Cultural Determinants of the Effectiveness of American Executives Abroad.

Richard John Fleming

Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College

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Louisiana State University, Ph.D., 1966
Economics, commerce-business

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1966
CULTURAL DETERMINANTS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS
OF AMERICAN EXECUTIVES ABROAD

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Management and Marketing

by

Richard John Fleming
B.S., University of Detroit, 1958
M.B.A., Louisiana State University, 1960
January, 1966
DEDICATION

This work is lovingly dedicated to my mother and father to whom I owe so much.

Richard John Fleming
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The writer is deeply indebted to his major professor, Dr. Leon C. Megginson, Professor of Management, whose encouragement, guidance, understanding, and influence are immeasurable and to Professors Raymond V. Lesikar, Head of the Department of Management and Marketing, and Robert A. Flammang, Associate Professor of Economics, for their guidance, constructive criticisms, encouragement, and preparation of this study. In addition, the writer is grateful and appreciates the encouragement, guidance, and efforts of his remaining committee members, Professors Robert F. Smith, Associate Professor of Economics, Eugene C. McCann, Associate Professor of Management, and Charles G. Walters, Assistant Professor of Marketing.

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American foreign trade and investment expanded rapidly after World War II. This expansion caused a shortage of competently trained American businessmen abroad and, in order to alleviate this problem, American corporations resorted to their domestic managerial ranks to obtain successful managers to staff the overseas operations. Some American businessmen were ineffective overseas while other businessmen adapted and became efficient within a short time. The question was: "What characteristics and traits differentiated these successful and effective American businessmen from their less productive peers?"

The study showed that culture consisted of an interaction between a body of culture and the businessman, called a cultural system. Each body of culture consisted of particular values, behavioral patterns, knowledge, and customs specifically designed for a cultural system. Man was born into and learned this body of culture of a particular cultural system. Whenever American businessmen entered a foreign cultural system, they introduced different and often opposing cultural traits, values, beliefs, and customs into the foreign cultural system which resulted in conflict and friction called cross-cultural conflict.
Cross-cultural conflict and overseas interaction caused American executives to experience insecurity and frustration since they could no longer guide their behavior according to values gleaned from their cultural system. Cultural shock caused managerial frustration and a deterioration of their self-confidence, resulting in a personal internal conflict within the executive and external friction between the cultural system and themselves; cross-cultural conflict reduced the businessmen's effectiveness and success abroad.

Ten cultural traits, called determinants, were hypothesized as counteracting and reducing these cultural conflicts, resulting in managerial success and effectiveness. These 10 cultural determinants were: (1) heuristic attitude; (2) societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; (3) emotionally stable and mature personality; (4) cultural empathy; (5) communicative skills; (6) international philosophy; (7) belief in mission; (8) technical competence; (9) organizational skills; and (10) political sensitivity.

A questionnaire was designed to test empirically the validity of the above hypothesis. This was accomplished through disguised questions, the answers to which indicated whether the managers possessed one or more of these cultural determinants. A company with over 50 years of international experience was selected to study. Forty-two of its managers were selected to participate in this study and 39 (93 per
cent) of them completed usable questionnaires. These answers were tested by comparing them through Chi Square and Fisher Exact Probability Test with the results of previous company appraisals of these managers. The appraisals included the following 12 traits: (1) knowledge; (2) ability to get things done; (3) character; (4) planning; (5) ability to organize; (6) initiative; (7) decision making; (8) communications; (9) ability to motivate people; (10) ability to develop people; (11) control; and (12) over-all performance. A significant direct and positive relationship between these 12 ratings and the disguised indicators were presumed to establish the executives' possession of these 10 cultural trait determinants of overseas effectiveness and productivity at the .05 significance level.

The data indicated that the company's more successful and effective businessmen, as shown by the appraisals, also possessed the cultural determinants in varying degrees. The results of the study substantiated the hypothesis that cultural differences led to cross-cultural conflict which in turn resulted in reduced effectiveness and efficiency overseas. The possession of the indicated cultural determinants tended to alleviate this conflict which resulted in the executives being more productive.

Specifically the study explained the nature and essence of culture; isolated and tested empirically 10 cultural determinants which seemed to reduce cross-cultural
conflict and make managers more effective and successful abroad; tested, substantiated, and strengthened the Ford and Carnegie findings; and, provided a new methodology and approach for studying future cross-cultural problems.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

American overseas sales have risen to over 50 billion dollars in the last 20 years. American corporations have produced three-fourths of these goods in their overseas subsidiaries and they expect to double their sales and invest 30 billion dollars abroad.¹ Foreign investment by firms in the United States is the highest it has been since 1957,² with American products dominating 65 to 90 per cent of the European market.³

Although each firm has specific reasons for going abroad, McDonald listed six factors which have played a part in increasing international operations.⁴ First, increased


²The NYSE survey showed the following increased overseas investments since 1956: 150+ per cent (Central America), 85 per cent (Europe), 81 per cent (Africa), 66 per cent (Asia), 64 per cent (Australia-Pacific Islands), and 50 per cent (South America). "IRN Survey Shows U.S. Firms Depended on Foreign Personnel For Key Managerial Positions," International Commerce, LXVIII, No. 14 (September 17, 1962), 5; "The Balance of Payments," Survey of Current Business, XLV, No. 1 (January, 1956), 7-9; "Foreign Trade--The Glow is Bright," Business Week (January 2, 1965), 62-64.


⁴John G. McDonald, "New Organizational Concept of the World Enterprise," Management International, I, No. 5-6, 7-9.
overseas activities of American corporations caused a demand for greater scope and international services of their vendors. Many corporations moved overseas to meet this demand. Second, due to the cyclical fluctuations of the American economy, many U.S. firms are using overseas operations as a buffer to counteract the severity of these fluctuations by subsidizing stateside losses with foreign profits. Third, domestic profits have declined through increased taxes and saturated markets. Stiff competition on the one hand and the threat of antitrust suits on the other have caused these firms to seek new markets overseas. Fourth, consolidation of individual countries into common markets molded these areas into mass markets comparable with American population, income, and productive capacities. This permitted supermarkets and ready-made clothing industries to substitute their saturated American markets for dynamic "common markets." Similarly, these "common markets" required American marketing techniques, for example, advertising, packaging, and marketing distribution. Entry into these "markets" also permitted Americans to invest idle capital, hedge against future discriminatory action of the "market," and obtain tax advantages. These foreign adventures accounted for 50 to 99 per cent of some American companies' profits.  

In addition, low production costs overseas acted as a
domestic hedge against price competition from foreign com-
modities. 6 Previously the American competitive position
rested upon its mass markets, high quality raw material re-
serves, and economic system. 7 Each has declined and forced
American firms into a disadvantageous price position, 8 which
has cost some 50 per cent of their domestic markets. 9

MULTINATIONAL STAFFING PROBLEM

American companies which operated overseas faced a
problem in staffing their overseas vacancies with managers
who could effectively operate in a foreign milieu. American
executives, specifically trained for international and cross-

6 Ralph Hodgson and Michael Michaelson, "Planning For
(November-December, 1960), 137. If America were unable to
meet this price competition, she might be reduced to a second
rate power. See Walter Mitchell, "Management Development and
Capital Investment," Advanced Management, XXVI, No. 11
(November, 1961), 4; R. Conrad Cooper, "Steel Faces the Com-
mon Market," Advanced Management, XXVI, No. 11 (November,
1961), 5-8.

7 The Impact of the Common Market on the American
Economy (Washington: The Chamber of Commerce of the United
States, June, 1962), p. 3.

8 Ralston believes Europeans are determined to duplic-
ate the American standard of living and way of life.
Richard W. Ralston, "Absence of 'Organizational Man' Types
Boon to West Europe," Business and Society, XX, No. 1
(Autumn, 1961), 6. Robert Theobald, Profit Potential in
Developing Countries (New York: American Management Asso-

9 McDonald, op. cit., p. 7; "World Economy Changing in
cultural operations, for example, foreign trade or international economics, filled these vacancies. It was not long before the demand far exceeded the supply of these specialists.

Next, nationals, citizens of the host country, staffed these administrative vacancies, for example, Brazilian managers worked for American corporations in Rio. Many of these nationals spoke English, possessed American degrees, and understood American culture and business procedures; they bridged both cultural systems and often possessed greater favor with local communities and officials. Host requirements which limited the number or percentage of Americans in executive positions, nationals' dislike for American employment because of previous disappointments working for U.S. firms, shortages in competent executives abroad, and maintenance costs and high-priced salaries to U.S. businessmen to entice Americans abroad soon caused the salaries of the nationals to increase. American corporations began substituting nationals with foreign executives, for example, a French executive working for an American firm in Germany. Many of these executives were unable to adjust to the host


12"IRN Survey," *loc. cit.*
country or American business standards and culture.

Some American companies turned to raiding their domes-
tic managerial ranks for successful executives to dispatch
and staff overseas vacancies. These American businessmen,
inexperienced in international and cross-cultural operations,
supplied American management principles, skills, and state-
side experiences in solving their overseas problems. Un-
familiar with the environmental and cultural differences,
some of these businessmen learned that their previous skills
and experiences were inadequate,\(^{13}\) while other managers
refused to adjust and temper their behavior and business
practices to conform to the overseas milieu, that is, govern-
ment, economic, legal and societal value systems.\(^{14}\) Instead
they attempted to duplicate exact copies of American firms
within their overseas environments. All too often, these
organizations failed to satisfy the goals and requirements
of the company and the host country.\(^{15}\)

\(^{13}\)John Fayerweather, *Management of International
p. vii.

\(^{14}\)John S. Ewing and Frank Meissner, *International
Business Management: Readings and Cases* (Belmont,

\(^{15}\)"Three Companies' Case Studies on Business Perform-
ance Abroad," *Collegiate News and Views*, XVII, No. 4
(May, 1964), 39.
American expansion overseas has increased the problem of finding competent managers to staff their international operations. Many executives are unable to operate effectively in the overseas culture and environment, for example, adapt to the customs, culture, people. They seem to take their habits and behavior patterns for granted and believe everyone else shares these same habits and values. Since the individual's society behavior and cultural patterns are learned and molded from birth, each is the product of his own culture and environment which may be different from that of another. He may be unconscious that other people are different. Confident that his ways and behavior are natural ways and understood by everyone, the executive encounters conflict and hostility abroad.

Yet the successful individual in international service is the person who, in addition to having the technical skills necessary to perform his job effectively, also has the ability to adapt and adjust to new life and work situation—for example, a different climate, a different language, different concepts of time, a different value system. It is far easier to assess a man's technical competence than to assess those qualities which may or may not make him potentially adaptable to a wide range of living conditions. Herein lies the special and difficult problem encountered in the selection of suitable personnel for international service.16

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is the purpose of this study to determine what factors and traits make an executive suitable for overseas and cross-cultural work, that is, to study the cultural determinants of the effectiveness of American executives abroad. Insufficient empirical data exist for determining overseas success and selecting appropriate overseas personnel, although some material based upon opinions, conjectures, and observations exists.

The Carnegie and Ford studies contain both types of data. Carnegie studied 244 international servants (government, religious, volunteer organizations, and businessmen) through biographical data sheets, interviews, and personality tests. Ford sponsored conferences chairmained by officials of the World Federation for Mental Health. Both suggested technical skill, organizational ability, belief in mission, cultural empathy, and a sense for politics as useful gauges.

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17For study details see Harlan Cleveland, et al., The Overseas Americans (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960), Part III: "The Elements of Effective Performance," in Mottram Torre (editor), The Selection of Personnel for International Service (New York: Wolff Book Manufacturing Co., Inc., 1963), pp. 23-26, whose findings are primarily based upon the previous study. Cleveland and associates found no high correlations between the hypothesized traits but believed their findings were useful for selecting competent and effective overseas administrators in the future. They suggested further research along these lines, a challenge, which the writer accepted. The writer incorporated their findings and hypothesized traits into his hypothesized cultural determinants for further empirical testing in the hopes of establishing significant correlations and relationships (pp. 23-27).
in measuring the effectiveness of American performance abroad. The studies suggested a need for more investigation in these areas which this study will attempt to satisfy.

The two-fold purpose of this study is (1) to isolate the cultural determinants of effectiveness of American executives abroad, and (2) to test these determinants in light of current theory, especially the Carnegie findings. Specifically, the study intends to test empirically these 10 hypothesized determinants of overseas effectiveness: heuristic attitude; societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; international philosophy; emotionally stable and mature personality; communicative skills; *technical competence; *organizational skills; *belief in mission; *cultural empathy; and *political sensitivity.18

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

A questionnaire was designed from library research and personal conferences and interviews and was field tested with American business executives with overseas experience.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire incorporated an indirect method of questioning in order to insure greater objectivity and

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18The asterisks (*) indicate the hypothesized overseas gauges for success of the Carnegie and Ford projects. These five characteristics were incorporated into this study for the purpose of further testing these traits as predictors and/or indicators of effective performance overseas.
honesty of the participants' responses, particularly on sensitive and extremely personal questions. Each respondent was to complete 96 multiple choice questions about his experiences, habits, values, and personality. The preceding hypothesized cultural determinants were disguised in questions distributed throughout the questionnaire. The question duplication and distribution acted as a check and control on the consistency and validity of the executive's responses. Their responses and questionnaire results are analyzed in the subsequent chapters.

The Company

The writer solicited American companies actively engaged in international operations to participate in the study. A limited number of letters was sent because: first, the company had to have a sufficiently large number of only American executives actively engaged in overseas operations for statistical reasons, which eliminated many American firms which depended mainly upon nationals and non-American managers to staff their subsidiaries. Second, the company had to have many years of experience in international operations so as not to bias the study results by poor executive selection in the first place because of its unfamiliarity with cross-cultural problems. The company needed plants and subsidiaries located throughout the world rather than concentrated within one geographical region such as Europe or Latin America. This latter criterion provided the greatest
opportunity for testing the hypothesized traits against multiple cultural systems and milieu. Such a geographical dispersion would tend to eliminate the bias which might arise from using only company executives operating within one culture milieu. Finally, a single company had to meet all these criteria rather than several companies meeting one or several of the above criteria. It was felt that the use of one company would tend to minimize a significant amount of uncontrollable factors and variables from the study, for example, communications, rating system, selecting and training procedures, and divergent company goals. Using a multiplicity of companies would almost make the standardization of these items impossible for statistical and analytical purposes. An American company, which met all these criteria, agreed to participate in the study. Particulars and characteristics of this company and study group are discussed in Chapter II.

The Methodology

The writer prepared 42 packets, each containing a questionnaire, a cover letter from the company president which explained the project and requested the executive's cooperation, and a self-addressed air mail envelope. Although only 42 Americans were to participate in the study, these packets were coded starting with the number #300, so as not to arouse suspicion that only one company was participating. It was hoped that such measures would increase
the accuracy and truthfulness of the data received from the respondents since these executives would feel free and safe in their answers.

The author knew the executives only by coded numbers and the company received data only in tabular form. This ensured the secrecy of the executives' answers. These packets were mailed directly to the personnel director of the company for distribution.

The personnel director inserted the letter of the company president into each packet. The letter authorized the study and assured each executive that the research director (writer) would never know the executive by name nor would the company know the executive's answers, except in tabular form. The company official addressed the packets, recorded the executive's name opposite the corresponding coded number on a master roster, and mailed the packets. He then duplicated company performance ratings for each executive, disguised the executive's identity, and assigned a coded number corresponding to each executive's packet. The coded performance ratings were mailed to the writer for evaluation.

The Study Group

The executive group consisted of 42 American businessmen working around the world. Thirty-nine of them—a 93 percent return—completed and returned their questionnaires via air mail to the writer. Specific characteristics about this
study group are discussed in Chapter II.

Both executive responses and company performance ratings were coded and arranged for statistical analysis and computations at the Louisiana State University Computer Center. A Chi Square test was applied to the executive's responses and his corresponding performance ratings, and the degrees of correlation (contingency coefficients) were computed for each. These ratings acted as an objective measurement and criterion for evaluating the importance of the hypothesized traits, which were extracted from questionnaire responses. Data results are evaluated in Chapter V.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

First, the study was limited to a study group of 39 American businessmen of one American company. This was a significant number, considering the limited number of total American firms engaged in overseas operations and the employment of nationals abroad. Second, one corporation was used in order to reduce study variables which might easily arise from using several different industries and companies, that is, unstandardized goals, policies, terminology and performance ratings. The writer standardized meanings of these criteria throughout the study. Finally, the 16 returns from Europe and 19 from Latin America tended to bias the study data in favor of these areas, although British, Australian, African, and Asian areas were represented.
ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The following assumptions were made and their validity determine the validity of the study:

1. The study group was representative and typical of American businessmen overseas and little or no differences existed between this study group and any other group which might have been selected;

2. No error occurred because of language or terminology; all executives interpreted, understood, and answered their questionnaires correctly;

3. Executives were honest in their answers, thus truly reflecting their beliefs and feelings;

4. Data results were not biased appreciably by the geographical distribution and location of the participants but were reliable and applicable to any culture and environmental system;

5. Qualities found to be important for effective and successful performance overseas were transferable to any cultural system;

6. Performance ratings of the company were an accurate, honest, and true evaluation of the rated executives' performance. Any bias, if any existed, was not introduced by this study, since all performance ratings were completed prior to this study and without foreknowledge that such ratings would be used in this study or available to noncompany personnel; and

7. It assumed these findings of this study was applicable and valid for this particular company and its executive corps only. Some of these findings might be applicable to other companies and managers abroad.

19 The company considers its performance ratings extremely important and stresses accurate evaluations. Rating forms are standard for all executive personnel whether overseas or stateside. The company requires and spends considerable time in rating and evaluating these ratings. It emphasizes the need, importance, and accuracy of such reports. It is not unusual for top executives, including the president, to spend many hours per rating.
PREVIEW OF THE STUDY

The company and study group are analyzed in Chapter II. A verbal portrait is drawn of the company and its executives—company policies, type of company and industry, overseas locations and the characteristic and personalities of the executives, for example, marital status, jobs, geographical location, linguistic talent, and education.

Later, the nature and essence of culture are discussed in Chapter III, "The Executive In The Cultural Milieu Overseas," which establishes the cultural and environmental framework—the stage upon which international executives and companies function. Furthermore, this framework is intended to assist the reader in understanding the system and process of culture and the problems of American businessmen operating within this overseas milieu. Some factors and causes of cross-cultural conflict are investigated.

Next, the traits used by the company to measure its executives' performance abroad and the 10 cultural determinants are defined and analyzed. The company's rating criteria and procedures are discussed. Selected questions disguised in the questionnaire and intended to act as indicators of the 10 hypothesized cultural determinants are analyzed. These definitive parameters of the company's traits, the 10 cultural determinants and their respective questionnaire indicators, are established to build a descriptive model for the statistical analysis which follows in
Chapter V. Then, the results of the Chi Square and Contingency Coefficient investigation into the relationship between questionnaire responses and company performance ratings are interpreted and evaluated in Chapter V. The 10 hypothesized cultural determinants or traits for overseas success and effectiveness are evaluated.

Finally, conclusions and recommendations for selection of overseas personnel and the role that these 10 cultural determinants can play in this section and prediction are presented in Chapter VI.
CHAPTER II

PORTRAIT OF THE COMPANY AND THE STUDY GROUP

A PORTRAIT OF THE COMPANY

The company is one of the largest corporations in the basic industries, with production and distribution facilities around the world. Construction companies, automotive companies, transportation lines, educational institutions, the public, governments, and heavy industries are listed among its customers.

The Company in the World Market Place

For over 50 years the company was engaged in wholly owned and joint ventures overseas, serving the appliance, automotive, construction, electric, government, manufacturing, highway, petroleum, mining, railroad, and utility industries. Millions of dollars were earned from its sales office, manufacturing, and warehouse or store installations located in Europe, Australia, Latin America, Africa, and Asia as shown in Figure 1.

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1All company data came from official company documents which will remain anonymous by company request. Some data have been disguised in order to protect the company, but such changes will not affect the validity of these findings.
Some 24 plants and 39 warehouses and marketing or distribution centers in 17 foreign countries are controlled through the communication center and headquarters in America. The Latin America market is its oldest market and consists of operations in Mexico, Columbia, Peru, Venezuela, Central America, Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, Argentina, Chile, Brazil, and Uruguay. Furthermore, the country has operations in Europe—France, West Germany, Spain, Italy, Belgium, England, Scotland; Africa—Republic of the Congo and South Africa; and the Orient—Japan and Australia.

**Company Policies and Philosophy**

According to the management, the company has based its policy under Christian principles and ethics since its founding. Its policies are considered to be an industrial constitution which states the rights, privileges, rules, and responsibilities of its citizens—that is, its employees. Management believes that company goals are achieved through collective efforts of the workers. Also, company policy annunciates the code of conduct and ethical behavior expected of employees in order to maintain the reputation and image of the company.

Management, as part of this company team, attempts to maintain the quality of the product and customer service. Likewise, management provides suitable working conditions and opportunity for its employees to obtain the highest satisfaction and personal growth in their work—knowing that company
goals are best reached when personal objectives are satisfied. As far as is feasible, the company treats every employee as an individual. The company extends this philosophy to the industry and the environment.

The company vitalizes this policy through community and industrial partnerships whereby management attempts to make decisions beneficial to its industrial and community partners as well as itself; that is, the company takes the long view that its decisions must benefit the industry also or such a decision is not good. It believes it is a member of the community and has a responsibility to engage actively in community activities or assist in meeting community crises such as floods and fires. As a good neighbor, the firm feels responsible for assisting in the development and growth of the community and its members. It is willing to help any community which shows that it is willing to help itself and its citizens toward a better way of life and standard of living, and charges management with the responsibility for maintaining attractive grounds, clean buildings, and a safe working environment. The corporation practices its community policies and philosophy around the world. Management supplements working conditions with an incentive system in order to encourage employee development. The firm feels each worker has a right to the highest advancement within his capabilities. The company feels that by giving fine working conditions, a system built on incentives, and proper living conditions to its employees, the happy employees become better workers. The
center of the employee's happiness is his home life; a good environment is the foundation upon which family home life is built.

