within other sciences, we may note the widespread use of clarifying dichotomies. The dichotomies physical-psychological, conscious-unconscious, organism-environment, cognition-emotion have not only encouraged theoretical reflection and sustained entire schools of thought, but they have also caused delays and obstacles for the advancement of knowledge. The theorization of antique dichotomies is not limited to the beginning of the last century. More recent dichotomies are: subjective versus objective, micro versus macro, quantitative versus qualitative. Today we can consider them outdated.

A series of transitions, which have moved from the dichotomy approach towards the search for connections and interdependence, constitute the greatest discontinuity. Let's look at two examples.

1) *From the individual to the context.* Originally, work and organizational psychology centered its interest on individual workers. Individuals were studied with respect to their diverse physical, sensory, psychomotor, and cognitive abilities. Much later, the discipline expanded to include the study of emotional experiences and of individual strategies to manage, in the face of diverse situations, emotions. Today, however, the

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notion that there are three levels of analysis for every type of phenomena or process is widely accepted: individual (biological/psychological/social), group, and organizational, considered in their relationship with relative contexts.

2) *From the uni-determination of phenomena to multidimensional analysis.* For a long time, theoretical and methodological options were oriented towards the identification of linear cause-effect relationships. It wasn't until the second half of the past century—thanks to the epistemological paradigm, "the complexity" (Weaver, 1948; Bateson, 1979; Morin, 1986)—that research moved away from the assumption that a strong interdependence between subject and object and observer and observed reality exists. The complexity defines what results from the connection of many parts or elements and leads back to the plurality of relations that exist between the elements which compose the object, between the object and the environment, and between the observed and the observer; thus, the complexity of problems and multidimensional and interconnected realities. This discontinuity has even profoundly changed research themes; one only need look at how we define organizational health. In just the last ten years an important and valuable shift from the protection of individuals' physical health and accident prevention to the evaluation of psychosocial risks has occurred.

This discontinuity has also transformed the work psychologist's professional role from one of work analyst to that of an analyst of complexity. For the first work and organizational psychologists—*work analysts*—the object of central interest and research was work per se. Overall, its external, physical and structural characteristics were studied. Methods of intervention and transformation were a focus for motives of efficiency and improving individual's adaptation; essentially, researchers sought to increase rational productivity. For current work and organizational psychologists—*complexity analysts*—the central focus of research is the relationship that individuals, groups, and organizations entertain with relative contexts in order to explain the growth and decline processes of individuals and systems. To position oneself between continuity and discontinuity is one of the problems of existence; to choose the boundary between maintenance and innovation, conservation and creation, is the essence of every intentionally identified and pursued change. As a result, in order to highlight potential new developments in work and organizational psychology, we need to identify the areas of continuity and discontinuity for further investigation.   However, we don't need to preoccupy ourselves with continuity. Accredited scientific journals will take care of that. The power groups that manage these journals have created a healthy competition between researchers and maintain an important function as preliminary verifiers of scientific contributions. At the same time, however, they have also become instruments of knowledge validation, which often leave only modest space for theoretical and methodological innovation.

Thus, we need to work more on discontinuity. The term discontinuity indicates, in its most common sense, a break in continuity, the abandonment of the established order; the research of methodological paths not yet fully explored. Discontinuity may represent an interruption in time or space. It may also imply a different way of conceptualizing known problems or reversing the connections of cause and effects

or even the priority given to the levels of analysis. Here's an example. Research in the psychology of work and organization has primary importance on the individual's needs and, subsequently, organizational needs. A strong element of discontinuity would be to change the focus, concentrating on the demands of civil society. These are the main requirements that emerge from a certain political, economic and cultural demand; instances that inspire, influence and change the harmonious coexistence among individuals and groups in society. The demands of civil society influence the life, development and decline of organizations. I realize that societal requests are often confused, contradictory and variable, depending on geographical and cultural contexts. Nonetheless, I feel it is possible to identify instances that relate to diverse cultures and are pertinent to both local and global contexts. I will limit myself to highlighting only two examples.

1) *Efficacy and coherence*. Individuals, groups, and organizations need and require more efficacy to manage the entire network of relationships and contexts with which they interact. For instance, young adults in search of a job or older adults who become unemployed need to improve their efficacy in dealing with the work market and to successfully plan their futures. Even organizations claim to pursue efficacy but appear more interested in efficiency in order to realize immediate economic outcomes. The world of politics and economics appear to be insensitive to the requests of efficacy originating from civil society. The big financial scandals, which have destroyed the savings of many people, are not entirely explained by management's corruption but go back to the profound transformation of many industrial companies into financial associations, the deregulation of financial markets, and the inefficacy of international institutes' control mechanisms. If shared, these matters have consequences for the potential variables to study. In the past, we widened the scope of variables worthy of consideration: from the individual to the group; from the group to the organization. In the future, we need to study the interactions between organizations and society, the relationship between organizations and political and economic power and their interconnections. An enormous ecological disaster—the black sea in the Gulf of Mexico—is certainly not the result of an unforeseen technical error but, rather, seems to be the consequence of incoherent organizational practices with respect to protection of the environment, lack of moral commitment on the part of management and/or the entire organization, and absence of control on the part of the diverse organisms that at both local and international levels should preserve the use of the planet's natural resources.

2) *Transparency and ethics* These considerations go back to the social responsibility of organizations and are in line with civil society's second request: in organizational affairs and practices. The call for transparency is considered in numerous cultural contexts, not only as a simple ethical option but also a condition to guarantee coexistence within organizations and society and to realize higher levels of cultural integration and global civility. A precise connection between an organization's political choices, economic strategies, and organizational practices exists. This connection manifests itself in four themes:

a) the protection of the environment;
b) the promotion of security, safety, health and well-being;
c) the diffusion and growth of knowledge and competences;
d) equity with respect to the possibility of accessing resources.

These four areas—environment, health, knowledge and equity—already noted in the literature, can be innovatively investigated by inverting the priority given to levels of analysis: not individual, group, organization, society but rather, society, organization, group, individual. This is the discontinuity on which we should focus. Although we are not used to studying the influence of politics and economics on organizational choices, it seems naïve to exclude these variables just because they may be difficult to identify and isolate. A potential empirical course of action in this direction could involve the following four phases:

a) study of civil society requests. The first empirical findings confirm that such requests revolve around the four identified areas: environment, health, knowledge and equity, which are defined in relation to diverse contexts;
b) examination of normative contexts with the aim of identifying areas of responsibility, restrictions, control systems, etc.;
c) identification of the strategies and tactics through which society's requests have been in part or completely evaded;
d) definition of the conditions which render organizations capable of becoming environments of efficiency, development and civilization.

Although you all may not agree with this approach, I do believe that no one can sidestep the importance of the relationship between continuity and discontinuity in defining new objectives for work and organizational psychology. The role of discontinuity in research is crucial given that today organizations are profoundly different from how we understood and studied them in the past. We need to avoid becoming "research bureaucrats", able to guarantee respect for formal rules and methods but incapable of explaining the string of connections which, along the line of society, organization, group, individual, dictate the rules of our future coexistence.

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