The firm believes that it builds *esprit de corps* through its policies and mutual cooperation. Worker cooperation is achieved through job satisfaction. If the worker's needs and goals are met in his job, then the employee will work hard and at the same time help attain company goals. This company spirit fosters a fair and just relationship with employees and consumers—a better way of life for all.

Besides its employee training and community policies, the company has an "Overseas Exchange Program" whereby nationals and Americans exchange positions in their respective countries for a short period of time, for example, American managers exchange jobs with Brazilian counterparts for a month. These exchanges are designed to foster mutual understandings, respect, and admiration for people, culture, country, and customs of each person's country as well as the technical knowledge about the job.

Moreover, the company maintains good working conditions through its program of safety which has given safety awards to African, Italian, Spanish, and Japanese workers for outstanding safety records. National and American employees alike are held together through a common bond of objectives and team effort. Its employees are stimulated
through communications and the written principles annunciated in company policy—policies which act as the worker's constitutional rights.

THE EXECUTIVE GROUP OF THE COMPANY

The executive group studied consisted of 39 of 42 American businessmen who completed their questionnaires. These data are based upon these executives' responses to a 96-item questionnaire. Selected data are grouped into a tripartite analysis of (1) company data; (2) personal data; and (3) family and ancestral background.

Company Data on the Executive Corps Overseas

There were 33 executives with company seniority of 11 years or longer, while only three were with the firm for five years or less; half of the executives were with the firm for 16 years or longer; and a third had been with the company for 21 years or longer. This meant that 70 per cent of the executive corps had 11 years or more experience in handling company policies, procedures, and practices. Moreover, all executives had been in the international field for three years or more.

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2Some executives failed to answer some questions. These unanswered questions were not of a controversial or personal nature and so they were probably over-looked rather than deliberately left blank by these businessmen. Stated percentages were based upon the number answering, that is, the base may change from 39 to 38 executives in some cases. These statistical differences were not mentioned unless these findings would tend to mislead or confuse the reader. Furthermore any data not totaling 100 per cent were due to rounding or multiple answers where the executive could give more than one answer, for example, languages spoken.
years of longer (Table I).

### TABLE I

YEARS OF COMPANY SERVICE AND INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE OF THE EXECUTIVE GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Company Experience</th>
<th>Over-All International Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Businessmen</td>
<td>Per Cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 or more</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Original. This and all other tables are from the original data.

Over half of the respondents had 11 years or more of experience overseas. Well over a fourth of them had 16 or more years international experience.

These internationally seasoned businessmen functioned in the following organizational areas: personnel (1); general management (21); marketing, advertising, and sales (1); and engineering or production (5). There was one executive in the regional directorship of the northern Latin American region and another in a coordinating position. There were 24 executives working in management positions and no executive was more than five levels beneath the president. These businessmen were located in the formal organization as follows:
FIGURE 2

COMPANY DISTRIBUTION OF OVERSEAS EXECUTIVES ACCORDING TO ORGANIZATIONAL LEVELS
(SOURCE: ORIGINAL)
All the subject executives were in the upper managerial ranks. Almost half of these businessmen were on the first two organizational levels with almost 80 per cent within the first three levels. About 92 per cent were on the first four levels. More than a fifth were directly beneath the president of the company. Almost 85 per cent were selected because they were the best men for the assignments or had successful stateside records. The company told four men that they were sent abroad in order to gain invaluable experience, and two were sent because they were told that they could function better in a foreign environment. Likewise, some 15 businessmen were sent abroad because they had successful records of accomplishment in America. Over half of the executives attributed their assignment to linguistic or special training, while the executive corps had a positive feeling toward their job and assignment, for only two executives viewed their assignment on a temporary basis for a period of less than two years. Sixteen executives expected to pursue foreign careers; a large number (21) viewed their assignment as indefinite, and 18 of these were willing to stay as long as the company needed them.

These businessmen were located around the world (Figure 1 shows company and executive locations) and were assigned as shown in the Table II.

Ten executives were exposed to cultural systems comparable in many respects to those of the United States, that
### TABLE II

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF THE STUDY GROUP
BY CULTURAL AREAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical Area of Assignment</th>
<th>Number of Executives</th>
<th>Per Cent* of Executives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern Europe (e.g., Scandinavia, Germany)</td>
<td>6+</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Europe (e.g., Spain, France, Italy)</td>
<td>10+</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Islands (e.g., England, Scotland)</td>
<td>3+</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America (Mexico, Columbia, Puerto Rico)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentages based upon 38 executive responses. Does not total 100 per cent since two executives were located in more than one geographical region.

+One executive worked in Northern and Southern Europe and British Islands and one businessman was located in Northern and Southern Europe.

is, Northern Europe, British Islands, and Australia. Many (31) were operating in a cultural milieu quite different from the American culture, for example, Latin America (19), Southern Europe (1), Africa (1), Japan (1). Most of the major cultural systems and environments were represented.

**Personal Data About the Overseas Businessmen**

The majority of the company representatives overseas
were relatively young. The company executives were grouped according to age into five categories of 10 year intervals as follows: 20-29 group (1), 30-39 group (14), 40-49 group (13), 50-59 group (10) and 60 and above group (1). There were 28 who were less than 50 years old and 15 of these were not 40 years old at the time. Almost three-fourths of these businessmen were 50 years of age or younger. All of them claimed to enjoy good health regardless of their age (Table III).

### TABLE III

**CONDITION OF THE EXECUTIVES' HEALTH BEFORE AND DURING ASSIGNMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition of Executives' Health</th>
<th>Executives' Health Before Assignment</th>
<th>Executives' Health During Assignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Per Cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Bases are different. Prior health based upon 38 replies, while 39 report present health. Percentages based upon number of respondents.

+One executive's health has declined from good to fair since assignment.
About three-fourths of these executives enjoyed excellent health. There were three who claimed a decline of health from excellent to good. They were in these geographical locations and age brackets: Northern Europe (1), 40-49 bracket; Latin America (2), 30-39 group and 50-59. The latter case might possibly be due to his age. The executive between 50 and 59 who failed to mark prior health marked present health as excellent. He was located in Latin America. The executive whose health shifted from good to fair was over age 60 and located in the British Islands. Again this change might possibly be due to his age. Except for this latter case, all businessmen enjoyed good health.

Over three-fourths (31) had served in the military and most of these were in the leadership capacities of non-commissioned officers and above. Fifteen had been in one foreign area while connected with the military. Many executives had been in numerous overseas areas while serving in the armed forces as shown below (Table IV).

There were eight who had never been in the service. The remaining 31 served in one or several of the above areas. This exposure to foreign environment might possibly have helped them in their overseas work. All of the businessmen graduated from high school and 37 went to college. Of these 37, 33 received bachelor's degrees and 23 continued in professional or graduate school with two receiving advanced degrees. Below is a tabular presentation of their varied undergraduate majors (Table V).
### TABLE IV

**GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS IN WHICH 31 EXECUTIVES SERVED WHILE IN THE MILITARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical Areas Served While in Military</th>
<th>Number of Businessmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States (Alaska and Canada)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Continent</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Islands (England, Scotland)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa (excluding Egypt)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East (including Egypt)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orient (Japan, Korea, China, India)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific (Australia, Pacific Islands)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America (South and Central, Mexico)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean Area</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE V

**UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS FOR 37 OVERSEAS EXECUTIVES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Undergraduate Majors</th>
<th>Number of Executives*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Sciences (chemistry, physics, mathematics)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences (biology, zoology)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science (history, economics, civics)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities (English, literature, foreign languages)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration (management, finance, marketing)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering (electrical, civil, mechanical)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+Industrial Relations-Psychology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Discrepancy in total due to dual major and/or several degrees held by business executives.*

+Executives wrote these in their questionnaires instead of marking established classifications.
The group was heavily weighted with engineering and natural and physical science majors (24) because of the technical nature of the company and industry; over half majored in engineering. About 21 had majors and/or degrees in non-technical areas, for example, business administration and the social sciences. Of the 38 who went to college, over half finished in the upper quartile of their class. There were 16 who ranked academically in the middle of the class and only one was in the lower quarter of his class.

The majority of these well-educated executives tended to marry comparably well-educated women. Most executives (38) were married at one time. All of the wives had some high school training; only three did not graduate. Of those graduating, only seven did not continue their education. Of the 28 (60 per cent) receiving post high school education, 13 received a bachelor's degree, and four continued in graduate or professional studies; two received graduate or professional degrees. Post high school studies in secretarial, vocational, or art schools were pursued by five wives.

There were few cases when the executive was not accompanied by some member(s) of his household. There were seven executives who were married, but had no children.

*It was difficult to determine how many businessmen were married or single because some executives who had been married but were divorced marked "single." Also, there was one executive who marked "single" but wrote that he was a widower. If statistical differences exist some might be attributed to these cases, which, if unqualified, tended to mislead a person in his interpretation of the data.*
Another seven left one or more children stateside while two executives had children in another foreign environment (one had two children, 10 and 13, while the other had a five year old). Two-thirds of the business men had some of their children with them whose ages were:

**TABLE VI**

**AGES OF THE CHILDREN WHO ACCOMPANIED THEIR FATHERS OVERSEAS OR REMAINED IN THE UNITED STATES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages of Children at Time of Assignment</th>
<th>Number of Children With Their Father</th>
<th>Number of Children in U.S.A.</th>
<th>Number of Children in a Different Foreign Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>(3) 2*</td>
<td>1*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*One child accompanied the executive for the first part of his assignment but returned to America for the last two years.

Differences in table accounted for by some children accompanying executives abroad in the beginning and then going back to America. Some executives may have had children below one year old who would not have been tabulated.
It appears that most of the children were preteen-age. Those beginning junior high and high school were usually left stateside. This was possibly done so the child could become better prepared for college. Executives hesitated to leave their younger children in America but tended to leave their teen-agers there, for example, a 14-year-old child remained stateside only for the last two years of the father's tour. A few businessmen (three) had children living in another foreign area other than the assignment area.

Only one executive left his nonteen-age child in America. An executive with children 10 and 13 years old left the children in another foreign area, as did another businessman with a five-year-old child.

Businessmen accompanied by their children showed concern about their health, education, and social and recreational facilities available in the overseas areas to varying degrees. Possibly there were four factors which might have caused these executives to worry. These factors were (1) child's age; (2) personality and maturity of the child; (3) personality and temperament of the parent; and (4) the overseas location.

For one thing, a child under three years old probably keeps the executive concerned; but he can keep the child under closer observation and protection than he can keep an older child. As his children approached junior high, high school, and college age, the businessman possibly became more
concerned about educational facilities available within his assigned area and tended to leave his older children stateside in order to receive a better education. Since the majority of these businessmen were college trained and doubtlessly wished their children to attend the university.

Second, some people are natural worriers. Moreover, the personality and maturity of both parent and child play an important role in determining the degree of concern, as does the overseas location. An executive is less likely to worry in a well-developed country than an underdeveloped country, for example, an executive probably worries less in England than he would if he were stationed in Africa. Regardless of his reasons, the businessman tended to worry about his children (Table VII).

TABLE VII
THE DEGREE OF CONCERN OVER CHILDREN WHO ACCOMPANIED THEIR FATHERS OVERSEAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Degree of Worrying</th>
<th>Number of Executives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Almost one-fourth worried frequently about their children with them; about one-third tended to worry occasionally; a little more than a sixth seldom worried; slightly less than a fourth never worried about the recreational, health, educational, or social facilities available to their children in their assignment area.

**Family and Ancestral Backgrounds of the Businessmen**

Furthermore, the family and ancestral background of these businessmen were another important aspect to consider. Parental lineage varied. The ancestors of eight of the fathers and 11 of the mothers of these businessmen came from northern Europe. Of the others, 11 had fathers and seven had mothers whose lineage could be traced to the British Islands. One had parents from both northern Europe and the British Islands. Most of the parents of these businessmen came from America—13 fathers and 14 mothers. This was well over a third of businessmen's parents coming from America for two generations as shown in Table VIII. A small number had ancestors from southern Europe, Canada, the Orient, and Latin America.

Moreover, the majority of these executives were reared by well-educated parents. All 35 businessmen's fathers and 32 mothers had high school training and 24 fathers and 27 mothers graduated from high school. Some 16 fathers and 12 mothers went to college; 11 fathers and six mothers graduated. There were three fathers who entered graduate or
professional school, and two of these men graduated. This meant that about one-third of the parents of the businessmen attended college and approximately two-thirds of the parents were high school graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ancestry</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th></th>
<th>Mother</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern Europe</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Scandinavia, Germany)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Europe</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(France, Spain)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Islands</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(England, Scotland)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orient</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Japan)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Mexico, Columbia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2 generations)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Europe and British Islands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Europe and British Islands</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentage columns do not total 100 per cent due to rounding.
TABLE IX

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE PARENTS OF THE EXECUTIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Level of Education Attained</th>
<th>Fathers of Executives</th>
<th>Mothers of Executives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Cent*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or two years of college</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three or more years of college</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College graduate</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate or professional school</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate or professional degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Percentage columns do not total 100 per cent due to rounding.

Still another important aspect beside ancestry and formal education of the parents was parental and executive linguistic talent. The businessmen and their parents could speak and/or read 16 languages. In order of frequency, the parents spoke: English, Spanish, German, French, and Italian. Executives listed their linguistic ability in order of frequency: English, Spanish, Italian, French, Portuguese, and German as shown in Table X.

Most of the parents spoke and read English. Over 90 per cent of these executives spoke and read Spanish, which was natural since the company had extensive operations in Latin America and about one-half of its American businessmen
TABLE X
LINGUISTIC TALENT OF THE 39 EXECUTIVES AND THEIR PARENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages</th>
<th>Executive Linguistic Ability</th>
<th>Fathers' Linguistic Ability</th>
<th>Mothers' Linguistic Ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read No. Per Cent</td>
<td>Speak No. Per Cent</td>
<td>Read No. Per Cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>38* 97</td>
<td>38* 97</td>
<td>36* 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>11 28</td>
<td>10 26</td>
<td>5 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>6 15</td>
<td>6 15</td>
<td>7 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>35 90</td>
<td>33 85</td>
<td>4 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>13 33</td>
<td>9 23</td>
<td>3 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>2 5</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norwegian</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>8 21</td>
<td>5 13</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuanian</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
<td>1 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39+ 100+</td>
<td>39 100</td>
<td>39 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*One executive did not mark that he could read or speak English but marked only Spanish. Also one executive marked "none" for his father's reading and speaking ability (perhaps his father is incapable of reading or speaking, that is, blind and mute).

+NOTE: Data do not total 100 per cent but they are based upon a universe of 39 executives and their parents, that is, some spoke and read more than one language.
committed there. Some businessmen could read (eight) and speak (five) Portuguese, while others read (13) and spoke (nine) Italian. Since 19 executives were assigned to Europe and the British Islands, it was important for these businessmen to read and speak French or German.

There appeared to be a high relationship between executive and parental linguistic talent, that is, the parents usually read and/or spoke the same languages as the executive, for example, Japanese, Russian, Scandinavian languages, Dutch, French, German, and Spanish. No doubt these executives were exposed to these specific languages or branches of languages early in life. For instance, speaking French and/or Spanish made it easier for the executive to learn Italian and/or Portuguese or vice versa. Parental languages acted as bridges to the linguistic world and directly or indirectly exposed the executive to the linguistic world or at worst made him sympathetic to them. This was evident since almost all executives (36) were bilingual.

Some 11 businessmen could read and 19 speak another language, while 14 read and 10 spoke two additional languages. Amazingly, seven spoke and read three languages besides English. There were two executives who could read and/or speak five or more languages. This linguistic facility made the businessmen quite versatile for they knew the language of the host country as well as other tongues.

In fact, almost three-fourths of these executives
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Number of Languages, Excluding English</th>
<th>Linguistic Ability of the Executive</th>
<th>Language Proficiency Within the Country</th>
<th>Number of Executives</th>
<th>Per Cent of Executives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read &amp; Per Spoke &amp; Per Cent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11 &amp; 28 &amp; 19 &amp; 49</td>
<td>Read easily-speak fluently</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14 &amp; 36 &amp; 10 &amp; 26</td>
<td>Read and speak passably</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7 &amp; 18 &amp; 7 &amp; 18</td>
<td>Read and understand only</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1 &amp; 3 &amp; 0 &amp; 0</td>
<td>Could understand only</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1 &amp; 3 &amp; 1 &amp; 3</td>
<td>Did not know language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1 &amp; 3 &amp; 1 &amp; 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 or more</td>
<td>1 &amp; 3 &amp; 0 &amp; 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** Totals do not equal 39 nor 100 per cent in all cases since some spoke more than one foreign language and three could read and one speak only English.
stated that they could read the newspaper of the host country easily and fluently speak the language in normal conversation. About six had a passable knowledge of the host's language. There were only two who were not completely comfortable with the host language—one understood but he was unable to read or speak the language and one did not know the language at all.

Furthermore, more executives were exposed to the rigors and adventures of traveling because 25 executives (64 per cent) had been in nine or more states, and 35 (90 per cent) had been in one or more foreign countries before age 21. There were two who had visited nine countries or more and one who had gone around the world at least once before their 21st birthday. Armed with this linguistic ability and exposed to various cultures and environments, these executives were somewhat prepared to meet the rigors, differences, and cultural shocks incurred by executives in a foreign culture and milieu discussed in Chapter III.
CHAPTER III

THE EXECUTIVE IN THE CULTURAL MILIEU OVERSEAS

CULTURE DEFINED

Edward B. Tylor, the great anthropologist, defined culture as a complex whole which consists of beliefs, laws, customs, art, and habits acquired by its societal members. Each societal member contributes to the maturity, development and evolution of culture.¹

Culture includes the societal members' behavior patterns and values which have been socially transmitted within the society. Usually these beliefs culminate into what is commonly called customs, which include man's behavior and artifacts, for example, knives, forks, paintings, and so forth, which are the man-made implements resulting from human behavior. Culture is "... cultivated behavior, that is the totality of man's learned, accumulated experience which is socially transmitted, or more briefly, behavior acquired through social learning."² This social learning


occurs through the process and system of culture.

CULTURE AS A SYSTEM

The system of culture is composed of a body of culture and the individual (Figure 3). The body of culture includes customs and artifacts, for example, language, tools, attitudes, norms, and values. The body of culture and individual are free to interact upon each other (cultural process). Through interaction the system grows and each person participates, experiences, and perceives the body of culture differently. Each interaction impresses the individual in different ways and varying degrees. Such differences form individual attitudes and value system and so make it possible within a society and culture system for each person to possess different concepts, aspects, and ramifications about the body of culture.

THE SYSTEM OF CULTURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Individual</th>
<th>The Body of Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The state of Concepts &amp; Motives</td>
<td>The overt evidence of Concepts and Motives in the forms of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal to the Individual</td>
<td>A. Language, artifacts, sociofacts, and other behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. Expressed norms, attitudes, and consensus terms; approach and avoidance; approval and disapproval, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 3

The individual's or executive's experiences with this body of culture and environment formulate his values and attitudes, which in turn, affect his reactions to specific aspects of culture. The executive forms from these experiences his taste in dress, food, and clothing, and his standard of living—called behavior patterns or cultural patterns.

The cultural system is a dynamic system with homeostatic tendencies which tend to stabilize the system internally, that is, put the body of culture and individual (executive) at equilibrium, and externally, that is, put the cultural system and environment at rest. The executive's interaction with the body of culture often causes disequilibrium because,

... the content of culture varies directly with the concepts and motives of people, which concepts and motives vary directly with the content of the culture. A culture system thus has no a priori "preference" for one position rather than another. ... Any operative culture system contains subsystems which establish and maintain certain norms, or consensus values about many things. These subsystems do have an equilibrating action which tends to maintain whatever particular level the system happens to have attained. The main subsystem is essentially that of deviation and conformity, in which the pressure to conformity varies directly with the deviation, and the deviation varies inversely with the pressure of conformity.

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3Homeostatis is characteristic of all systems and means "a relatively stable state of equilibrium or tendency toward such a state, between the different but independent elements and subsystems of an organism of any kind." Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (second edition; Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Meriam Co., Publishers, 1960), p. 395.

4Alfred Kuhn, The Study of Society: A Unified Approach
The executive's decisions and behavior impinge upon his environment and the cultural system. Executive behavior assumes meaning only when judged in terms of his environment and culture which act as reference points from which the executive determines his best course of action towards his and company goals. The value of such goals is culturally and environmentally determined. The executive's assumptions about goals, decisions, and the means to goal attainment are subject to his perception and interpretation of the body of culture and environment. The culture and environment, in turn, prescribe the executive's value system and behavior which guides his assumptions. If the assumptions of the executive are correct and his fellow societal members subscribe to his value system within the body of culture or culture, the executive receives a positive reaction to interaction with the culture and environment (reward). Conversely, societal disapproval causes an undesired result and reaction from the cultural interaction (punishment) which terminates his behavior. Such reactions inform the executive as to which course of action to pursue. This is called feedback (Figure 4) and aids the executive in determining his course of action through the positive and negative pressures of the environment upon him. Through these repercussions the businessman alters and steers his course of actions and

Beliefs in the culture about authority, etc.

Management assumptions about organization, etc.

Emergent behavior pattern of organization, especially organizational norms

Consequences for organizational purpose, group maintenance and development, individual development, etc.

All other determinants

Feedback

FIGURE 4

THE EXECUTIVE AND HIS ENVIRONMENT

CULTURE AS A PROCESS

The dynamics of culture, i.e., the executive's mutual interaction with culture, cause cultural change. Cultural change arises when one culture meets another culture and one accepts the other's traits or the two combine to form a new culture. The processes are diffusion and acculturation.

. . . Changes in every culture are sometimes local in origin (the result of discoveries and inventions), sometimes introduced from the outside. Whether the change represents the accommodation of one or few new elements introduced without conspicuous plan or coercion (the whole process known as diffusion) or whether it is the adaptation of one culture to the coercive demands of another (acculturation), the actual situation is likely to follow a complicated course in which the new elements are received, rejected or altered according to the interaction of a large number of variables. 6

Often the diffusion process occurs without the merging of two cultural systems. Instead, one cultural system mimics another's cultural traits and behavior, e.g., Japanese business executives wearing occidental dress or American businessmen observing the Mexican siesta time in Mexico City. In neither case is there an actual merging of these two societies or cultures.


Conversely, acculturation transpires through direct contact of two cultures. Whereby the weaker culture assumes the stronger culture's traits and customs. "... In essence, assimilation (a degree of acculturation) is the substitution of one nationality pattern for another. Ordinarily, the modification must be made by the weaker or numerically inferior group." 7

Whenever two cultural systems meet, cultural traits and elements are altered, received (diffusion and acculturation processes) or rejected. Often resistance or rejection of a cultural trait and cultural system causes conflict. Such conflict arises when two cultural systems or groups meet and resistance—friction evolves. This is called cross-cultural conflict.

CROSS-CULTURAL CONFLICT

Whenever the American business executive enters the cultural systems and milieu overseas, he introduces cultural traits (customs, concepts, values) which are alien to these systems overseas and, in turn, is similarly confronted by cultural traits of these foreign systems. Often such encounters cause frustration and a feeling of insecurity within

the American executive abroad. This is called "cultural shock," which is a term used in describing or diagnosing the physiological and psychological rigidity of a person who gradually realizes that his customs and behavior patterns, which he normally took for granted, are not applicable nor acceptable to this new cultural system and environment. Often the executive's refusal or inability to cope emotionally and psychologically with these problems results in discontentment, extreme conservatism, or an inability to deal with the people.\(^8\)

Frustrations by continued rejection by local inhabitants destroy the executive's self-confidence in his ability to effectively handle the inhabitants. The increased frequency and severity of such cultural shocks deteriorates the executive to a point where he becomes inoperative and ineffective. Usually such cultural shocks originate from the executive's ethnocentric attitude and/or unfamiliarity with the customs, traditions, and culture abroad. The executive's reaction to these stimuli project an image of insensitivity, shallowness, indifference, rashness, or general rejection of local customs.\(^9\) In return the people reciprocate by rejecting


the American executive. This rejection frustrates him and leads to ever-increasing loss of self-confidence resulting in the executive's ineffectiveness and inoperativeness in the overseas milieu. Oberg believes:

Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves to the situations of daily life (shaking hands, dinner manners)... Now these cues which may be words, gestures, facial expressions, customs, or norms are acquired by all of us in the course of growing up and are as much a part of our culture as the language we speak or the beliefs we accept. All of us depend for our peace of mind and our efficiency on hundreds of these cues, most of which we do not carry on the level or conscious awareness. Now when an individual enters a strange culture, all or most of these familiar cues are removed... The removal of these familiar cues cause unconscious feelings and insecurities to rise to the level of awareness: the person becomes very uncomfortable. They might feel people are staring at them or talking about them. Under these conditions little slights become grievances. The person feels awkward and continually off balance—somewhat like a fish out of water for Oberg continues to observe,

... No matter how broadminded or full of good will you may be, a series of props have been knocked out from under you, followed by a feeling of frustration and anxiety. People react to the frustration in much the same way. First, they reject the environment which causes the discomfort: "the ways of the host country are bad because they make us feel bad." When

Americans or other foreigners in a strange land get together to grouse about the host country and its people—you can be sure they are suffering from culture shock. Another phase of culture shock is regression. The home environment suddenly assumes a tremendous importance. To an American everything American becomes irrationally glorified. All the difficulties and problems are forgotten and only the good things back home are remembered. . . .

SOME CAUSES OF CULTURAL CONFLICT

Subsequent to cultural shock, which the businessman receives upon exposure to foreign customs, traditions, and behavior patterns, are other factors which cause conflict within the executive and his frictional-interaction within the foreign milieu (foreign cultural system and environment). Some of the causes of cultural conflict are (1) ethnocentrism; (2) latent and manifest culture patterns; (3) inappropriate American philosophy and management principles; (4) divergence of time perception; (5) miscommunications; (6) personality; and (7) attitude toward assignment.

Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism, or an ethnocentric attitude, occurs when an individual uses his culture and values as a reference point for making decisions and judging his outside environment. Predicating his decisions upon such a self-centered viewpoint colors the executive's attitudes and assumptions about the environment. His assumptions are prejudiced and

11Ibid., pp. 27-28.
erroneous. Therefore, his administrative decisions and behavior, based upon such assumptions, lead the executive toward behavior or goals which are met with repudiation by the cultural system and its members, as shown in Figure 4. Such rejections by factors of the milieu can lead to further frustration and conflict if the executive erroneously interprets these rejections and feels that they are hostilities or prejudices against him or Americans in general.

For ... each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own diversities, and looks with contempt on outsiders. Each group thinks its own folkways the only right ones, and if it observes that other groups have other folkways, these excite them to scorn.¹²

The American executive finds such cultural differences troublesome on two grounds. First, he is presented with a strange managerial environment which he does not thoroughly understand. Second, the businessman does not know how to handle them: "... the U.S. businessman should adjust his actions and methods of management to fit the local culture..."¹³ but such an adjustment is more than an intellectual reorientation to the foreign milieu.

Environmental adjustment requires more than an intellectual adaptation or process. For if it were merely


¹³John Fayerweather, op. cit., p. 32. For further executive problems overseas see John Fayerweather, The Executive Overseas (Syracuse University Press, 1959).
intellectual, his prejudices against the culture and overseas environment would remain entrenched within the executive. The successful reduction of the executive's ethnocentric attitude requires

Man-to-man appreciation, sympathy for the people whose customs we study. An anthropologist who lives closely with people he studies and shares their joys and sorrows gains an appreciation of them and their cultures which transcends purely intellectual understanding. . . .

However, it is impossible to teach culture in the same way that language can be taught. Culture understanding calls for such qualities as empathy in the investigator.  

Latent and Manifest Cultural Patterns

It is necessary for the executive (investigator) to possess empathy, for not all of the cultural conflict is observable even on the conscious level of human behavior. Two types of cultural patterns affect an administrator's effectiveness within the cultural system. These are latent and manifest cultural patterns.

Latent cultural behavior is on the subconscious level, has subconscious values, and is often unobserved. Its values are not usually recognizable or verbalized but they greatly influence and govern the executive's behavior and life. Such cultural patterns are expressed in the manifest

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level of behavior or overt actions.

Conversely, manifest behavior patterns are observable and are on the conscious level. These are usually recognized by the executive. Where society and cultural milieu prescribe the social roles and value of an object within its system (manifest culture), latent values and behavior patterns are abstract and personally established. For instance, a watch previously owned by a deceased parent may have little intrinsic value (manifest value) but to the individual it is priceless (latent value).

Gouldern showed that it is often the latent roles and values within an organization and culture which prohibit or curtail fusion or assimilation of the individual within the system. Similarly Hodgson, while studying American executives in the Iranian oil industry, discovered that cultural conflict arose

... from the latent patterns of Western-Iranian systems, mainly because the latent patterns are not verbalized, and therefore not understood by the members of either group. Adjustment between members of diverse cultures can be made more readily at the manifest level because the conflicting norms are visible or verbalized. ...  

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Inappropriate American Philosophy and Management Principles

Often deluded by such manifest cultural patterns, especially if the cultural system duplicates the American system quite closely (e.g., England), the American executive fallaciously believes that he can transfer and utilize his American philosophy, management principles, and his state-side experience in solving business problems in the foreign milieu. McCann stated that American management philosophy was inappropriate for a Latin American setting due to cultural differences. Eugene C. McCann, "Appropriateness of United States Management Philosophy in a Latin American Setting" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, 1963), p. 231.

Oberg's study on American-Brazilian management practices concluded that (1) if management principles were universal, they must be able to stand the test and challenge of different cultures, and (2) the universality of management principles was more of a statement of hopes and faith, rather

than a statement of fact based upon empirical evidence from cross-cultural research. His conclusions suggested that management principles were only applicable within a particular culture or social climate and inappropriate for the Brazilian culture and environment.20

Divergence of Time Perception

An American executive, supported by his ethnocentric attitude and belief that American principles and stateside experiences are applicable within the overseas area, establishes punctuality standards similar to those found in the States. An American executive became frustrated and angry when a Latin-American associate arrived fifty minutes late for an appointment, which is the accepted standard of time and custom in Latin America. This conflict could have been overcome had the executive been educated in and adjusted himself to the customs of the country.21

American businessmen seldom realize that time and time perception is an acquired cultural trait of, and peculiar to, a particular cultural system. Time and time perception differ with each cultural system around the world.22


22Hall, op. cit., p. 25.
Longevity Attitude Towards Assignment:
The Theory of Temporal Adaptation

Like the executive's misconception of time element within the overseas environment, the American executive's attitude toward people, customs, and environment of his overseas assignment are shaded by his time perception or the longevity of his assignment. The length of his assignment and the executive's attitude and view of this length greatly affect the executive's effectiveness overseas. If the executive considers the duration of his job as a short period of time, he tends to assume the characteristics and attitudes of a tourist and feels no compulsion or responsibility to adapt or adjust to the overseas environment. Such a tourist attitude is reflected in his behavior. A tourist is not particularly concerned with the cultural shock encountered in the overseas community. Customs, traditions, eating habits, and language disturb the tourist; but he feels no compulsion, desire, or responsibility to learn, understand, practice, or adapt to these cultural factors, because

. . . his tourist status lends him a degree of invulnerability, and he is not obliged to adjust fully to the land he is visiting. He is expected not to know; he can err without reprisal; he may even break some laws with impunity. His relations tend to be of a surface character, and if there is strain or conflict, it, too, is superficial. His ties to his homeland are unimpaired, and his native culture remains a steady reference for his judgments and actions.\(^23\)

\(^{23}\) Broom and Selznick, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 85.
The executive who considers the duration of his job as a short period of time feels no compulsion or responsibility to adapt or adjust to the overseas environment.

Two types of adaptation are necessary. The first is an early adjustment to the initial cultural shock or new way of life. The second adjustment is the adaptation to the specific traits and features of the cultural system and environment germane to that particular country. The former is a short term adaptation dealing with the usual problems of food, smells, and language. These are easily assessed and adjusted to, this is a form of temporal adaptation, i.e., adaptation and adjustment for a short period of time. It is known that

A much larger group of Americans in industry abroad are on a temporary basis. Their motivations, goals, and expectations are quite different. Many of them expect to live in a state of physical and social deprivation and do so for the money which is offered. The personnel policies of industry frequently require the man to leave his family in the U.S. for the duration of his overseas assignment. Although a higher salary will recruit personnel willing to undergo this kind of arrangement, such personnel living in a state of deprivation reflect this in their human relations with the local people and adversely affect the morale of the American community where they are stationed.24

The latter, however, is a more permanent form of adaptation; it requires greater skill and effort. The degree of difficulty and adjustment are directly proportional to the

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length of time of the assignment.

The latter long-term adjustment depends more upon the length of time of the assignment, the individual's goals and motives for accepting the overseas work, the place it occupies in his life-plan, and the successful or unsuccessful outcome of his work. In this respect, differences in types of overseas service present varying challenges. For example, in brief overseas assignments the individual's way is often made smooth for him and his adaptation problems may be minimal, while in the career service or in assignments lasting a number of years, the adaptations required may be major and continuing. 25

All too often the executive resorts to the overseas community or colony rather than coping with the frustrations of adjustment and adapting to the customs and traditions of the cultural milieu overseas. Conversely, some unstable American businessmen adapt so completely to the new culture that they reject their fellow countrymen and culture and go "native," becoming more native than the local people, i.e., more Japanese than the Japanese.26 This latter case is overcompensation for cultural shock and shows the immaturity of the American executive in his inability to meet this new challenge.

Illustrations of the theory of temporal adaptation.

Americans who resort to the American colonies or communities overseas abdicate interest and responsibility for learning about the customs, country, and people. Joan Crawford

25 Ibid., p. 495.

26 Cleveland, op. cit., p. 155.
referred to them as the "Run-away Americans" who attempted to establish "parasitic relationships" with the foreign milieu when they transplanted their culture in toto overseas. She observed that these people had no roots in the host country and were unsuccessful in transplanting their roots for fear of having to move again tomorrow. Finally, the Americans were forced to return to America because being "rootless" they could not survive for an extended period of time away from home without having established roots in the foreign country (adapting to the culture). 27

In essence these people always remain tourists even though they may reside for a long period of time within the country. Those who assume a more mature attitude towards their foreign culture and milieu, adapt and replace frustration with success and effectiveness. Peter O'Toole adapted so successfully to the Bedouin culture while making the film, Lawrence of Arabia, that the Arabs called him "El-Aurens," the same name given to Lawrence. 28 Similarly Conrad Hilton has adapted his hotel operations so successfully that the sun never sets on the Hilton chain. 29

These latter cases illustrate a more mature attitude

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29 R. Steinberg, "Mr. Hilton Opens a Hotel," The Saturday Evening Post, CCXXXVII (November 2, 1963), 68.
towards the culture and adaptation; whereas, the first case of the "Runaways" illustrates disinterest, unwillingness, and a negative attitude toward the country, culture, people, and adaptation. This is a divergence of philosophy—of attitude—of viewpoints. This is the theory of temporal adaptation.

**The theory of temporal adaptation.** It has been shown that executives who view their assignments as temporary, assume the attitude and feelings of a tourist who neither desires nor tries to adjust to the culture. These executives feel they are immune to the government, customs, traditions, and culture of their environment. They fallaciously believe, since they will be in the country for a short period of time, the people will consider them as tourists and make allowances for their errors. American businessmen cloaked in the tourist attitude feel it is not important to know or understand the culture, language, and customs of their host country. All too often such American businessmen are described by foreigners as someone who wants to "... grab the money and run."30

Conversely, the nationals feel these Americans are betraying the host country. The host country does not view individual executives as either Mr. Jones or Mr. Smith who has come for only a one or two-year period. Rather the host

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community considers the executive collectively as an American -- an immigrant, part of an immigrant community with alien cultures and customs. Such a community is a subculture of the cultural system. The cultural system is intolerant of minority groups or subcultures which will not conform and adapt to its customs, culture, and language. The dominant culture (host country or cultural system) views the overseas community and the American's importation of their culture through movies, dresses, foods, cars, as an affront and a revolt against the dominant culture.

The dominant culture of host country rejects such executives and makes them ineffective overseas. Such rejections intensify cultural shock and cause a continued loss of self-confidence, feeling of insecurity, and frustration within the American executive. This often progresses to a point at which the executive resorts to escapes such as alcoholism, full committal to the American community, over-compensation by going "native"; or he ultimately may leave the country.

**Miscommunications**

The executive experiences cultural shock through communications. Miscommunications transpire through verbal, physical, and written forms. Anyone who has traveled into a foreign country has experienced the cultural shock and frustration caused by an inability to converse, ask directions, carry on discussions, and communicate with local inhabitants.
generally. Written communication is a personification of this same type of frustration and cultural shock.

Behavioral, or physical, miscommunication, however, is far more subtle and less obvious to the American businessman and tourist; and yet the American communicates his thoughts, intentions, and values just as much through his behavior and actions as he does through either verbal or written communications. Hall calls this "the silent language." The American executive's gestures and behavior patterns also are misinterpreted and miscommunicated to the overseas inhabitants, which lead to cross-cultural conflict.

Because of the vast expanse of lands of this country, most Americans have a fetish for space, valuing it as private property and personal domain. Americans have a strong desire for wide-open spaces and dislike close quarters or close contact. Any intrusion is considered a personal affront and invasion of the American businessman's privacy. The American executive resists this invasion, interpreting it as a challenge of his authority and rights to this area. He quickly meets it with resistance and sometimes overt reactions.

Conversely, Latins, a very friendly and warm people, consider closeness as a sign of friendship and a communicative necessity. Unless they are at a close proximity with the recipient of their messages, Latins feel very uncomfortable. Americans, on the other hand, are provoked by such
behavior. When the Latin American businessmen move close, American executives make a hasty withdrawal. Latins interpret from such behavior that the American executive is cold and unfriendly, while the American, in turn, misinterprets Latin behavior as being hostile and unfriendly, disliking his overbearance and crowdiness. In order to protect himself from this Latin behavior, the American businessman often places obstacles, e.g., desks, chairs, in the path of his South American business colleagues. This results in the Latin businessman's scaling these obstacles in order to reach the American executives at a comfortable distance to carry on business conversations.\textsuperscript{31}

**Personality**

The above behavior is a direct reflection of the personality of the two businessmen. The personality of an executive can affect his behavior overseas and either reduce or intensify conflict from miscommunications. A businessman has individualistic or group-oriented personality. A businessman with an individualistic personality or attitude distrusts his associates and views work relationships as a necessary evil, while an executive with a group-oriented personality relates company and personal goals in terms of group effort. He relishes fellow-worker assistance in goal-attainment (Figure 5).

\textsuperscript{31}Hall, \textit{op. cit.}, pp. 187-209.
Personality differences affect executive behavior stateside but they have an even greater influence upon the businessman's performance overseas. Since culture and society personify the collective personalities of their members, these culture systems and societies possess individualistic and group-oriented personalities and attitudes concerning human relationships.

American culture favors group effort. Its industrial
society advocates a group-oriented attitude towards its workers. Because of their economic and social patterns, other countries subscribe to a strong individualistic personality with dominant, almost autocratic managers steering the industries and businesses. This attitude is often a reflection of economic conditions, ill-trained administrators, and a history of colonial imperialism. Cross-cultural conflict results when these two personalities meet. Americans intensify and complicate this conflict when these businessmen practice paternalism toward nationals, thus re-enforcing the subordinate's resentment to his superior.32

Unfortunately, many American businessmen fail to realize these cultural and philosophical differences which become deeply ingrained within their personalities. Such personality difference and behavior patterns offend local inhabitants, cause cross-cultural conflict, and intensify cultural shock. When some American businessmen fail, many others are able to function effectively under these conditions. Some people believe that these successful and effective executives possess particular personalities or traits which facilitate their ability to function overseas. Some 10 traits have been hypothesized as being a few of the qualities helpful for effective performance overseas and these traits will now be analyzed in the following chapters.

CHAPTER IV

DEFINITIVE PARAMETERS OF THE COMPANY PERFORMANCE TRAITS AND CULTURAL DETERMINANTS AND THEIR QUESTIONNAIRE INDICATORS

This study was based upon the hypothesis that there were many cultural traits that determine an executive's successful performance abroad. However, only 10 of these are studied in detail in this work. Those cultural traits which were found to affect the performance of the subject executives to any significant degree were heuristic attitude; societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; emotionally stable and a mature personality; cultural empathy; communicative skills; international philosophy; belief in mission; technical competence; organizational skills; and political sensitivity. In this chapter each of these traits was defined and its relationship to performance was explained. The results of the questionnaire study were shown for each of these traits in Chapter V.

Since it was assumed that what a man is currently doing and has done in the past acts as a good indicator of what he is, an indirect effort was made through disguised questions in the questionnaire to ascertain to what extent each executive possessed any or all of the cultural traits.
It was hypothesized that if there were a direct and positive relationship between the answers to the questions and the person's performance rating, then the executive possessed each of the traits and it affected his productivity.

In trying to accomplish the above goal, the response of selected executives to selected questions (which were called indicators) was analyzed and compared against the latest company performance rating of the subject manager by means of Chi Square and Fisher Tests. The performance ratings were used as objective criteria for measuring each trait's contribution to the executive's overseas effectiveness.

THE COMPANY CRITERIA FOR APPRAISING EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

The company has used a standardized form for appraising its executive's performance in both its stateside and overseas operations. The form, the criteria used, and the categories used to show the degree to which each executive exhibited each performance criteria had been standardized for many years prior to this study. The importance and necessity of accurate ratings and evaluations were stressed to each appraiser throughout the company; in fact, each official spent several hours in performing the evaluation on each of his subordinates.

This study did not introduce bias into the performance evaluations because these ratings were made within the
preceding year prior to this investigation and without fore­knowledge that these ratings would be used in this study. Therefore, it was assumed that the evaluations were accurate portrayals of each executive's performance and could be used as an objective measurement of his effectiveness as a pro­ducer.

The Performance Criteria

The company used 13 criteria in evaluating and rating each executive's performance. There were: (1) "knowledge"; (2) "ability to get things done"; (3) "character"; (4) "planning"; (5) "ability to organize"; (6) "initiative"; (7) "decision making"; (8) "communications"; (9) "ability to motivate people"; (10) "ability to develop people"; (11) "control"; (12) "present over-all performance rating"; and (13) "potential for advancement."

This latter trait, "potential for advancement," was not subjected to statistical analysis for several reasons. First, some managers were promoted recently and their present potential ratings were not a reflection of their normal overseas capabilities or potential because their chances for another advancement in the near future were remote. Their scores, therefore, would be low and not a true reflection of their normal abilities. Second, some executives had not been on their assignments for a sufficient length of time to receive meaningful potential ratings. The writer eliminated this trait from the study because it tended to bias the study
findings but it was included and defined below in order to present an accurate and unabridged rating form for the reader to evaluate.

When the superior was evaluating the employees on the trait, "knowledge," he considered the subject manager's understanding of his duties and his ability to execute those duties. Furthermore, top management was concerned with whether the executive had the experience necessary to accomplish his job and fulfill his company responsibilities.

Next, the rater considered the quantity and quality of work performed by the businessmen before they were evaluated for their "ability to get things done." An additional element of this trait was what results these managers accomplished.

Each superior assessed his subordinate's ability to execute company objectives, ideals, and policies as discussed in Chapter II whenever he rated the subject manager on the trait, "character." Furthermore, each was evaluated on his social and community relationships, personality, and total character.

In rating the trait, "planning," the subordinate was evaluated on his ability to foresee and provide for future events. The executive was expected to think through and make proper provision for the goals he wished to accomplish.

"Initiative" was a two-fold trait. First, top management was concerned with creativity; second, it appraised the
executive's ability to be self-motivated. Could the manager motivate himself into originating ideas, and did he possess the capabilities to develop constructive ideas and actions?

Whenever an executive could make sound and timely decisions he could expect a good rating in "decision-making." Also the company was interested in his ability to form opinions as well as reach sound and appropriate conclusions.

The trait "communications" involved more than just the ability to communicate. It measured the desire of the ratee to communicate and keep superiors and subordinates informed which, by necessity, required the manager to be self-informed.

The "ability to motivate people" was an assessment of the manager's capabilities to encourage others. He was expected to inspire people to their best performance in reaching company goals.

Furthermore, the "ability to develop people" was an estimate of the subordinate's ability to develop his personnel for promotion, while "control" was an evaluation of his establishment of criteria for measuring personnel and departmental effectiveness in attaining objectives. The company expected its administrators to regulate and evaluate the results of personnel and departmental progress towards their goals.

"Present over-all performance" was the rater's appraisal of the total performance of the previous traits and
job by the rated executive. The subject manager was assessed on performance in the execution of his "principal responsibilities."

The manager was also rated on his "ability for advancement." After analyzing his past and present performance records, as well as his education, experience, total character, personality, and the previous 12 traits, he received a score for potential advancement as follows:

(1) presently not promotable; (2) advancement limited; (3) potential to higher position in ANOTHER LINE; (4) potential to higher position in PRESENT LINE; and (5) potential BEYOND NEXT higher position in PRESENT LINE. ¹

The Rating Process

An abbreviated facsimile of the company rating form is presented below. These classifications are used for the company traits except the trait "ability for advancement," which was previously discussed.

The executives received scores from one to five for each of the 12 company traits. Occasionally an evaluator gave a mid-point rating for the executive's performance of a company trait, e.g., a 3.5 score for the trait "knowledge," indicating the executive demonstrated knowledge about the company to a greater degree than a three score (consistently meeting standards) but less than a four score (consistently beyond full standards). The evaluator could explain the

¹Evaluation criteria were taken directly from the company rating form, with emphasis added.
INSTRUCTIONS: Think about the person's present job performance. Read each appraisal item carefully. Check the appropriate box under each item.

(1) If person's present performance on this item is consistently less than full standards of his position.

(2) If less than full standards.

(3) If he consistently meets full standards.

(4) If consistently beyond full standards.

(5) If consistently far beyond full standards.

In the right hand column elaborate on the rating given. Consider last year's development plan as you make this appraisal.

| KNOWLEDGE—Does he have the knowledge and experience necessary to carry out the responsibilities of his job? |
|---|---|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |

FIGURE 6

AN ABBREVIATED FACSIMILE OF THE COMPANY RATING FORM
reasons for a particular rating in the space provided after each company trait.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL TRAITS AND PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS

As mentioned previously, the 10 cultural traits hypothesized as affecting overseas performance were heuristic attitude; societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; emotionally stable and mature personality; cultural empathy; communicative skills; international philosophy; belief in mission; technical competence; organizational skills; and political sensitivity. The questionnaire contained questions which were intended to act as indicators or measurements of the extent to which the manager possessed each of these cultural traits. The executive's response to these specific questions or trait indicators when evaluated with each manager's performance rating scores indicated the presence of these cultural traits within the businessman. These results were discussed in Chapter V.

Heuristic Attitude

The executive who possesses a heuristic attitude has a desire to explore the unknown or experience the different, exotic, and strange. It is that characteristic which drives some men to climb mountains, explore the ocean depths, chart unexplored regions, or become the avant-garde of customs and manners.
Often this adventurous and pioneer spirit springs from childhood dreams of adventure, intrigue, visiting foreign lands, and curiosity. Sometimes magazines (e.g., *National Geographic*), stamp and coin collections, travel, and parental or school experiences whet the youth's appetite for adventure. Also military service sometimes generates or revitalizes the adventurous and pioneer spirit of the person when he is exposed to the rigors of adapting to new situations and people, foreign cultures and countries, and political relationships of military life.²

Some firms find executives with overseas experience or liberal arts backgrounds make successful overseas personnel. Others employ businessmen with military experience or majors in international programs or experience from studies abroad.³ "Altruistic adventure," missionary spirit,⁴ and an impulse to travel are also selective criteria for choosing overseas representatives since such spirit helps cushion the


executive to the hardships and rigors of foreign foods, climates, inconveniences, and living conditions which, without this attitude, might appear insurmountable and intolerable. Instead, the executive with a heuristic outlook sees these factors as opportunities and adventures. This optimistic and positive attitude conditions the executive for receptive, flexible, and adaptive views of foreign cultures and environments.

Some overseas failures have often resulted from the executive's inability or lack of desire to adapt to the business procedures and conditions abroad. Heuristic attitude encourages a desire to adapt and makes the executive feel comfortable within the cultural milieu.

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of a Heuristic Attitude

In order to ascertain if the businessmen had this cultural trait, the following traits were included in the questionnaire: his teen-age reading interests and hobbies; present executive interests; his military experience; his eating habits; his attitudes towards travel and vacations; his ability to adapt equipment or make innovations to meet the situation; his attitude toward talking to strangers; and the punctuality standards he used overseas.

The question on teen-age reading habits and hobbies was designed to measure the degree of adventure and pioneer spirit of the executive in his childhood. Furthermore, some
authorities believed hobbies which can be transmitted overseas easily help the executive's adjustment and may even be a cause of his international career, e.g., collecting foreign coins and stamps can develop a heuristic attitude within the businessman and can easily be practiced overseas. His present reading interests were explored in addition to his teen-age interests. For instance, those interested in political and historical reading might have a better understanding of the host country's culture, history, and traditions as well as possess a heuristic view of the assignment.

The degree of the executive's willingness to try new and strange foods (measured in eating habits) evaluated his inquiring, adventurous spirit into experiencing the new and unknown, which he would surely be exposed to in an overseas assignment. The question of his feelings about talking to strangers also measured this heuristic, inquiring spirit, since it evaluated the executive's flexibility and attitude to meeting people he did not know and adjusting himself accordingly. It evaluated the image he projected to local personnel.

Similarly, the questions on travel and vacations measured the executive's interests and feelings about traveling as well as acceptance of the rigors and stresses of continual movement from place to place. This question determined the businessman's rigidity as did the vacation indicator which measured the degree of structuralism, i.e., executives
who made detailed vacation plans versus those who made general or no vacation plans.

Previous military experience assessed two things: (1) prior exposure to the military attitude towards movement and travel, and (2) exposure to foreign countries and cultures. The question about his ability to adapt or improvise equipment was intended to evaluate previous experience in meeting situations and creativity.

Finally, the punctuality standards used overseas estimated the businessman's recognition of cultural differences and, more importantly, his handling of these differences.

**Societal, Environmental and Cultural Mobility**

Another important overseas trait is the ability of the executive to move uninhibited through societal strata and cultural milieu of different cultural systems. This trait differs from heuristic attitude, which measures one's adventurous and adaptive spirit, since mobility measures the executive's ability to adapt and adjust to numerous strata and echelons of various cultures and subcultures of the same or different cultural systems.

Heuristic attitude which measures adaptive ability does not necessarily evaluate a consistent ability to adapt to other cultural systems and subsystems. Because a businessman can adapt to one culture, e.g., Culture A, there is no assurance that he can adapt to another culture, e.g., Culture B. It is not even assured that he can adapt to a subculture
of "A." In other words, mobility evaluates an executive's consistent adaptive ability. The ability to adapt means the adaptation to a particular set of behavior patterns and culture body of a specific system and milieu which is defined as part of heuristic attitude. Mobility complements this trait and completes the adaptive cycle by measuring the continual mental and physical adaptive ability to different cultural systems, subsystems, milieus, and societal strata.

For instance, some cultures place greater stress on the integration of societal standards and customs into business practice than do other cultures. For example, the Japanese business transactions involve a considerable utilization of societal standards and customs. American businessmen who negotiate business contracts with Japanese managers discover very intricate and complicated business ceremonies intermingled with their business transactions. Although American executives initiate the mercantile business negotiations, it is not long before they become pawns of the societal, cultural, and environmental customs and traditions of the Japanese culture, which Tokuyama explains this way:

In Japan, business and personal life are mixed to

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5Stieglitz, op. cit., p. 5.

a degree rarely found in the United States. The Japanese must choose his business for life, and it then becomes an integral part of living. Japanese business paternalism is basic to his consideration. There is every effort to make each group in society a part of the functioning whole. Thus elaborate manners infuse business as well as personal life in Japan.

Sometimes American-Japanese business transactions take six times longer and require three times the effort to complete than does business in the United States. Japanese businessmen have been known to remain silent for 30 minutes during business conferences as they ponder and weigh each move as cautiously as a chess master evaluates his opponent during a tournament. Tact and patience are needed; one executive thought working in Japan was like living on another planet. Conversely, European businessmen make a distinct delineation between their business and personal life.

The trait of cultural, societal, and environmental mobility plays an important role in the adaptive process. The multiplicity and divergence of the environment and the societal and cultural milieu require flexibility and

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sustained adjustment and adaptation to meet the myriad array of systems and subsystems—each requiring specific adjustments and adaptations to meet specific conditions. The ability to meet these continual adjustments on the continuum of cultural systems is called mobility.

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of Mobility

In order to determine if the executive possibly possessed the trait, societal, environmental, and cultural mobility, the following questions were in the questionnaire: foreign and travel experience of the executive; his collegiate and present feelings about social gatherings; his general attitude toward people; his societal experiences from collegiate organizations; punctuality standards used by him overseas; application of American management principles by the executive; his attitude toward the host country; and, the spouse's and executive's attitudes about going overseas.

The question concerning the executive's prior overseas experiences measures the businessman's past mobility in other cultures and countries. It also indicates his success in the overseas area to some degree. Another measure of his mobility would be the amount of travel he had had in the United States and foreign countries. The more he has been exposed to different cultures and people the better are his chances at less cultural shock—the more receptive he probably

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will be to different cultural systems. Moreover, the businessman has experienced the irritations of travel and become accustomed to adapting to the rigors and stresses one experiences moving from place to place.

His military experience in overseas areas measures the person's capacity to move from one environment to another. It indicates previous exposures to various strata of his own, and perhaps, foreign societies, and possibly makes him receptive to different values and behavior patterns, making the businessman informed, experienced, and perhaps interested in cross-cultural work.

The social attitudes of the executive are measured in his collegiate and present feelings on social gatherings. These may be indicative of his interests and experiences on mixing with people and close societal relationships in the United States. Since the overseas community tends to be a closed society, the executive must be compatible with people with social and extrovert tendencies rather than with those who tend to be introverts or recluses.

Likewise, the questions on organizational membership assess the businessman's success at mixing with, adapting to, and being accepted by people. Prior high school and collegiate success at group acceptance are indicative of future overseas acceptance. At worst, it is a measurement of previous mobility within different social strata.

Because acceptability strongly hinges upon one's attitude towards the group, it is important to measure the
executive's general attitudes toward people, customs, and culture of his assignment. The questions on punctuality standards, applicability of American management principles, and his previous American business experience appraises his ability to recognize cultural differences of time, custom, and procedures and his attempts to adapt to these different standards.

The next questions, concerning the overseas assignment directed to the manager and his wife, attempted to measure their mobility and opinion about travel and overseas living. This question was to compare the wife's attitudes with overseas performance to see if the executive's home life affected his productivity.

**Emotionally Stable and Mature Personality**

Whereas the trait of mobility indicated the businessman's potential to adapt to various cultures and social levels, the trait called stability and mature personality attempted to evaluate the executive's ability to withstand the cultural shock of commuting between different customs, values, smells, foods, and living conditions. Maybe it evaluated the executive's aptitude for pacifying his intensive polar drive of adapting completely to the culture by going native or replacing the unknown, frustrating uncertainties of the overseas environment with a duplicated, artificial American culture of the overseas community.

It was shown in Chapter III than an executive who
went "native" compensated for the host country and societal rejection of him by accepting local customs and culture completely. This was often done at the expense of his own traditional customs and behavior patterns. The overseas community represented the rejection of the executive's environment and his withdrawal into customs and behavior patterns which were familiar to him. Usually neither case was beneficial to involved parties of the company, executive, and host country.

An executive who is emotionally stable and mature is capable of selecting a compromise between the previous two extremes. He learns to be comfortable in the overseas milieu without resorting to either case because he possesses the capacities, temperament, and personality for successful adaptation. Personality and emotional disorders tend to become aggravated and intensified when the businessmen are exposed to the physical and mental anguish of adjustment to a foreign environment. An unhappy home life; inappropriate disposition to the country, people and work; disillusions about his self-importance, his work, and the company; and grandiose preconceptions of overseas life add up to trouble and cross-cultural conflict.

A survey revealed that flexibility, social maturity and inventiveness, personal stability, and the ability to avoid or at least recognize prejudice were important qualities for happiness abroad. Overseas pressures and stresses
affected the individual's mental health and required the person to possess a balance between personality, family satisfaction, adaptive abilities, social contacts, work, and recreational facilities. People who ventured into international work from curiosity, adventure, or pioneer spirit only tended to experience frustration.

The personality and attitudes of the businessman permeate and are reflected in his work relationships and productivity. Adjustment and temperament are important for happiness of the executive and his family. Poor health tends to become worsened by the demand on the person's stamina and vitality to cope with changes in housing, sanitation, food, and climate.\textsuperscript{11}

Even the personnel who adjust to the closed American communities are happiest if they are flexible, adaptive, mature people with intellectual curiosity, numerous hobbies and interests and desires to help people. In addition they tend to be self-sufficient in entertaining themselves. Extroverts fare best in an Asian culture since the Asians like a friendly, out-going, honest, forth-right person rather than a rigid and "obsessive-compulsive" personality.\textsuperscript{12}


Those who accept defeat and frustration without becoming easily discouraged or moody and can bounce back with a buoyant, resourceful attitude are likely prospects for cross-cultural work. Businessmen with even temperaments and stable, mature personalities are better equipped to sustain the physical and mental pressures of overseas living than those who are hypersensitive to the criticisms and hostilities of the host country. "In assessing personality, give preference to the person who seems more than usually resourceful and buoyant, whose emotional gyroscope enables him to snap back rapidly from discouragement and frustration," thus constituting an emotionally stable and mature personality.

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of an Emotionally Stable and Mature Personality

In order to test the stability and mature personality of the executives the following questions were included in the questionnaire: his feelings about making wrong decisions; his feeling toward people; his degree of enjoyment in talking to strangers; and, the handling of persons with irritating habits.

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The degree of concern over making wrong decisions measured the executive's maturity and decision-making faculties and dedication to his work. Was he conscientious? Often overseas executives have greater authority and responsibility than their counterparts in the states. Hence, they have to make more and greater decisions. This question measured the effectiveness of the executive to function abroad.

Furthermore the executive should possess self-confidence and be resourceful. The question on his feeling about talking to strangers assesses the manager's stability and approachability and indicates his knack for meeting new challenges, places, customs, and people. Of equal importance in measuring these same qualities is the question of his general feeling about people; it also is indicative of a receptive, self-confident person.

The way a manager handles personnel who irritate him is an indication of his tact, temperament, and prejudice. A mature, stable person learns to manage irritating situations without becoming angry or losing control of the situation. He tends to be understanding and patient.

**Cultural Empathy**

With the advent of jet travel, communication satellites, and cultural exchange programs, cultural barriers which once separated nations and peoples are collapsing. Today Italians, Spaniards, and Frenchmen reduce the labor
shortage of Germany. Germany calls them "Gastarbeiter,"—guest workers.14 Economics and business transactions are removing the impediments to international understanding and causing businessmen to recognize the greater similarity of cultures and less of their political differences or boundaries. Those businessmen who consider the world in their plans are faring better than the isolationists.15

The businessmen who possess empathy and understanding of other countries, cultures, customs, people, and traditions realize that each cultural system is different and should be judged on its own merits instead of trying to compare it to his own system. He possesses the sensitivity, receptiveness, and perception to interpret these differences with a "sympathetic heart."

Conversely, the isolationist views the world from an ethnocentric position, i.e., he is the center of the universe and judges cultures, customs, and systems in terms of his own culture which acts as a yardstick for measuring these differences. This businessman is not interested in trying to understand other people or their customs.

However, an empathetic executive projects himself mentally into the "shoes of the other fellow" and tries to see the situation through the other's eyes. Cultural empathy

14 "How Foreign Workers Bolster German Boom," Business Week (May 1, 1965), 44-46.

is an awareness of the relativity of one's experiences, customs, and habits. The executive realizes his experiences, customs, and habits are the result of, and are dependent upon, his culture. As a product of a particular cultural system and society, they probably are not transferable to another cultural system. Cultural empathy is the trait which conditions the adjustment and adaptation of the businessman's beliefs, culture, behavior patterns, and value system into conformity with the cultural milieu.16

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of Cultural Empathy

In order to determine if the executives possessed cultural empathy, questions were included in the questionnaire concerning: the executive's description of the country; his punctuality standards used overseas; his pre-departure opinions about assignment; his feeling when he heard of his assignment; his view of the local government's handling of American businessmen; and, his parental ancestry.

The executive's description of the civilization of the country was a measurement of the businessman's understanding of the nature and essence of culture. The uninformed person tended to evaluate a country's

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16 The Overseas Americans, pp. 136-41. The five cultural traits of technical competence, organizational skills, belief in mission, and political sensitivity rely heavily upon the definitive parameters and elements of the Carnegie study for comparative purposes.
civilization in terms of its scientific and technological advancements only, and the culture and civilization of a nation were more than its scientific achievements.

Furthermore, the question on punctuality standards appraised the businessmen's empathetic and sympathetic feeling for the time and value standards of the local people (local customs). An employment of American standards might be indicative of an ethnocentric executive; whereas, use of local, time standards and customs might be an indication of an empathetic and adaptive person.

Predeparture opinions and feelings about his assignment indicated and measured the general attitude of the executive. It also estimated the receptiveness and frame of mind of the executive to understanding the people and customs. Another indicator of an empathetic and sympathetic person was the realization that he was a guest in the country. As such, the businessman knew he was subject to the laws and regulations of the host country. The executive's answers on how the government treated American businessmen revealed his possession or lack of cultural empathy.

Finally, it was thought that parental ancestry might be indicative of an executive's possession of cultural empathy. The question measured parental influence as a factor in the businessman's acquisition of cultural empathy, i.e., Did American businessmen of foreign-born parents do better than those born of American parents?
Communicative Skills

Cultural empathy, or the sensitivity and sympathy for another's feelings and culture, is but one aspect of being successful in the cultural system. Understanding is quite different from being able to function and communicate feelings and viewpoints to another person with a different cultural background and language. Communicative skills include an understanding of another's value system and thought processes including the use of gestures and subtleties in transmission of ideas, concepts, and values. Innuendoes, subtleties, and gestures permeate some cultures and act as a language in expressing the desires, feelings, and intentions of the person.

The aspects of culture and the social system are important for both sender and receiver in the communication process. They become even more important when the person is engaged in cross-cultural contacts and communications.

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18 David K. Berlo, The Process of Communication (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960). Berlo considers communication skills, attitudes, knowledge, social system, and culture to be important ingredients for both the sender and receiver of his communication model. Moreover, he includes the various message components (content, element, structure, code and treatment) and five channels which includes more than the spoken word, as important constituents of the communication process.
"Transcultural" communication is often the cause of many misunderstandings and cross-cultural conflicts due to differences in semantics, style concepts, feeling tone, values, and attitudes. Specifically the causes of miscommunications come from a myriad of foreignness which differs one person from another; for example, the American businessman finds it difficult to orientate and accustom himself to different customs and standards of another culture. Although he is aware of some differences, there are many which evade his observation and comprehension. Understanding and bridging the cultural gap of the two societies and cultures is one of the greatest difficulties of overseas service, that is, communicating with personnel with different cultural standards and language. Fayerweather considers language, custom, environmental understanding, and cultural attitudes as barriers to cross-cultural communications which span people, societal values, work, and cultural differences of the overseas milieu.

Consequently, Americans who are sensitive to the cross-cultural differences are aware that some cultures consider discussion of personal affairs as a taboo subject. As a

result, Americans are more successful in a Latin American setting if they are reserved in discussing their personal affairs and astute to avoid discussing individual personalities.

The Latin American terms simpatico and sencillo indicate the type of attitudes which are conducive to good relations. Simpatico describes a man who is good company, being pleasant and amusing without offending local codes. Sencillo means simple with the implication that the man is unassuming and approachable and does not oppress or embarrass subordinates. In combination their meanings encourage the U.S. businessman to conduct his relationships with warmth and friendliness tempered by considered restraint. In details there will be considerable variation dictated by the range of customs and cultural attitudes in different countries but an initial attitude of this nature is a good starting point in evolving patterns of action for relations with foreigners.20

As has been noted, numerous factors determine the effectiveness of the executive's communicative skill, of which the formal linguistic talent of speaking or reading a language is only a small ingredient. The businessman who feels with his heart (simpatico and sencillo) as well as being sensitive to the "silent language" possesses communicative skill. Ger­mane to this skill is the manager's attitude toward the people, country, assignment, and himself. For a man is what he thinks and his actions betray his thoughts. Therefore, according to the ancient Persian proverb: "It is better to

know what a man thinks, than to know his language."^{21}

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of
Communicative Skills

In order to ascertain if the executives had this cultural trait the following questions were included in the questionnaire: his parental ancestry; his linguistic proficiency; the number of foreign languages spoken and read by the executive; parental linguistic talent; and his attitude toward communicating with the local personnel.

Corresponding to cultural empathy, the parental ancestry measured the executive's degree of *simpatico* and *sencillo* through comparison of his performance and parental background. Specifically, did executives of foreign-born parents make better representatives than executives of American-born parents? The culture of the home of the manager affected his understanding of culture and his ability to communicate within his own or another cultural-social system. Berlo showed that the cultural-social system dominated and partially determined an individual's selection and meaning of words. His cultural and social beliefs and values as well as behavior patterns were shaped by his cultural environment. People from different cultural and social classes communicated

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differently.\(^{22}\)

At the same time the questions on proficiency and linguistic talent evaluated his technical skills, his formal understanding and ability with the formal structure of the language. These questions investigated the spoken and formal aspects of his linguistic talents.

Still another measurement of his understanding of the people and languages came from studying his parent's linguistic backgrounds. Was linguistic talent inherited, and if so, to what degree? Did the executives whose parents possessed bilingual abilities possess understanding and sympathy for the culture, traditions, and feeling of the language?

**International Philosophy**

Supporting the cross-cultural communicator are his beliefs, value system, and code of conduct, commonly called his philosophy. An international philosophy is a broad ideology which permits the bridging of the different cultural systems. Also it unites his administrative talent, business experience, and company objectives with the environment. As was mentioned, the manager predicates his assumptions to future action upon his environment, i.e., his decisions and behavior are impinged upon the culture and environment (Figure 4). His philosophy harmonizes his technical and

\(^{22}\)Berlo, *op. cit.*, pp. 49-50.
administrative ability and corporate goals with the cultural milieu.

The possession of an international philosophy by the American businessman transforms him into an international mercantilist, broadens his horizon from national to multinational perspectives, and expands regional markets and customers into global marketing operations and world consumers. It formulates his values, goals, and behavior to conform to changing conditions and situations. His philosophy is flexible enough and conditions the executive to meet, understand, and become operative within foreign cultures and societies. International philosophy causes the manager to envision his position and the company with its goals' relationships with the world, changing them from isolationists with international business myopia into stiff global competitors.23

Internationally oriented executives tend to make permanent, long range overseas commitments and consider international management and operations an integral ingredient in company plans, sales, and policies. Multinational operations permeate the entire organizational structure rather than being singly assigned to a department. Multinational managers are as sensitive to global events as they are to local affairs since they realize that they are responsible

for the people and conditions in the overseas area. Internationalizing the American company is presently one of the most important trends and well might become the condition of future survival.24

The really decisive point in the transition to world enterprise is top-management recognition that, to function effectively, the ultimate control of strategic planning and policy decisions must shift from decentralized subsidiaries or division locations to corporate headquarters, where a worldwide perspective can be brought to bear on the interests of the total enterprise.25

Not only must the company become internationalized, but its overseas representatives (businessmen) must learn they cannot simply do business abroad but they must learn the language, mix with local people, understand the culture, and attempt emulation of local customs. In order to be successful, the businessman must become skilled in cross-cultural work of international business.26 International philosophy assists him to work effectively in the overseas milieu.

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The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of International Philosophy

In order to learn if the executives had this cultural trait, the following questions were included in the questionnaire: the age of the businessman; his company and overseas experience; his completed education; his adaptive ability as shown in punctuality standards used abroad; the importance of his work in achieving company objectives; and, the degree of authority he delegated to nationals.

With longevity comes opportunity for exposure to numerous customs, cultures, people, and situations; so, the age of the executive contributes to the person's total development, especially his philosophy (values and standards). It is an indicator of a person's philosophy and behavior patterns.

The number of years with the company helps formulate his international philosophy since it exposes the businessman to the intentions and objectives of the company. Knowledge and experience with the company releases the executive's attention from the internal problems of the corporation and permits his concentration to be focused on external affairs—international problems.

Moreover, his international experience helps mold his experience and talent to meet current problems. This experience has given the executive sophistication in dealing with cross-cultural problems. Previous exposures to foreign
thoughts, values, behavior patterns, and cultures shock the businessman into re-evaluation of his values and culture. Self-reflection shapes the executive into a flexible, receptive individual who has an understanding and empathy for his own and other cultures.

Education is also a broadening experience which lays bare the businessman to a gamut of thoughts ranging from one extreme to another on a continuum of values and cultures. Education measures the manager's recognition, understanding, and assimilation of these different values in his ability to effectively function abroad.

Then the question on punctuality standards continues to explore the businessman's understanding of these cultural differences by observing his recognition of time differentials and standards. Since time standards are products of the value system and the culture, they vary around the world and, as such, become part of the philosophy and measurement of one's philosophical outlook.

A grasp of cultural differences is also reflected in the mores of the people. Evaluation of the manager's desire to delegate his authority to nationals ascertains his prejudices and his general attitude to the people.

Finally, the importance the executive places upon his role in obtaining company goals measures his perspective and relationship of the country, company, and assignment. It determines the degree of ethnocentrism existing in the opinion of the executive's self-importance.
Belief in Mission

Paralleling an international philosophy of the international businessman is the executive’s belief in his assignment or mission. His dedication and belief far outweigh his desire or even willingness to spend considerable time abroad. This cultural trait includes his understanding, purpose, and importance of his mission to the host country, company, and his personal goals. Mature and realistic evaluation of his job to corporate goals makes the manager dedicated to his work and a better producer than the glamour, compensation, and adventure which might result from cross-cultural work.

Another important aspect is the local people scrutinizing the attitude of the executive toward the country, job, and local inhabitants because they fear economic colonization by the United States. Recently Newsweek observed:

The French have a word for it: "Coca-colonization." Inevitably, American money has brought with it American ways. . . . Americanization or not, many Europeans are seriously worried by the flood of dollars and the growing power of U.S. companies in Europe's economy. Especially in France, nationalists led by President Charles de Gaulle warn of the danger of "satellization"; almost daily, politicians and publishers tell Yankees to take their dollars and go home. 27

Moreover, his belief in the mission helps him to accept the bad along with the good aspect of international work. It assists his maintenance of a positive attitude toward his assignment. Belief in mission includes the purpose

and importance of the job which makes the businessman willing to make sacrifices and reflects a dedicated spirit to the corporation, work environment, job, and subordinates.\textsuperscript{28}

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of Belief in Mission

In order to test the degree of the executive's belief in his mission, questions were incorporated into the questionnaire which probed his reasons for his overseas assignment; the reasons the company gave him for his overseas assignment; how important he considered his job was to the goals of the company; and, what he considers to be the duration of his assignment.

The two questions concerning the reason for the assignment paralleled the test for technical competence. These questions measured his attitude towards his work. Why was the manager sent abroad? Did he feel his overseas assignment was important or was this assignment a means to isolate him from the company or demote him? The executive's belief in the mission was reflected in his responses to these questions. Dedicated workers were positively oriented workers.

Furthermore, the importance of the job affected and ascertained the belief and dedication of the executive toward his assignment, as did his longevity views. The longevity of the assignment tested the theory of temporal adaptation

\textsuperscript{28}The Overseas Americans, pp. 131-35.
(Chapter III). It determined how important and dedicated the executive was to his job by measuring his willingness to sacrifice by remaining overseas.

**Technical Competence**

Technical competence includes the education and training of the businessman. It also measures his effectiveness and productiveness in the overseas area, i.e., the suitability of his education and training for overseas work. The businessman had to be both specialist and generalist in the international field. This means that international managers need the special knowledge to perform specific functions and general training to perform the related and supporting duties usually done by staff men in the states.

It does not take long before he realizes the additional decision making burdens and responsibilities incurred overseas since there are few people who are qualified to advise the executive. Equally important are the irritating cultural and societal stumbling blocks to effective performance from language, smells, climate, custom, strange business procedures, and societal taboos. A technically competent administrator meets these challenges with a creative and adaptive nature since he can adapt and innovate existing equipment, procedures, and personnel to achieve his mission; moreover, he personally possesses the specific and general qualifications necessary to execute his professional and
related company duties. 29

The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of Technical Competence

In order to test the executive's technical competence, the questions were designed to show the following factors: his undergraduate major; his level of education; his overseas experience; his organizational position with the company; type of organizational work; his ability to adapt and innovate equipment; and, his and company reasons for the overseas assignment.

Undergraduate major determined the type of education which best prepared the businessman for international work. It evaluated his specialized and general knowledge in executing his duties. The level of education further assessed the manager's competence as did the question on his undergraduate academic standing.

Organizational position and type of work measured the company's evaluation of his competence and experience as exemplified by his level in the organizational hierarchy, and also the type of work done by the businessman, e.g., marketing, engineering, production, finance, and general administration helped evaluate his skill and training.

Next, overseas experience evaluated the degree of competency in execution of his duties under different and

29The Overseas Americans, pp. 128-31.
foreign conditions. Moreover, the questions on adaptive skills and attitude to the assignment measured his feeling toward his work. Adaptive skill determined his general and specific capacity to carry out his mission. Creativity (measurement of flexibility) and job attitude acted as yardsticks for judging his competence and productiveness abroad since it revealed his and company reasons for the overseas assignment and general "tone" of the executive's frame of mind.

Organizational Skills

The ability to organize and build assumes additional importance abroad. Overseas executives are expected to accumulate, blend, and mold personnel with different values and cultural backgrounds, outmoded and inadequate equipment, and insufficient resources into a well-functioning dynamic organism. His organizational skills are two-fold: first, he is expected to be the "decision maker" in the area since they are separated from the parent company by extensive distances and poor communication systems; and, second, his superiors frequently rate his overseas effectiveness by how well he has trained his subordinates to replace him.

Although the inhabitants tend to respect his technical skills and positive attitudes toward the work, all too often the businessman acts as an advisor rather than in the capacity of a boss or leader since he is to train subordinates for administrative positions. Sometimes he is expected to
build the organization from scratch. The businessman must have a strong desire to be an institution builder.

If this analysis is roughly correct, then even the apparent exception proves the rule that institution-building is essential to success in American overseas operations. Perhaps the problem in sending Americans abroad in the future is less a matter of finding more recruits to serve overseas than a matter of finding a smaller number of people who can work effectively with others, helping to build the institutions—political, religious, military, economic, or technical—which our several purposes require.30

Organizational skill includes the talent to build political and social institutions.31 Why? A multiplicity of reasons answers this question—communications, subsidiary's separation from parent organization and state-side policymakers, cross-cultural problems, and the personal dilemmas of the executive to adjust to overseas living conditions. The company wants its representatives to have the ability to make some of the important decisions and be self-sufficient abroad. This requires a person with a strong desire to build an organization so self-sufficient that it will continue without him—it requires an institution-builder.32


32The Overseas Americans, pp. 128-31.
The Questionnaire Trait Indicators of Organizational Skills

Some gauges for testing the executive's organizational skills were incorporated in these questions: the number of organizational memberships; the number of organizations he initiated; the number of high school and collegiate leadership positions which he held; and his ability to delegate his authority to nationals.

The questions on organizational membership evaluated the executive's feeling for organization— their structures, relationships, and the give and take of working with people. It measured his capacity to work within a structure and with people. Furthermore, it tested the number of exposures the businessman encountered with different people, organizational structures, and problems as a preparation for handling the cross-cultural problems.

The initiation of an organization was designed to test the person's talents at institution building. This experience was indicative of a desire, experience, and capability for institution building— the creative spirit which encouraged a person to build the institution and then leave it behind. It was also indicative of a person who would fill an advisory capacity, i.e., be willing and dedicated enough to his job that he was willing to let nationals receive the credit and would leave his job and the organization which he built if this helped the company.
Furthermore, his ability to be an institution builder was observed and measured in his responses to the question leadership positions in high school and college. This question tested and evaluated his past effectiveness at building and developing organizational structures.

Finally, the manager's willingness and ability to delegate authority to nationals played an integral role in his successful execution of organizational skill. His trust and confidence in subordinates created the proper environment for institution-building. This environment was reflected in his delegation of authority because it showed his desire to train competent personnel to replace himself and it depicted an advisory role rather than a dominant boss attitude.

Political Sensitivity

American businessmen have assumed a new role in trade and commerce. Today they have become an extension of American foreign policy, e.g., foreign investment, trade and technology.\(^{33}\) Through their business friendships and influence, they became American diplomats. Conversely, these businessmen could cause conflicts which transcended mere business dealings which few diplomats could repair.\(^{34}\)

\(^{33}\)Allan S. Nanes, "The American Businessman and Foreign Policy," Business Horizons, II, No. 3 (Fall, 1959), 85.

\(^{34}\)Clarence B. Randall, "How to Get Along Overseas: A Word to Businessmen," The Executive, II, No. 11 (April, 1959), 15.
Why do American businessmen have so much political influence abroad? Many underdeveloped nations, such as those found in Latin America and the Middle East, need the economic help and capital furnished by American corporations. Hence, these corporations become entrenched and greatly influence the governments of these countries. Many firms contribute and support the schools, recreational facilities, and hospitals, as well as pay substantial taxes to the governments of these foreign areas. Sensitivity to these countries' needs requires more than a standard business education; it requires,

An acute sense of politics (which) is precisely what causes these large and successful companies to proclaim that they dabble not. But you will hardly find the Standard-Vacuum Oil Company, for example, making a major move in these precarious days without carefully considering the effect of Company action on the fortunes of the several groups of politicians and army officers of Indonesia's crowded political state.36

Political stability requires an executive working in these politically unstable areas to be sensitive to these political intrigues and environmental entanglements. Political sensitivity includes the executive's understanding of


the host government and his role-relationships with local and American governments. A politically sensitive "grey-flanneled diplomat" is aware that he is a guest of the host country and devoid of any extra territorial rights or privileges.\textsuperscript{37}

\textbf{The Questionnaire Trait Indicator of Political Sensitivity}

Yardsticks for measuring the possession of political sensitivity by the managers were found in questions probing the individual's previous organizational experience (high school, college, and company); his overseas experience; the executive's attitudes toward host government's treatment of American businesses; his attitude toward the United States government; the importance of his assignment and company in American foreign policy; and, his understanding of national's concept of power, authority, and responsibility.

Past organizational experience and exposure prepared the businessmen for working in the political entanglements and structures of organizations. These questions assessed his understanding of these structural relationships and problems, e.g., informal organizations, staff problems. Moreover, his past overseas assignments provided the executive an opportunity to learn how to transfer his domestic experiences in solving cross-cultural problems.

\textsuperscript{37}\textit{The Overseas Americans}, pp. 142-49.
The remaining questions—his role, the company's role, and the various relationships of business with both local and American governments—evaluated the executive's awareness of the political entanglements of overseas work and they also measured his degree of sensitivity in handling these entanglements. Such questions as his opinion on the host government's handling of American businessmen evaluated his knowledge and attitude on being an alien and foreigner without any special rights or privileges in the foreign area. It tested his knowledge and realization that he had no extra territorial rights, i.e., he was a guest in the host country and subject to their laws as well as to American regulations. Moreover, the questions on foreign policy ascertained if the executive considered himself to be a part of the State Department's plans and a member of the United States diplomatic service.

Finally, his knowledge of the nation's concepts of power, authority, and responsibility tested his understanding of the political structure abroad. Was he truly politically aware and sensitive to the cultural milieu in which he operated and made daily assumptions about? The answer to these and preceding question indicators of the 10 cultural traits and their relationship with company performance scores were evaluated in Chapter V.
CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF THE CULTURAL DETERMINANTS AS FACTORS AFFECTING OVERSEAS PERFORMANCE

It was mentioned in Chapter IV that the company rates its executives on 13 traits considered to show managerial ability and efficiency. These ratings were used in this study as a measurement of the effectiveness of each overseas executive.

Specific questions, disguised in the questionnaire were intended to uncover the businessmen's possession of these cultural traits which affected their managerial performance and productivity. The disguised trait indicators were tested by comparing them with 12 of the factors included in the company ratings, namely: (1) knowledge; (2) ability to get things done; (3) character; (4) planning; (5) ability to organize; (6) initiative; (7) decision making; (8) communications; (9) ability to motivate people; (10) ability to develop people; (11) control; and (12) over-all performance. A significant positive relationship between these performance ratings and the disguised trait indicators was presumed to establish the executive's possession of the 10 cultural trait determinants of overseas effectiveness and
productivity: (1) heuristic attitude; (2) societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; (3) emotionally stable and mature personality; (4) cultural empathy; (5) communicative skills; (6) international philosophy; (7) belief in mission; (8) technical competence; (9) organizational skills; and (10) political sensitivity. The possession of these cultural determinants as factors influencing the executive's overseas performance were analyzed in this chapter.

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS

In order to meet the rule of statistics that Chi Square analysis be limited to frequency tables having at least five expected frequencies per cell, the questionnaire data and company performance ratings were consolidated and collapsed into more manageable categories. These data were arranged into two by two tables.

Coding the Company Performance Ratings

The company rated executives on the 12 traits as: (1) consistently less than full standards; (2) less than full standards; (3) consistently meeting full standards; (4) consistently beyond full standards; and (5) consistently far beyond full standards. These data were collapsed to (1) standard and below (a combination of the first three company ratings) and (2) above standard (a unification of the last two ratings). The 13th company trait, potential for advancement, was not subjected to statistical analysis because some
businessmen had been recently promoted and others were not on the assignment for a sufficient length of time. Hence, these ratings were not considered since they might tend to bias the study findings.

Classifying the Questionnaire Responses

Likewise the questionnaire data were consolidated into two categories to dichotomize the executive responses and, as a result, placed the respondents into two distinct groups. For example, businessmen were placed in age categories of 39 and below or 40 and above. Material which could not be dichotomized were eliminated. Some responses were discarded because they were not applicable, e.g., answers from unmarried personnel were eliminated from questions concerning marital problems abroad or responses from managers without a college education were eliminated from questions on college life. Some questions were entirely eliminated because no clear-cut division in responses was observed, for example when a single executive answered in more than one way.

Chi Square Analysis

The company and questionnaire data were subjected to Chi Square.¹

¹Chi Square analysis is a general test of observed frequencies acquired through empirical investigation which differ significantly from frequencies occurring from chance under the same conditions and assumptions. Often social scientists apply it to "contingency" problems of two cross-classified groups of variables, e.g., an evaluation of two
The results were then subjected to a Contingency analysis. 

A null hypothesis was made that there were no significant

groups (Protestants and Catholics/Jews) to ascertain if religious conviction biased their political vote and party preference. A null hypothesis is assumed inferring that no difference exists among religious groups and their voting habits. That is, both religious groups voted in the same proportion for the two political parties (Republican and Democrat). Assuming this null hypothesis is correct, the set of frequencies for each group (expected frequencies) is computed from the total rows and columns. The number of expected frequencies is compared with actual or observed frequencies for each cell. A sizable difference between observed and expected frequencies is grounds for questioning or rejecting the null hypothesis. The $X^2$ (Chi Square) equation is:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{f_o - f_e}{f_e},$$

where $f_o$ is observed frequency and $f_e$ is expected frequency.

See Hubert M. Blalock, Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 212-13. The significant level or the probability of these differences between expected and observed frequencies occurring from chance is derived from $X^2$ tables for the appropriate degrees of freedom, which in the case of a $2 \times 2$ four-fold table is one.

2The contingency coefficient is derived from the Chi Square. "The contingency coefficient is stated in terms of a quantity known as $X^2$ (Chi Square) thus

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{N + X^2}}$$

(Where $N$ is the sum of the observed frequencies in all the cells.) Quinn McNemar, Psychological Statistics (third edition; New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 198. $X^2$ analysis should not be applied in cases involving cells having expected frequency of less than five. Accordingly, if any cell had an expected frequency value of less than five, the Fisher Exact Probability Test was applied. See Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 95-101, 195-202.
differences in performance ratings and the two executive
groups which were dichotomized according to their question­
aire responses. The null hypothesis was rejected at the
.05 confidence level. Rejection suggested a relationship
between this study's hypothesized cultural determinants and
the company's performance scores, and such a relationship
was presumed to signify that these cultural determinants
were necessary for effective performance abroad. A summary
of the important Chi Square and contingencies and a fac­
simile of the questionnaire can be found in the Appendix.
Starred questions were not subjected to Chi Square or con­
tingency analysis.

THE CULTURAL DETERMINANTS

It was mentioned that rejection of the null hypothesis
\( (H_0) \) at the .05 level was presumed to indicate a direct,
positive and significant relationship between the performance
ratings and questionnaire indicators. This positive rela­
tionship further established the executive's possession of
one or several of the cultural traits depicted by these
questionnaire trait indicators to varying degrees. These
cultural trait determinants affected his overseas effective­
ness and performance. A matrix of selected questionnaire
indicator relationships with the company performance ratings

\textsuperscript{3}The .05 confidence level infers that the difference
between expected and observed frequencies could occur by
chance only five times in 100.
and these 10 cultural determinants appear in Table XII. Questionnaire indicators and these relationships will now be evaluated.

Age of the Executive

In analyzing the relationship between the age of the efficiency of the managers, they were classified as either 39 years old and below or 40 years old and above. The data suggested that the manager's age level was a determinant of his performance and effectiveness. The older managerial group tended to outperform the younger administrators. The older managers demonstrated more initiative by scoring more high and fewer low ratings for this trait ($X^2 = 4.918; C = 0.335$), than expected.

The younger executives (under 40 years old) met standards but they failed to show enough initiative to warrant higher rating scores. Normally younger administrators were thought of as being more industrious and ambitious and therefore they were expected to rate higher on initiative than older managers, but apparently this was not true in the case of the study people. Possibly some rating bias or prejudice might exist in favor of this older managerial group, since raters might tend to give the older executives the benefit of a doubt or feel organizational pressures to score these administrators higher since such ratings were expected.

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4A summary of selected $X^2$, $C$, and Fisher Values at the .05 level can be found in the Appendix.
TABLE XII
A MATRIX OF SELECTED IMPORTANT QUESTIONNAIRE INDICATORS WITH COMPANY PERFORMANCE RATINGS AND THE 10 CULTURAL TRAITS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Indicator</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Get Things Done</th>
<th>Character</th>
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X² Findings

Cultural Determinants Which Could Explain Findings

Note: * indicates significant findings.
### TABLE XII (CONTINUED)

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<th>Questionnaire Indicator</th>
<th>X² Findings</th>
<th>Cultural Determinants Which Could Explain Findings</th>
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<td>94 Importance of job to company goals</td>
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<td>96 Present attitude vs. pre-departure feelings</td>
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</table>

*Positive relationship suggested by X² or Fisher tests. (H₀ rejected at .05 level of confidence.)*

**NOTE:** These data include only those questionnaire indicators at the .05 level of confidence.
Whatever the case, the data suggested that older managers were better workers and showed greater initiative than their younger peers abroad. Perhaps this older managerial group had a longer time to mature and season or greater opportunities to develop and nurture their administrative talents. Also the older men might have been exposed to a greater variety of social levels, culture, and environments. They had time and opportunity to learn how to solve and handle organizational problems.

The data might demonstrate that age brought maturity, professional competence, and ability to communicate, as well as empathy for different cultures and political environments. Age could broaden a person's thinking and value system. In addition it could mature the person and gave him self-confidence as he continually met and solved problems. This type of confidence could be reflected in a desire to initiate programs and projects. The data showed age to be indicative of overseas productivity and presumably established that these managers possessed the cultural determinant to the varying degrees found in Table XII.

Military and Foreign Military Duty of the Businessmen

Thirty-one of the 39 managers had military experience. It was thought that because military experience would expose individuals to various cultures, customs, behavior patterns, people, and living conditions that this would cause the
person to develop a flexible attitude and formulate a receptive attitude and adaptive behavior. Also it was further thought that this experience would condition a person for acceptance of uncertainty and rigors of overseas service which might lead to the development of an ability to move comfortably through various cultural and societal strata. In addition, it could be expected to afford the person an opportunity to acquire some understanding and feeling for organizations and an understanding of foreign politics. Through military experience, a person should acquire a sympathy for different viewpoints and people and a desire to see new places and different countries. It presumably would condition an individual for the rigors of travel and develop the person's ability to operate effectively under unstable and uncertain conditions, giving him an attitude and philosophy that home was where he hung his hat. However, the data do not support this contention.

The data disclosed a significant difference in ratings for the "control" and "over-all performance" traits in favor of executives without military experience. Nonmilitary managers received fewer standard and below and more beyond standard ratings than did those with military experience. However, previous military experience still might be important in other cases. Perhaps some managers acquired their military experience during war time which precluded them from realizing the suggested benefits from military service. On the other
hand military life might have stifled these executives' initiative and made them content with standard performance.

Neither did the data reveal any significant difference in performance scores among businessmen with military experience overseas and managers without overseas experience while in military service, although about 84 per cent of managers with military experience had served abroad. Perhaps in both of these cases the extensive travel experience of these 39 businessmen compensated and tended to equalize their overseas abilities in this area. (In Chapter II it was shown that these managers traveled extensively prior to their 21st birthdays.)

**Executive Reading Interests and Hobbies**

Because some managers selected several reading areas and hobbies, the data were not dichotomized nor tested by $X^2$ analysis. However, several important trends were observable.

It is shown in Table XIII that 12 businessmen enjoyed adventure tales as teen-agers; 14 read historical, biographical and science fiction literature which seemed to indicate an interest in adventure to varying degrees. Fourteen businessmen read stories in all areas. Over-all, the manager's early childhood reading habits pointed to a desire for and interest in adventure.

Another important teen-age reading trend was the large number of people who liked biographical and historical novels which possibly indicates an early fascination for culture,
### EXECUTIVE READING INTERESTS AND HOBBIES

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*Indicate managers' selections for reading interests and hobbies.

*X*Indicate the writer's completion of the managers' reading interests in all areas for those executives who marked Category No. 9 "Various Interest in All." This was intended to give the reader a more comprehensive picture of the executives' reading interests as teen-agers should he wish to make a vertical summation of each category.
people, and countries. Thirty executives liked team sports as teen-agers and 22 enjoyed outdoor sports; half of these enjoyed both team and outdoor sports. Ten apiece indicated an interest in individual and mechanical study. Perhaps this early interest in team sports indicated a curiosity in organizations, while outdoor sports showed signs of a good disposition for future "roughing it" in some of the less developed countries.

As the businessmen matured their interests shifted from adventure to current and political events with 12 still showing an interest in history. Perhaps an interest in current and political events indicated a realization that these events could affect the company and their livelihood. Also these present interests might show a feeling for the political changes and pressures of their environments and broadened perspectives and viewpoints which were suggested as important for success in cross-cultural work.

**Company Seniority and Organizational Level**

Twelve managers had been with the company for 10 years or less and 27 had 11 or more years seniority. It was suggested that company seniority might affect overseas effectiveness and was intended to indicate the executive's possession of international philosophy, belief in mission, and ability to communicate and organize.

The data supported the contention that company seniority did affect performance and they showed that
managers with more seniority rated higher scores. The managers with greater seniority were more effective in establishing control techniques and demonstrating knowledge than the younger managerial group. Businessmen with greater seniority outperformed their younger peers. It did not seem unusual that businessmen with more seniority outperformed younger men since these older managers had more time to perfect administrative techniques, acquire more knowledge about the company's policies and goals, and accumulate information about the internal and external operations of the firm. Possibly these men have realized the importance and best means for establishing and incorporating good control techniques in their daily work, thus reducing waste and ineffectiveness. Goals could be established and periodic checks made against pre-established control data to enable these managers to take quick corrective action whenever subordinate or department varied from plan and objective.

In addition to seniority, organizational level was hypothesized as a possible factor affecting productivity. There were 19 managers in the first two levels and 20 in the third through fifth levels of the organization. The data seemed to support the contention that the organizational level was a factor in performance for a significant difference between these two hierarchical groups existed for the performance trait ratings on "ability to get things done." Managers in the first two echelons demonstrated a greater ability to
achieve company goals than did the lower organizational levels. These top administrators accumulated fewer low and more high ratings than expected whereby the lower ranks received twice as many low and about half as many high ratings as the higher levels.

The data rejected the $H_0$ and showed a positive relationship between organizational level and trait rating for ability to get things done. This relationship seemed to suggest these managers' possession of technical competence, organizational skill, sense for politics, and a broad horizon and viewpoint. However, it was possible that these ratings reflected some prejudice in favor of the higher ranking officials because their productivity and performance were more closely scrutinized and subject to reward of high ratings than the lower ranking performance which was often unnoticed and tended to receive across the board standard ratings. Also, these higher ranking managers had a greater opportunity to demonstrate their managerial abilities. Then again, raters might feel organizational pressure to give the upper echelons higher scores because it was expected.

Executive Education and Academic Achievement

The managers were classified as college graduates or less (Group 1) or as graduate or professional schooling beyond the bachelor degree (Group 2). The data supported the contention that education affected overseas behavior but strangely, excessive formal education tended to detract from
overseas effectiveness. It seemed there was a point beyond which additional or more advanced education did not facilitate managerial performance abroad, for managers with formal training beyond the baccalaureate degree were less effective overseas than executives with only a bachelor's degree or less.

Managers with college diploma or less were better performers than businessmen who continued college studies after the baccalaureate degree, since they acquired more high and fewer low ratings than expected for knowledge, ability to get things done, character, initiative, ability to develop people, and over-all performance. They outperformed the more educated executives who received no scores beyond standard for their ability to develop people and over-all performance. In addition these highly educated managers earned only half as many high ratings as they should have for the remaining traits.

Businessmen with less education seemed to be able to work more effectively with the local people (ability to develop people) and mixed with the local community (character ratings). Also, they demonstrated greater productivity and ability to accomplish their goals. Perhaps the less educated businessmen had less cultural gap between themselves and the local people, for these executives appeared able to bridge these cultural barriers better than the more educated executives as indicated by performance scores. In addition, these
managers demonstrated greater initiative and seemed capable of successfully accomplishing and getting subordinates to accomplish their goals.

Several reasons might account for this ineffective performance by the managers who pursued additional training beyond the bachelor degree. Perhaps this additional education aggravated the local people and workers who were usually less educated and sometimes felt inferior and distrustful of Americans. This was especially true of the less developed lands who feared renewed colonialism (Chapter III). The less educated businessmen seemed to understand the conditions, people, country, and environment better or at least appeared to possess greater capacity to function efficiently in these environments, as evidenced by their high scores in character. Then again they might have worked harder and thus merited higher initiative scores as a compensation for some disadvantage they believed they had, e.g., education, experience.

Also the data substantiated the contention that academic standing as an undergraduate had some effect upon performance. Men who were in the highest academic levels of their class were poorer overseas performers. The material tended to substantiate the supposition that these successful managers possessed technical competence and organizational skill. The executives were divided into businessmen in the middle 50 per cent and those in the upper 25 per cent of their undergraduate class.
The data showed managers in the middle 50 per cent of their class received more high and fewer low scores for character than executives in the upper 25 per cent. Again, managers who appeared to be average scholars seemed more adept at mixing with the local community and executing company policy abroad. Perhaps the local people felt closer to these businessmen and farther away from the managers who were more scholarly as undergraduates.

In conclusion, it seemed managers with a bachelor degree or less were able to mix with the community, demonstrate greater knowledge, initiative, ability to develop subordinates and win their confidence and be over-all more effective performers and producers overseas. Hence, the data supported the contention that education did affect performance and tended to substantiate the assumption these businessmen's possession of mobility, technical competence, organizational skill and political sensitivity.

The Wife of the Executive

It was mentioned that the wife was an important factor in overseas performance. The literature and company communications indicated the wife played an important role in overseas performance. One businessman wrote a letter which accompanied his questionnaire and stressed the important role he thought the wife played in making the assignment a success or failure. Another stated a happy home was the most important factor for overseas success.
Some 30 executives claimed their wives did not complain if they did office work at home, and the same number believed their wives would go willingly wherever their assignments took them. Conversely, five claimed their wives complained with business work at home and six men said their wives would prefer in varying degrees not going abroad. The data did not reveal any performance differences.

Furthermore, the data indicated that all the wives of the executives had some high school training, although three did not graduate and seven did not continue their education after high school. The remaining 28 high school graduates continued on to college or advanced training. The educational level of the wives were dichotomized into high school graduates or less and additional education after high school graduation. The data supported the belief that the wife's education affected her husband's performance and established a relationship between wife's education and her husband's ability to motivate and develop people. Managers whose wives were high school graduates or less rated more beyond standard and fewer standard and below ratings.

Again, these traits were concerned with dealing with local people and seemed to parallel the findings about managerial education. Perhaps the wife also mixed with the local people more and assisted her husband in gaining community acceptance and national trust. Husbands whose wives had less education received twice the number of high ratings than expected, and the data suggested education was important but
a highly educated individual seemed less capable of bridging the cultural gap and barrier between the people and himself. This tended to reduce his effectiveness. Of course, there might be exceptional people who could achieve high academic heights and still retain the common touch with the people but these individuals would be rare and exceptional people.

A wife who did not complain about her husband's work and seemed to be willing to accompany him wherever he went tended to create a happy, congenial domestic life. An executive with less marital problems could concentrate upon company matters. Although a large number of wives had positive attitudes toward their husbands' work and accompanying him wherever his work took him, Chi Square analysis did not show any significant differences between wives' feelings and managerial performance.

Overseas Position and Experience of the Executive

It was thought that overseas experience might affect and influence performance. It was shown in Chapter II that all managers had at least three to five years international experience. The data did not show any significant differences in overseas experience and performance.

The study further contended that overseas position might influence performance. It was shown these businessmen functioned in management, engineering or production, and marketing, sales or advertising areas which were grouped as either management or technical and marketing areas.
The data revealed businessmen working in management areas accumulated more high and those in the other areas received only half as many high scores as they should have. Businessmen functioning in management positions appeared to be good mixers and capable of projecting a company image favorably in the community as measured by character ratings. The material showed executives in management positions were better decision makers and demonstrated initiative at the right time and proper way to accomplish their goals. Generally the businessmen in these managerial positions seemed to possess the right personality and background for handling cross-cultural problems. This positive relationship between ratings and managerial positions seemed to support the supposition these businessmen's possession of a personality which was conducive for getting along with people, technical competence and an understanding for the political aspects of the overseas milieu.

The Executives' Foreign Language Competence

In Chapter II it was shown these managers possessed an unusual aptitude and facility for languages. The study hypothesized that linguistic facility improved performance abroad. It was further established in Chapter II that over 90 per cent (36) were bilingual in reading ability and 97 per cent could speak more than one foreign language. About three-fourths claimed they could read the host newspaper easily and speak the local language fluently. Six
managers were passable and four possessed various degree to no proficiency in the language of their assigned area.

The data supported the contention that language played a part in overseas effectiveness with a significant difference in managerial linguistic ability in reading foreign languages as indicated by the company ratings. The facts tended to indicate managers with skill in reading two or more foreign languages were better performers than businessmen who could read only one foreign language; the material tended to support the belief that these overseas managers with linguistic ability possessed cultural empathy, mobility, and communicative skills.

It seemed that managers with a reading knowledge of several foreign languages demonstrated greater initiative since they acquired more beyond and less standard and below ratings for initiative while those less proficient linguistically appeared to be poorer performers.

Perhaps knowledge of several languages increased managerial confidence which became reflected in greater initiative. For instance, knowledge of Portuguese was important for work in Rio but a proficiency in Spanish enhanced the administrator's mobility and understanding of the Brazilian market. A similar case might be cited for Western Europe and particularly for a company representative in a "common market country" like Germany. The study showed in Chapter IV that Germany was invaded by "guest workers" from countries like Italy who had migrated in order to fill a
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German labor shortage.

A manager's proficiency in two or more languages (German and Italian or Portuguese and Spanish) tended to make the executive more mobile and versatile. This does not imply a direct mathematical relationship between linguistic talent and overseas effectiveness, i.e., two languages do not guarantee twice the overseas effectiveness and success as one language and so forth. The ability to read several foreign languages seems to give the executive confidence and be reflected in a high degree of initiative. Of course, this depends upon the languages and location of the assignment.

Also, businessmen are able to gather more knowledge about their own host competitors and markets, as well as neighboring competitive markets and businesses, such as Italy when working in Germany, or Argentina when operating in San Paulo or Rio. The data seem to show linguistic skill affects overseas performance and so tends to support the manager's possession of communicative skill, mobility, and empathy for the people, country, and situation. In addition, the local people possibly are more receptive to someone who demonstrates a sincere interest and desire to understand and observe local customs and traditions, of which language is but one cultural trait.

**Parental Ancestry of the Businessmen**

Chapter II inferred that managers seemed to inherit
linguistic talent and specific language facility from their parents. It was thought businessmen of parents with foreign ancestral lineage would be more effective overseas. The ancestry of the executive's mother did not seem to make any difference in overseas performance. However, the data did tend to support the contention that father's ancestry did affect overseas performance but in favor of American ancestry rather than those of foreign lineage.

Businessmen whose fathers were American for two generations received more beyond standard scores and fewer standard and below ratings for decision making and character. Managers of foreign ancestry tended to do poorer.

Several suggestions might be offered to help explain this phenomenon. It should be remembered businessmen bear their father's name, which can be a help or impediment for success depending upon the executive's ancestry and location. For instance, German ancestry would be of little advantage in an oriental setting and could be detrimental; an executive named Müller might find it difficult to function in Paris. On the other hand, someone with Italian ancestry might go to Rome with preconceived notions and impressions about the Italian people and situation and tend to make decisions predicated upon these sometimes erroneous beliefs. Also managers of Italian ancestry may feel self-confident about local acceptance and so they do not make sufficient efforts to gain the local people's acceptance and confidence which
an executive of American ancestry might do. This could account for low ratings in character and decision making.

It is also possible that businessmen of Italian lineage stationed in Rome may be rejected by Italians because these Italians are jealous or resent the manager's success. This businessman may be unable to do things that his fellow American executives could do without offending the people. Next, it may be managers of American ancestry approached their work with an open mind and felt they had to work harder to gain local acceptance as reflected in their higher performance scores in character.

Leadership Experience of the Managers

It was thought that leadership experience might improve overseas performance. The material showed 19 of 37 businessmen initiated or were charter members of college organizations and 29 were undergraduate leaders with 35 active in various undergraduate groups. Twenty-five stated extra-curricular activities were their most successful undergraduate activities. Almost 90 per cent (35) were active in high school organizations and 80 per cent of these (28) were high school leaders.

The two managerial groups were high school leaders and non-leaders. The .05 level was achieved for high school leadership only. The data supported the contention that past performance might be indicative of future performance and seemed to support the belief these managers possessed the
ability to handle various societal groups and cultural situations. They had mobility and could communicate and organize effectively as well as understand the political entanglements of the overseas environment.

The material indicated high school leaders received more high and fewer low ratings than expected for over-all performance scores. Non-high school leaders only met standard and below classification and failed to acquire any beyond standard ratings.

It appeared managers demonstrating past leadership ability learned some important skills which helped them be effective abroad. Perhaps prior leadership taught them the necessities of working with people and groups under various conditions. They might have had an opportunity to learn how to handle organizational problems, function within a group, delegate authority, and motivate people to perform at their best. Possibly past experience taught them the importance of team work and good follow-up techniques as well as the ability to cope with the pressures of leadership.

The Travel Attitude and Experience of the Managers

It was suggested that an executive's attitude toward travel and his travel experience could be important factors for overseas effectiveness. It was shown in Chapter II that before their 21st birthday, the majority of managers had been in several countries and one had been around the world once. An equally large number of managers had traveled within the
United States and 33 claimed they enjoyed traveling, with six stating they were indifferent to travel. Thirty-one made only general vacation plans or took spontaneous vacations. The data did not support this contention.

**General Managerial Attitude Toward People and Decision Making**

It was contended that managerial opinions and attitudes toward people played an important role in overseas performance. One question attempted to measure the managers' opinion about talking to people he did not know. This question attempted to evaluate the manager's personality. All 39 claimed they enjoyed talking to people they did not know to varying degrees: 17 said they almost always enjoyed it and 21 claimed they usually enjoyed it. One businessman enjoyed talking to strangers occasionally. This last answer was eliminated, and the others were grouped into (1) usually enjoyed it and (2) almost always enjoyed it.

The data substantiated the supposition that managerial attitude toward people could affect behavior. There was a significant difference in the groups' ratings in getting things done, decision making, ability to organize, ability to develop people, and over-all performance. The data revealed executives who usually enjoyed talking to people received more high and fewer low ratings than anticipated. In fact, these businessmen acquired almost 50 per cent more highs than expected for indicated traits. Those managers who
almost always enjoyed talking to people whom they did not know accumulated more low and fewer high scores.

Rejection of the $H_0$ seemed to support the supposition that these successful managers possessed an adventurous spirit and were adaptable. Also, they appeared to be mobile and versatile with empathy for the people and the situation. These businessmen had receptive and mature personalities. The ability to meet people and feel at ease talking with them was important for cross-cultural work but some reservation was necessary, particularly in some cultures where innuendoes and subtleties were employed in order to avoid embarrassment or causing the individual to lose face. It was shown an executive functioning in these cultural settings should be friendly and buoyant but he should possess tact and some reservation. An over-bearing and outward-going person, displaying excessive extrovert behavior would be distrusted and considered insincere in some Latin American settings like Mexico (Chapter IV).

Extrovert and outward-going personalities are important for international, cross-cultural work but managers should temper their behavior with discretion showing some reservation as did the more successful managers who earned high ratings in decision making and over-all performance. A positive attitude about people is needed in order to be effective in organizing and developing people because organizational ability requires working with and through people. A
manager must have confidence in his subordinates before he can delegate authority to them. Again, he must trust his subordinates to possess the capabilities and dedication to successfully execute his decisions.

None of the executives disliked social events or being with people in college. Over half (20) of the 38 respondents enjoyed and liked to attend social events and almost a third (12) usually liked to attend, while five were indifferent toward social affairs as undergraduates. All 39 stated they still enjoyed being with people in social settings to varying degrees. Four businessmen enjoyed being with people very much and very rarely liked being alone; nine usually enjoyed it and preferred being alone only occasionally. Over two-thirds stated they liked being with other people sometimes and at other times liked to engage in private activities. The data showed no significant differences between overseas productivity and managerial opinions about social events. Possibly this was because all had a positive feeling about people and social events to varying degrees.

Another indication of managerial attitude about people was their handling of a fellow worker whose habits irritated them. Managers who decided upon a direct course of action, e.g., point out the worker's bad points, or tell him to stop his irritating habits, were poorer overseas performers than businessmen who stated they would be friendly and hope the man would improve. The friendly, patient managers received
almost three times more high ratings in communication scores than expected. Perhaps executives who took direct recourse against the worker's irritations embarrassed the subordinate and caused him to lose face, which was taboo in some cultures. These aggressive and perhaps tactless businessmen accumulated less than three-fourths the high ratings they should have and far more low scores in communication.

It should be remembered that communications was a two-way process whereby the sender (manager) must want to communicate with the receiver (subordinate) and reciprocally the subordinate must want to understand the message as shown in Chapters III and IV. It was also shown that messages were sometimes communicated through the person's behavior, sometimes called silent language. As shown in Chapter IV businessmen should possess a simpatico and sencillo attitude.

The data reject the $H_0$ and tend to support the contention that friendly, patient executives possess mature and stable personalities with a sympathetic understanding for the people and situations. These managers are capable of functioning within an organizational structure.

Patience and the ability to keep one's temper are important traits, especially in situations where managers are confronted from all sides with annoyances and irritations. Such conditions are the general rule rather than the exception in cross-cultural work. Managerial behavior which might cause someone to lose face must be avoided and patience
should be employed, which was suggested as a necessity for doing business in the Orient in Chapter IV. Customs which are considered objectionable to Americans according to American manners and customs are acceptable in other regions and cultures. For instance, to burp while dining is an insult in American culture but a compliment to an oriental host.

It was further contended that executive attitude toward decision making and decisions might affect performance. It was shown that managers made many more and very important decisions abroad. Often decisions had to be made without the assistance of staff men. The material showed 32 businessmen had a positive attitude toward decision making and were eager to accept the responsibility for decision making. Seven businessmen accepted the challenge but they did not eagerly seek decision making, and the responsibility. Twenty-eight businessmen indicated that they did not worry about having made a wrong choice regarding a difficult decision, while 11 managers showed various degrees of concern. These responses were coded as (1) managers who worried about a bad decision and (2) businessmen who did not worry.

The data showed that managers who showed concern and worry about bad decisions seemed to be more effective in communication and over-all performance than the executives who displayed little concern over previous errors. The more conscientious businessmen earned twice the number of high
scores for communication and over-all performance than expected.

Perhaps these conscientious businessmen were better communicators because they were cautious to avoid past errors, and concentrated on accuracy. This cautious attitude and drive for perfection permeated their overseas behavior as shown in their high over-all performance scores, while those who showed little concern about past mistakes rated more standard and below scores and fewer beyond standard scores, and they appeared to be poorer performers.

A stable, mature personality is important and an executive should show some concern about previous errors so as not to repeat these mistakes in the future. The data suggested that these more conscientious administrators possessed skill in functioning in organizations and technical competence.

The Most Important Success Factor Needed by Managers Abroad

It was contended that businessmen who had sympathy and understanding for the feelings of others and tried to understand another's culture and behavior, viewing the situation from the other's viewpoint might be more effective abroad. In order to test this premise, the businessmen were asked to select the trait which they considered to be most important for overseas success. Nine believed intelligence was important; two selected personality; three thought a
a special knack for the work was important. One vote each was cast for a happy home, pioneer spirit, common sense, adaptability, and a combination of general intelligence, special knack and ability to understand how other people felt as being important for cross-cultural work. By far the largest group (20 businessmen or over 50 per cent) stated the ability to understand how other people felt was the most important overseas trait for success.

The managers were classified into these two groups: (1) general intelligence and a special knack and (2) the ability to understand how other's felt. The remaining responses were eliminated.

The data supported the contention that overseas representatives with empathy were the most effective abroad, for this managerial group earned over 80 per cent more high scores in motivational ability and 50 per cent more high ratings for over-all performance than expected. The other businessmen acquired more standard and below ratings and fewer high scores than anticipated.

The data seem to indicate a positive relationship between overseas effectiveness and empathy and so tend to support the contention these successful managers possess cultural empathy and sympathy for another's culture and feelings. This seems particularly true if the managers are attempting to motivate people whose customs and traditions differ from those of the superior. The data show managers who tried to understand the local customs, people, and
country and who have some professional competence, are more effective abroad. Possibly this sympathetic attitude earns the admiration and respect of the local people and tends to reduce any distrust which they might have had for Americans, thus permitting the businessmen to be effective motivators and overseas producers.

**Adaptability of the Businessmen**

Adaptability was also suggested as an important overseas trait. It was contended that a manager's eating habits when dining out might affect his productivity. The data did not support this contention.

However, all managers had adapted or improvised available materials and resources to substitute or serve for important tools or materials in order to successfully complete a job at least three or more times. Over 97 per cent of these managers had done this more than five times. Although these responses were not subjected to $X^2$ analysis, the material seems to indicate the businessmen showed evidence of a creative and resourceful nature with an ability to adapt to local conditions and situations.

The data further substantiated the importance of cultural empathy and adaptability by revealing a significant difference in performance ratings and managerial observance of local customs and punctuality standards for business and social appointments. It was shown in Chapter III that time and punctuality standards were elements of a cultural system
and an attempt to adapt to time standards was intended to indicate an ability and intention of adapting to the local customs and traditions.

These responses were dichotomized as (1) using American standards only, and (2) applying local standards to varying degrees. The data supported the belief that adaptability and cultural empathy did affect overseas performance and tended to support the supposition these effective businessmen had a heuristic attitude or adventurous and adaptive nature, capability for movement through various societal and cultural environments, empathy for other cultures, people, customs, as well as international philosophy and technical competence. The material revealed managers who attempted to adapt to local punctuality standards received higher ratings in character than businessmen who employed only American standards. Businessmen who attempted to observe local customs seemed to earn the respect of the local people and community since they were rated higher in ability to mix with the local community and project company policy abroad than managers using American punctuality standards. Perhaps this latter managerial group which seemed to reject local culture and customs was rejected and isolated by the local community.

Executive Attitude Overseas

It was contended that the attitude and frame of mind of the executive about his assignment (local people, culture, customs, and country) might affect his productivity. All 39
Managers had a positive attitude toward people and generally thought people were good. Nine believed there was some good in most everyone and 30 thought there was a lot of good in everyone. This attitude was further evidenced abroad when over 92 per cent (36) said they felt the local people were competent and they delegated their authority to them. This was considerable trust because it was shown that all managers with previous company positions felt their present assignment had more authority and responsibility than a similar position in the United States. All except one of these businessmen claimed their assignments had higher prestige and status than a comparable position in America. One stated his present position was identical to a comparable American assignment.

All 39 claimed they were able to use American management principles at some time in their overseas assignment. Of these, 41 per cent (16) stated they always used these principles; 54 per cent (21) used them frequently; and five per cent (2) employed them occasionally. These managers were grouped as (1) always and (2) frequently or occasionally. The data did not reveal any significant rating difference for the two managerial groups.

However, 36 felt satisfied with themselves after completing their work and 32 did not feel that they warranted any special privileges abroad, but they felt their role in the country was the same as any local business and the government and people showed the proper attitude. This was
suggested as an important indication of political sensitivity. Almost 90 per cent (35) had a positive attitude toward their assignment and almost 95 per cent (37) viewed their assignment for longer than a two-year duration.

Concerning the local area and people, about 95 per cent (37) enjoyed their assignment (only two appeared dissatisfied) with 82 per cent (32) stating the local customs, country, and people frequently met their expectations. Almost three-fourths (29) said the country and people could not be compared with American standards of civilization but should be judged on other than scientific and technical achievement. (It was shown in Chapter III to be erroneous to evaluate a civilization and culture on scientific and technical achievement alone.)

Furthermore, 97 per cent (38) looked forward to working with the local people. All 39 had some social engagements with the local people and employees with almost 90 per cent (35) meeting socially with the local inhabitants at least once a month. Over three-fourths of these managers meet more frequently than once monthly. More than three-fourths of the managers (30) believed the local employees understood their instructions and would do the work. Another 30 realized these local employees had a different concept of authority, power, and responsibility than American concepts. Some 84 per cent (33) tried to handle the local employees according to the local custom and standards whenever possible.
Only one question subjected to analysis reached the .05 level. The data supported the contention that managers who were flexible and open minded appeared to be better producers abroad. The businessmen were asked: "How has your experience in your most recent foreign assignment affected the opinions which you held prior to your departure for that assignment?" Slightly more than a fourth (10) stated it confirmed ideas held prior to departure; about two-fifths (15) claimed it modified their attitudes held prior to departure to a small degree and 14 said it modified to a significant degree but not completely the attitudes held prior to departure. These responses were dichotomized as (1) those who claimed their experience on the job confirmed their ideas and (2) those who modified their pre-departure opinions.

The data showed managers who modified their opinions received more high and fewer low scores in control than managers who did not modify their pre-departure convictions and opinions. In fact, these inflexible managers received no high ratings while the more flexible administrators were very competent in establishing and executing control techniques abroad. These effective managers seemed to realize the need and possessed the ability to effectively apply control techniques. The data indicated a positive relationship between modification of pre-departure opinions and performance control scores and further tended to substantiate the supposition these managers possessed an open mind, receptive attitude to
culture and environment, a broadened outlook and some feeling for the political environment overseas.

**Reasons for the Managers' Assignments**

Further it was contended that the reasons that an executive believed why he was sent overseas as well as the company's reason for his assignment might affect his performance. The majority of businessmen thought that they were either going abroad because of their successful American records or because they possessed some experience in foreign operations and some language. The data did not support this contention or show any differences between performance and managerial reasons for their assignment.

Conversely, the company told the majority of businessmen that they were being sent abroad because either (1) they were the best men for the job or (2) they were selected because of their successful American record. The data supported the contention that the company's reason for assignment did affect performance and the supposition that these better executives possessed a dedication to their job, sense for politics, and a broadened viewpoint.

The data showed that managers whom the company informed were going abroad because of a successful American record were better performers and demonstrated a greater initiative overseas. They rated more high and fewer low initiative scores than expected whereas managers who were told that they were the best men seemed to be poorer producers by acquiring
a third more low ratings for initiative.

Businessmen with previous success records in America seemed to be interested in retaining their company reputations and showed greater initiative in establishing a comparable record abroad. Perhaps they were trying to justify their company's confidence in their ability. Conversely, executives who were told that they were the "best men" perhaps felt over-confident and did not work as hard as they could have, as demonstrated by their low initiative ratings. The data indicated that the company reasons for overseas assignment tended to establish an overseas attitude which became reflected in performance. The data seemed to show managers given encouragement and some degree of confidence did well but an air of over-confidence tended to perform poorly.

The Assignment and the Political Scene

Previously it was mentioned that the majority of managers felt their overseas assignments had greater prestige, status, authority and responsibility than comparable company positions in the United States. All businessmen believed their job was important to company goal attainment to varying degrees. Nine stated it was important to the firm and 20 believed it was very important. These two managerial groups were dichotomized as either important or very important to the firm.

The data substantiated the contention that the manager's
feeling about his job's importance to company goals did affect his behavior and tended to support the belief these effective managers possessed an international philosophy, belief in mission and political sensitivity. The data showed managers who felt their job to be important but who did not overstate or inflate their role and importance to the firm and its objectives demonstrated superior ability in decision making and control by acquiring more high and fewer low scores for these two traits. Businessmen who considered their jobs very important or tended to overstate their role in company goals seemed to be poorer in decision making and practicing control abroad.

Perhaps these businessmen deliberated too long and so were less effective in decision making. The better decision makers and effective controllers placed their job in proper perspective and relationship with corporate goals and attached the importance and dedication to their role, which resulted in good overseas performance.

As for the executive's attitude toward the political environment overseas, over a fourth (10) claimed the host government was indifferent toward Americans. Almost three-fifths (22) thought the government was friendly, cooperative, and helpful. Five per cent (2) each thought: government was hostile toward Americans; government felt inferior to Americans and other foreigners and so placed unnecessary restrictions on all foreigners; and, government was unusually partial toward Americans.
Furthermore, a little less than two-thirds (25) believed the American government was neutral in business transaction within their assignment. Slightly more than a fifth (8) claimed the American government actively supported Americans. Ten per cent (4) stated American government practices often conflicted with American foreign policy and five per cent (2) said American law discriminated against American citizens and companies abroad. The data failed to reveal any significant differences in managerial performance scores and these beliefs.

However, the data supported the contention that managerial opinions about company's importance in U.S. Foreign Policy did affect performance. The data indicated managers who felt their company was frequently important in carrying out American foreign policy were more effective communicators than businessmen who only occasionally, if ever, felt that their company was important to American foreign policy.

Businessmen who felt the company was important in carrying out American foreign policy earned twice the number of high and half the number of low ratings than expected for communication ability. Perhaps these businessmen felt their behavior helped the company and American government; they took a personal pride and felt patriotic in performing their duties. Possibly this patriotic attitude might have motivated them to work harder abroad and made them more cognizant and concerned about effective communications and correct messages. These managers were concerned with keeping their
fellow workers informed.

Rejection of \( H_0 \) indicated a positive relationship between managerial attitude and company performance scores and tended to support the contention these managers were dedicated to their mission, possessed a broadened viewpoint about their work and a sense for politics. They realized that the behavior of the company and themselves did have repercussions upon Americans and did affect the American government's foreign policy and foreigners' opinions of "Americans" whether these businessmen liked it or not.

Also, only five per cent of the businessmen felt the American government considered their company frequently important; 38 per cent (15) said the American government occasionally considered their company important. Another 38 per cent (15) thought the government seldom thought of their company as important and almost 18 per cent (7) stated the United States government never considered their company important in its foreign policy. The data did not reveal any significant differences between these opinions and performance scores.
CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter contains an over-all evaluation of the study findings. It summarizes the pertinent highlights which the writer believes will be of the most interest to the reader. Furthermore, the writer draws conclusions and makes recommendations which he feels will be beneficial to the studied company and to those engaged in multinational operations and find themselves confronted with cross-cultural problems.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study showed that American foreign trade and investment rose drastically since the Second World War. Many American corporations expected to double their sales and increase foreign investment. These reasons for American firms expanding their overseas operations were suggested: (1) lower taxes and production costs; (2) greater profits; (3) increased demand of American companies for international services from their vendors; (4) creation of newly consolidated markets for goods facing low demand curves in the American markets; (5) possible discriminatory action from
"common market" countries in the future; and (6) stiff price competition from foreign products in domestic and foreign markets.

In the beginning American companies employed American executives especially trained in overseas operations to staff these vacancies overseas. Next these firms turned to using nationals and foreigners. Overseas expansion caused greater and greater demand for more and more managerial talent. This resulted in American companies raiding their domestic managerial ranks for successful managers to staff their overseas vacancies. The corporations discovered some of these American businessmen were ineffective and unable to function successfully in these foreign environments and other American executives soon became competent overseas. It was shown in Chapter III that several reasons may have accounted for these managerial differences in overseas effectiveness.

THE OVERSEAS ENVIRONMENT

The nature and causes of the cross-cultural conflict which American managers experiences were discussed in Chapter III. The study showed that culture was a system consisting of a body of knowledge and an individual. The body of knowledge included the beliefs, values, laws, customs, and habits of a society and culture; each generation of mankind acquired its knowledge and information from this body of culture, preserved and contributed to the body, and then, passed it
on to the following generation. Therefore, the individual interacted with the body of culture within the cultural system. The cultural body was preserved and accumulated within culture artifacts such as books, paintings, research, and tools.

Since culture was a system of subsystems interacting, culture grew and evolved through a cultural process, which finally matured to a stage called civilization. Because man was born into and learned from a particular cultural system, the individual acquired a specific set of values, knowledge, and behavioral patterns for his own particular culture and society. When the American businessmen entered the overseas area, they were confronted with a different cultural system and body of culture (values, behavior customs, patterns, beliefs). The American managers introduced different and often opposing cultural traits into the overseas system. These encounters and interactions with this foreign cultural body and milieu overseas caused the executive to experience insecurity and frustration because many, if not all, of his customs he had subconsciously taken for granted and depended upon for behavioral guidance were suddenly removed. These businessmen experienced cultural shock.

It was further shown in Chapter III that a continual rejection of the executive and his customs by the local people, their society and the cultural system caused frustration and deterioration of his self-confidence. This resulted in an
internal conflict within the executive and external friction between the foreign culture and himself. This internal strife and cross-cultural conflict tended to reduce the businessman's effectiveness and success overseas. It was suggested some cross-cultural conflict resulted from (1) ethnocentrism; (2) latent and manifest culture patterns; (3) inappropriate American philosophy and management principles; (4) divergence of time perception; (5) miscommunications; (6) personality; and (7) his attitude toward assignment.

THE CULTURAL DETERMINANTS

Predicted upon these and other causes of cross-cultural conflict which resulted in the reduced effectiveness of businessmen abroad, the researcher isolated and hypothesized 10 cultural traits, called determinants. These 10 cultural traits were intended to counteract and reduce the causes for cross-cultural conflict and help explain the differences in the effectiveness of American businessmen's performance abroad. These hypothesized determinants of overseas effectiveness and success were: (1) heuristic attitude; (2) societal, environmental, and cultural mobility; (3) emotionally stable and mature personality; (4) cultural empathy; (5) communicative skills; (6) international philosophy; (7) belief in mission; (8) technical competence; (9) organizational skills; and (10) political sensitivity.
THE RESEARCH DESIGN

A questionnaire was designed to test empirically these 10 cultural determinants through disguised questions which were intended to indicate the possession of one or several of the cultural determinants by the American manager. A company with over 50 years experience overseas was selected. The company had operations around the world with an executive corps of 42 American businessmen with experience in international work. Thirty-nine of the 42 businessmen (93 percent) participated in the study and were functioning in Europe, Australia, British Islands, Pacific area, Japan, Africa, and Latin America. A descriptive analysis and portrait of the company and executive corps were given in Chapter II.

It was shown in Chapter IV that the company rated these 39 managers on 13 traits which they believed showed the ability and effectiveness of its executives. The study also used these ratings as objective criteria for measuring the overseas effectiveness of these businessmen. The definitive parameters for the 13 company performance ratings, disguised trait indicators, and 10 cultural determinants were discussed in Chapter IV. The disguised indicators for the 10 cultural determinants were tested by comparing them through Chi Square and Fisher Exact Probability Test with 12 of the 13 company traits: (1) knowledge; (2) ability to get things done; (3) character; (4) planning; (5) ability
to organize; (6) initiative; (7) decision making; (8) communications; (9) ability to motivate people; (10) ability to develop people; (11) control; and (12) over-all performance.

A null hypothesis assumed that there was no difference between overseas performance and the questionnaire responses of the businessmen. This null hypothesis ($H_0$) was rejected at the .05 level of significance which presumed that a significant positive relationship existed between the performance ratings and the disguised indicators and, in turn, established that the executive possessed one or more of the 10 cultural trait determinants of overseas effectiveness and productivity.

THE STUDY FINDINGS

Most of the important relationships between the performance ratings and disguised indicators are summarized and taken from the findings in Chapter V.

Company Seniority and Organizational Level

Thirty-three managers were with the company for 11 years or longer, while only three worked for the firm for five years or less. Half had 16 years or longer and a third had 21 years or longer. This meant about 70 per cent had at least 11 years with the company. A significant difference was found between seniority and managerial performance. The data showed managers with 11 or more years of company seniority were better overseas performers than businessmen
with 10 years or less company experience. The older executives demonstrated more knowledge and greater ability to establish and effectively utilize control techniques. In both instances senior company representatives acquired more beyond standard ratings than younger men who earned more standard and below and fewer beyond standard scores than expected. The data established a significant relationship between company seniority and overseas effectiveness. The data tended to support the suggestion that these effective managers had communicative skill, international philosophy, a belief and dedication in mission, technical competence, organizational skills, and political sensitivity.

Furthermore, it was suggested that hierarchical position within the company might determine overseas success. There was an almost equal distribution of managers on the first two levels and the lower third through fifth levels in the organization (Chapter II). The data established a positive relationship between organization level and the executive's ability to get things done. Managers in the first two organizational levels rated higher scores for their ability to get things done and were the better overseas performers. The data suggested these managers might possess the cultural traits of international philosophy, technical competence, organizational skill, and political sensitivity as shown in Table XII.
Overseas Position and Experience

It was thought that a manager's overseas position and experience might affect his performance. Although all executives had three years or more experience with half with 11 years or more and a fourth claiming 16 years or more international experience, the data did not support this contention; but it did reveal a significant difference between performance in management areas and the technical and allied fields. Managers who functioned in management areas were better producers and rated more high scores in ability to get things done, character, initiative, and decision making than the businessmen in the other fields. These findings seemed to indicate these successful managers possessed technical competence and a sense for politics.

Age of the Executive

It was hypothesized that age was another important determinant of overseas effectiveness and shown that 28 managers were less than 50 years old and 15 less than 40; about three fourths were 50 or less and all claimed to be in good health. The data substantiated this contention and showed managers in the 40 years and older bracket to demonstrate more initiative overseas by scoring more high and fewer low ratings for initiative. The data may have demonstrated that age brought maturity, professional competence, cultural empathy, communicative skill and a sense for politics to these older businessmen.
Military and Foreign Experience of the Managers

Over three-fourths served in the military. Most of these men were in leadership positions. Eight managers were without military service. It was thought military service and overseas exposure might be factors affecting overseas productivity. The data did not support this first contention since non-military personnel demonstrated and acquired more high and fewer low ratings for control and over-all performance than did businessmen with military experience. Of these 31 businessmen with military experience, 26 had been overseas and it was suggested that these executives might have become interested in international work through military service, although there was no significant difference in the performance of managers with military service in foreign areas and managers with military service who had not been overseas. It was conjected that their extensive travel may have accounted for no performance differences overseas.

Education, Academic Standing and Undergraduate Major of the Executive

The data supported the suggestion that education was a factor of effectiveness but not that any specific undergraduate major played a role in overseas success. All managers graduated from high school, and 37 went to college; of these, 33 graduated. Twenty-three continued their education with profession or graduate school, with two receiving advanced degrees. Over half majored in engineering, and
about 21 finished in the upper quartile of their class. Sixteen were in the middle of their class, and only one ranked in the lower quartile.

Managers with a college degree or less demonstrated and rated higher scores than the more educated businessmen in knowledge, ability to get things done, character, initiative, ability to develop people, and over-all performance. Furthermore, the data revealed those in the middle 50 percent of their class were better performers than those in the upper quartile by acquiring more high ratings for character than expected.

The Wife and Family of the Businessman Overseas

The wives of these businessmen were also well educated. All had some high school. Sixteen per cent (28) continued their education after high school. It was mentioned the data showed managers with college degrees or less education were better performers abroad, as were businessmen whose wives had a high school education or less. The data indicated executives whose wives had only high school or less rated more high scores in character than managers whose wives pursued training after high school. The data supported the contention that education played a part in overseas effectiveness. These data seemed to indicate that the highly educated managers were less effective performers overseas. Managers and their wives with less education appeared to be more capable of bridging cultural barriers and mixing with the local
community and people. The data did not substantiate that degree of concern over children affected performance.

It was shown that the majority of wives did not complain when their husbands brought work home and that they were willing to accompany their husbands wherever their assignments took them. Only five managers stated their wives complained about work at home and six said their wives showed signs of preferring to remain in America to varying degrees.

Family and Ancestral Background of the Manager

It was shown parental lineage varied, with eight fathers' and 11 mothers' ancestry from Northern Europe. The other businessmen had 11 fathers' and seven mothers' lineage from British Islands, with one whose parents were from Northern Europe and the British Islands. Over a third of the businessmen's parents were American for two generations and a small number of ancestors came from Southern Europe, the Orient, Canada, and Latin America (Table VIII).

Thirty-five businessmen's fathers and 32 mothers had high school training, and 24 fathers and 27 mothers graduated from high school. Sixteen fathers and 12 mothers attended college, with 11 and six graduating, respectively. Three fathers entered graduate or professional school and two graduated. In total, about one-third of the parents of businessmen attended college, and approximately two-thirds of the parents were high school graduates (Table IX).
The data did not substantiate the belief that parental education or mother's ancestry affected the businessman's overseas performance. However, the data did reveal a significant difference between overseas performance and father's ancestry. Businessmen whose fathers were American for two generations outperformed managers of foreign ancestry by earning more high and fewer low ratings for character and decision making than expected. It was suggested that these performances might be attributed to the location and attitude of the managers of foreign ancestry.

**Linguistic Talent of the Businessmen**

It was shown in Chapter II that businessmen and their parents spoke or read 16 languages. Most parents could speak and read English, and over 90 per cent of the businessmen spoke and read Spanish, with Portuguese, Italian, French, and German runners-up in that order. Table X indicated the businessmen tended to know the same foreign languages as their parents. It was concluded that parental language possibly acted as a bridge to the linguistic world and directly or indirectly exposed the managers to these languages and appreciation for another's language. Perhaps it made these executives sympathetic to languages since 36 managers were bilingual.

It was further shown that 10 managers could read and 18 speak another language. Fourteen read and 11 spoke two additional languages in addition to English, and five
managers showed reading and speaking ability in four or more languages. Almost three-fourths of the businessmen claimed that they could read the host newspaper easily and fluently speak the language in normal conversation. Six were passable and the remaining managers had varying or no degrees of competence in the host language.

The .05 level was reached for reading ability of the executives and their overseas performance ratings in initiative. The data supported the contention that language played a role in overseas effectiveness. Businessmen who could read two or more foreign languages demonstrated greater overseas initiative than managers who could only read one foreign language. The data showed that those who had bilingual reading ability earned more high and less low rating that expected for initiative and tended to support the contention that these managers possessed mobility, cultural empathy, and communicative skill. It was suggested that greater linguistic competence gave the manager more self-confidence and mobility which was reflected in his initiative scores.

Managerial Reading Interests and Hobbies

There appeared to be a strong indication and tendency for teen-age reading interests and hobbies as well as present interests to be indicative of a desire for adventure, sense for politics, and cultural empathy, although these questions were not subjected to $X^2$ or Fisher Analysis. It was shown in
Table XIII that managers read adventure stories or those closely related to adventure as teen-agers. In addition they displayed an early interest in biographical and historical literature which might suggest a fascination for culture, people, and history. Also, their interests in team and outdoor sports was thought to have prepared them for working in organizations and tempered them for "roughing it" in underdeveloped countries and rigors of overseas work.

Table XIII showed these executives shifted from adventure to the political and current events literature as they matured. This was interpreted as indicating a sense for politics and broadened viewpoint and perspective.

**Leadership.** The managers demonstrated an early interest in the organizational way of life and responsibility by their membership in high school and college groups and by their high school and college leadership positions. It was shown that 90 per cent (35) were active in high school organizations and 80 per cent of these (28) were leaders. About 95 per cent (36) were active in college organizations with about 80 per cent leaders at least once. Thirty-five stated their most successful undergraduate activity was in some form of extra-curricular activity rather than in studying. Nineteen of 37 initiated or were charter members of a college organization. The data supported the supposition that past leadership performance might be indicative of future leadership ability and had some effect upon overseas productivity.
The material showed managers who were high school leaders received more high and fewer low over-all performance ratings than they should have and non-leaders rated no scores beyond standard. It was suggested that prior leadership experience might have prepared these managers to handle organizations and people more effectively, taught them good teamwork and follow-up techniques as well as the ability to work with and through people. The data further suggested these managers possessed organizational skill and a sense for politics as well as mobility and ability to communicate.

Travel Attitude and Experience of the Managers

It was shown in Chapter II that almost 25 managers (65 per cent) had been in nine or more states and 35 (90 per cent) had visited one or more foreign countries before age 21. Two were in nine countries or more and one executive had been around the world at least once before their 21st birthday. The data did not reveal any significant differences between travel experience and performance but this may have been attributed to the extensive travel experience of most executives.

Executive Attitude Toward People and Decision Making

All 39 enjoyed talking to people whom they did not know to varying degrees. Of these 21 showed some reservation in talking to strangers. The data supported the thought that
managerial attitude toward people affected their performances. The data showed the managers who usually enjoyed talking to people whom they did not know (reservation) rated higher performance scores and did better overseas in the traits, ability to get things done, decision making, ability to organize, ability to develop people, and over-all performance than those who always enjoyed talking to strangers. In most instances the more reserved and tactful managers earned almost 50 per cent higher scores than expected. It was suggested that an over-bearing and extreme outward-going (extrovert) personality might insult the local people, especially in cultures where the people go to great lengths to keep from "losing face," e.g., the Orient, Middle East, and Latin American settings. An outward-going, friendly, and receptive person is needed, but he should be tactful as well.

It was shown that managers who lacked personal tact seemed to be less effective abroad. Managers who employed direct methods against a fellow worker's irritating habits, e.g., asking him to stop directly or pointing out his bad habits, were poorer overseas performers than businessmen who claimed that they were kind and hoped the man would change (optimistic attitude). It was shown that no managers disliked social events and people while in college and presently. In fact, most had a positive attitude. Data revealed no significant difference between performance and their feelings about social gatherings. It was suggested this may be
attributed to the fact that all executives liked social events and people to varying degrees. The data supported the contention that an executive's attitude toward people affected performance, for friendly managers received more high and less low ratings in communications than expected. It was suggested these businessmen had *simpatico* and *sencillo* attitudes. The data showed a positive relationship between communication scores and managerial attitude and so tended to support the supposition that these more effective administrators possessed an emotionally stable and mature personalities, communicative ability, and were effective in organizational work.

**Cultural Empathy of the Executives**

Over 50 per cent of the businessmen believed the ability to understand how others feel (empathy) was the most important trait needed for overseas success. The data supported the contention that cultural empathy was important for overseas effectiveness and showed a significant difference in managerial ratings for empathetic businessmen. The managers who believed empathy was the most important overseas trait scored over 80 per cent more high ratings for ability to motivate people and 50 per cent more high scores for over-all performance than expected. It was suggested managers who displayed empathy and an attempt to understand the local people and their customs earned the local inhabitants' admiration and reduced these people's distrust and suspicion
of Americans. The data tended to support the supposition that these managers possessed cultural empathy and mobility.

Adaptability of the Administrators

The data did not show any difference in overseas performance scores and managerial dining habits. All 38 respondents had improvised equipment and material to successfully complete a job at least three to five times, and over 95 per cent had done this more than five times. This suggested a high degree of creativity and adaptive ability.

Furthermore, managers who attempted to adjust and adapt themselves to local customs and punctuality standards for business and social appointments were more effective abroad than businessmen who used American standards. It was shown in Chapter III that time perception was a cause of cross-cultural conflict and an important factor in culture. The data substantiated the contention that the ability to adapt and observe local customs and traditions affected overseas productivity. The data showed Americans who adapted to local punctuality standards received higher character ratings than expected. It was shown in Chapter IV that character measured the manager's ability to mix with the local community.

It was suggested that these managers earned the local people's respect when they tried to observe local customs and cultures, while other administrators who used American standards might have appeared to be rejecting the local
customs and culture to the local people. These local people, in turn, rejected and isolated these managers from their society. The data tended to support the contention that these effective businessmen possessed an adventurous and adaptive spirit, mobility, cultural empathy, an international philosophy, and technical competence.

**Executive Attitude Overseas**

All 39 executives saw good in people to varying degrees and over 90 per cent (36) claimed to have delegated their authority to local people and felt the people were competent. All managers who had held a previous company position believed that their present job had greater authority and responsibility than a similar position in America. All of these managers, except one executive, felt that their job had higher status and prestige in the eyes of their associates than a comparable position in the United States.

About 95 per cent (37) claimed to have enjoyed their overseas work and 82 per cent (32) said the country, customs, and people frequently met their expectations. Thirty-six businessmen (93 per cent) felt satisfied with themselves after completing their work, and it was shown that almost three-fourths did not try to evaluate their host country according to American standards. All managers had social gatherings with the local populace and workers, with about 90 per cent (35) meeting with these people at least once a month, and over three-fourths of these administrators (27)
met more than once a month with the local people and workers.

Thirty businessmen stated that they always thought the local employees understood their orders and would do the job; about 85 per cent (33) handled these local employees according to local custom and traditions whenever possible. Also, over three-fourths (30) realized local employees held different views about authority, power, and responsibility than Americans. Thirty-two managers did not feel that they had any special rights abroad, but they believed their role was the same as any local business and the government and people showed the proper attitude towards them. Thirty-seven (95 per cent) viewed their assignment for longer than a two-year duration. All claimed to be able to use American management principles at some time during their overseas assignment, with 41 per cent stating always and 54 per cent claiming they used them frequently; five per cent used management principles occasionally. Data showed no significant difference between management usage and performance scores.

The data supported the contention that a flexible attitude and open mind was needed. The data showed managers who modified their predeparture opinions once they were on the job were better producers overseas, earning more high and fewer low scores for control than executives who did not modify their predeparture opinions. This seemed to indicate a positive relationship between a flexible attitude of management and overseas control scores which further tended to
substantiate the contention that these effective businessmen possessed cultural empathy, an open and receptive mind, flexible attitude, international philosophy, and a sense for politics.

The Reasons For the Overseas Assignment

It was shown that most managers thought that they were sent overseas because of a successful American record with the company or because they had experience in foreign operations and some language proficiency. However, most stated the company told them that it was because of a successful American record or because they were the best men for the job. The data did not substantiate any differences between performance and managerial suspicions about the assignment, but there was a positive relationship between company reasons and overseas performance. It was shown that managers who were told the assignment was because of a successful record in the United States were better producers abroad, displaying greater initiative than managers led to believe they were the best men for the job. It was concluded these latter executives perhaps were over-confident and so they did not produce or work as hard as they could have, as shown in their low initiative scores. The data tended to support the belief that better performers were more dedicated to their work and had a sense for the political environment of overseas work.
The Assignment and the Political Scene

The data supported the hypothesis that managerial opinions about the importance of their jobs to company goals affected performances. Businessmen who felt their job was important but who did not tend to overstate their importance to the company were better at decision making and control than executives who overstated their role in company affairs. Also businessmen who considered their company's role in foreign policy to be frequently important demonstrated greater performance in communications. The data tended to substantiate the opinion that these more effective businessmen were dedicated to their mission, possessed a broadened viewpoint, and had a sense for politics, realizing that their actions and the company activities reflected upon all Americans and affected the American government's foreign policy and foreigners' opinions about "Americans." It was concluded that these successful managers might be motivated by patriotism and the feeling that they were helping their country. The data did not show any performance differences for the executive's opinion about the host government, although 85 per cent (33) had a positive attitude toward the local political conditions. Neither did the data show any difference in performance and the United States government's opinion about their company's importance in American foreign policy.
CONCLUSIONS

It was shown that American corporations' expansion abroad has created a proliferating demand for competently-trained American businessmen for overseas and cross-cultural work than the supply available. Should this trend continue, American business must resort to either developing techniques for recruiting, selecting, and training Americans to meet this shortage of competent overseas administrators or resort to employing more nationals and foreign managers to staff the vacancies abroad. This latter alternative was taken by some American firms.

The author feels such a policy might lead to a new wave of nationalism to the financial detriment and prestige of American business. The abdication of its managerial rights and positions to nationals and non-Americans is not a long range solution or panacea to this problem for many reasons. First, American business and government still need competently trained and qualified personnel to work overseas because there is also a shortage of qualified nationals and foreign managers. It will be very dangerous to depend entirely upon another source for their competent managers. Also if these companies use non-American managers, the firms will still need qualified American executives in the United States to supervise these overseas managers and operations. Finally, the study showed that cross-cultural problems and conflicts are two-way avenues which require the same
abilities and traits of a national, e.g., a Frenchman, to understand American procedures and business practices as it will for an American to understand and adapt to the French customs and business environment. In either case, competent personnel must be recruited, selected, and trained.

Therefore, it appears the more fruitful solution is to develop techniques for finding and training American businessmen to become competent overseas representatives. The writer does not believe that the cultural conflict and shock which the American managers experienced abroad which tended to reduce their effectiveness and efficiency are isolated or problems peculiar only to international work in an alien culture or country. Rather, cross-cultural conflict and shock can, and does, occur in subcultures of the United States. Hence, cultural conflict and shock experienced overseas varies only in degree or severity with the cultural conflict and shock experienced in movement in this country. The essence and nature of these conflicts and shocks are the same, i.e., the shock which a businessman experiences in Japan or Latin America is basically the same type of shock he might experience in moving to New York, San Francisco, or New Orleans. The shock differs only in degree or severity. Certainly the odors, foods, living conditions, and language difference would intensify the degree of one's shock but basically the person would experience the same kind of reaction. In either case, New York or Tokyo, the businessman
becomes less effective and efficient. His administrative abilities are restricted.

The problems of cross-cultural work found overseas or in America must be faced and solved. The writer favors the continued use of American personnel to staff American overseas operations for two reasons. First, overdependence upon nationals is dangerous because it could result in the nationalization of American industry and holdings or a weakening of its managerial corps. Second, American industry should perfect its recruiting, selection, and training of Americans for cross-cultural work in order to remain world leaders and because by so doing it can improve the effective performance in the American cultural system.

In order to help American industry perfect and develop a selection and training program, the writer determined and tested 10 cultural determinants which he believed were significant factors and personal traits for overseas and cross-cultural work. The study showed that these important traits and characteristics appeared frequently in the more successful and effective businessmen working abroad (Table XII). Perhaps continued investigation along these lines might establish characteristics and traits which could be used in the recruiting, selection, and training of more productive and effective overseas personnel.

Also the writer believes training is an important factor affecting overseas effectiveness and performance. The company has a diversified training program ranging from
executives taking extensive and thorough predeparture training sessions to leaving the businessmen on their own even to the procurement of their own reading materials. Predeparture training programs could be of considerable assistance in exposing the executive to the different cultures, customs, and living conditions where he will work and live. "To be forewarned is to be forearmed" is a proverb with great validity in international and cross-cultural work. Foreknowledge could reduce cultural shock and conflict and, in turn, improve the businessmen's chances for a quicker recovery from their shock and frustrations and lead to a rapid adjustment and effectiveness abroad.

The predeparture training may include simulation and gaming theory along with formal lectures and reading assignments. Simulation of overseas conditions employing computers and other projective techniques are being used by some leading universities to train overseas personnel. Such devices accustom the individual to overseas conditions and facilitate his adapting to these changing and strange conditions. This is most important because the adaptation or adjustment process is more than an intellectual process. This process includes the biological and physical capacities of the individual, which cannot be learned through formal lectures and reading alone but must be practiced. Practice forces the individual to use various parts of his anatomy which he will use in his adjustment abroad, e.g., eating, digesting strange foods, enduring unusual odors, sitting in awkward and uncomfortable
Similarly, projective techniques, role playing, and working in controlled environments of an international institute are intended to develop an insight and appreciation of overseas work within the executive and make him sensitive to overseas problems (empathy). These institutes or institutions actually try to create or duplicate environmental conditions which the person will experience on his overseas assignment such as food, music, customs and language, whereby he is forced to "live" in this artificial environment for a period of time. These institutes are desirable because they can control the variables within the environment which can be used as training and selection devices, i.e., they can add new "foreign elements" as fast as the individual can move or slow these environmental changes down to accompany the pace of the executive or they can study the reaction of the executive to these various variables. Should his reaction be overt and unacceptable, no real harm has been done and the executive can get further training or be eliminated from the program as unacceptable but should the person have made the same error by taking the same action overseas the results might have been disastrous. Hence all these tools can help reduce cultural shock and make the manager more effective abroad.

This study showed that for the company studied and its executive corps operating in particular countries or cultural areas that the more successful overseas operators were 40
years old and above and worked in managerial positions of the first two echelons of the hierarchy. They had 11 years or more seniority in the company.

The more effective executives had a college degree or less and their wives were high school trained or less, while husbands of wives who had pursued advanced training beyond high school, or managers with advanced education beyond a bachelor degree, were poorer performers. The more highly educated personnel appeared to have difficulty bridging the cultural gap and barriers of the local community and overseas area. There is a tendency for this to be especially true in the underdeveloped regions. Educated administrators should be used, but care should be taken to assure their retention of the "human touch" and ability of projection of a receptive and friendly personality. This was further evidenced by executives who ranked in the middle 50 per cent of their class and who were more effective abroad than those in the upper quartile.

The study revealed managers showed an early interest in adventure as teen-agers and a curiosity for culture and country evidenced by their interest in adventure and biographical and historical literature. This teen-age interest in outdoor and team sports indicated an early interest in organizational activities and appeared to mold a proper disposition for "roughing it" overseas. The data in Table XIII indicated their strong tendencies for an interest in politics and possession of political sensitivity as evidenced by their
present curiosity for current and political events.

Linguistic talent was an important factor along with adaptability and cultural empathy. The managers demonstrated adaptability through past improvisation and adaptation of equipment and adjustment to local punctuality standards and handling of local personnel according to local customs. Moreover, past high school leadership experience was shown to be important and reflected mobility, organizational skill, proper personality, societal exposure, adaptation, and political sensitivity.

Furthermore, all executives revealed extensive travel experience, although the data did not show differences in overseas behavior and travel experience or the majority's positive attitude toward travel. Managers should enjoy meeting people but have some tact and reservation especially in countries which distrust extreme extrovert behavior, such as Mexico. Of equal importance was their possession of a kind and patient attitude toward the local people, particularly for those employees and people whose personal habits irritated the executives. The managers should be cautious not to embarrass or cause the subordinate and people to "lose face."

Managers should possess cultural empathy or understanding for other people, trying to see the situation through the other person's eyes. A sympathetic heart and attitude tended to win local community respect, again evidenced in managerial observance of local punctuality standards and handling of
local employees according to local customs.

Businessmen should be conscientious and learn from past mistakes, becoming careful not to duplicate these errors. Mature executives place their jobs in proper perspective and importance in company objectives, taking care not to overstated or understated their position. The company should give confidence and display trust in the manager's ability but be cautious not to overstate his importance nor make him feel over-confident and indispensable. Moreover, the overseas representatives should understand their, and the company's, role in the United States foreign policy, and realize that both affect local inhabitant's attitudes and opinions of "Americans" generally whether they like it or not. Their behavior has a repercussion upon American foreign policy, hence the overseas manager should be aware of political entanglements abroad and possess a strong dedication to his mission. The businessman should have a broad perspective and mobility to move easily from one culture and societal strata to another.

In conclusion, predicated upon the belief that the questionnaire trait indicators supposingly measured the managers' possession of the 10 cultural determinants, the data showed strong indications that the more successful and effective businessmen for this company seemed to possess traces of the cultural determinants to various degrees. In essence the study appeared to substantiate the hypotheses that cultural differences for this company's management corps
led to cross-cultural conflict subsequently causing less productivity and ineffectiveness. Managers with these cultural determinants appeared less unbalanced, frustrated, and uncertain from cultural shock and so were more effective and efficient managers in the overseas milieu.

In the conclusion, the study specifically has:

1. isolated and tested empirically 10 cultural determinants which seem to reduce cross-cultural conflict of the foreign milieu and as such make the managers more effective and successful for this study company;

2. tested empirically, substantiated and strengthened the Ford and Carnegie findings for the business managerial corps of one company overseas;

3. attempted to explain the overseas problem and made an extensive study in trying to explain the nature and essence of culture and the cultural system from which these cross-cultural differences and eventual conflicts result, in the hopes that knowledge will forewarn American businessmen and prepare them to meet these cultural differences and alleviate cultural shock; and,

4. appeared to indicate a useful approach and methodology for continued study of cross-cultural problems and in particular the isolation and determination of cultural traits and characteristics differentiating successful and effective American businessmen from less effective overseas representatives and its managers for this subject company, which it is hoped has culminated into useful criteria for selecting and evaluating more effective international business representatives in the future for this company and other corporations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The writer recommends that the company select American managers with considerable experience in handling people and difficult situations and that these candidates have sufficient
seniority with the firm so they are familiar with the internal
and external operations of the company. The data show that
the firm's best overseas performers were 40 years old or
older and had been with the company for at least 11 years.
The firm should try to select representatives who understand
company policy, operations, processes and politics sufficiently
well that they will not be burdened with learning overseas
life and company policy at the same time but will be able to
concentrate most of their effort upon adjusting to overseas
living and working conditions.

Second, the corporation should take great care in the
selection of overseas personnel with the proper personality.
The manager's personality should be buoyant with the ability
to bounce back from failures. The individual should not be
overly sensitive to the stares and curiosities of the local
people but have the ability to function under such pressure
without letting it bother him. The overseas representative
should have a positive attitude toward his assignment and his
fellow workers. The manager should enjoy being with people
but also display reservation when handling or talking to
people he does not know. This is especially true if the
person is functioning in a country where extreme extrovert
behavior is frowned upon such as in Latin America. The com­
pany should select a person who can temper his behavior to
meet the situation, possess a tolerance and understanding of
other people and their customs, and remain calm under irri-
tating situations without losing his temper. People who are
provoked easily will find overseas work very frustrating.

Also it is recommended that the company try to select executives who are neither extreme extroverts nor introverts but are moderate. The writer believes it is important to discover the businessman's opinions about the people, country, and conditions prior to assigning the person to that area. Managers who demonstrate prejudice or a missionary or unrealistic attitude toward the assignment could then be eliminated. Executives who are highly idealistic often become dissatisfied and frustrated quicker than managers who view their assignment realistically as an important job to the company which they must do and dedicate their efforts to do the job to the best of their ability.

Furthermore, the writer believes the company should evaluate the educational background of the businessman and his wife very closely before assigning them abroad. This is especially true because this company expects its overseas representatives to mix with the community and get along with the people. A person who is very highly educated or trained tends to be less effective than executives with bachelor degrees or less because the more educated personnel tend to isolate themselves from the local workers and community, finding escape from overseas life through hobbies or literature. The study shows that managers with wives with a high school education or less are better performers than those businessmen with highly educated wives.

The wife can play an important role in winning over
the overseas populace and community. The less educated wives are forced to find their recreation and diversion in the community and more likely with local people. It is recommended that the company consider the wife and family as a unit when interviewing a potential executive for an overseas assignment. The company should exercise care in its selection to be sure that the person's education and background are not a barrier or impediment to his ability to mix with the community and gain overseas acceptance. If the company needs a particularly trained or educated representative, the firm should take steps to assure itself that the manager can mix with the people and that his training does not place an immovable barrier between the community and the businessman.

In addition the author recommends that the firm use the manager's teen-age interests and hobbies and his present interests when selecting personnel for overseas work. An early interest in adventure, historical, and biographical literature seems to be good indicators of an interest in international work. The applicant should view his assignment with enthusiasm and interest (adventure). His reading interest might be transferable into his study of local customs, traditions, history, and culture of his assigned region. If the manager enjoyed these areas as a teen-ager, perhaps he still finds other cultures and people interesting and so he might prove to be more adaptable and effective overseas than personnel who are not interested in these areas.

Another important factor is the manager's interest in
politics and current events. It is extremely important that overseas personnel have a feeling and understanding for politics and political situations, i.e., political sensitivity. This is especially true of the underdeveloped regions such as Latin America, Africa and the Orient, where the businessman's actions have a tremendous impact upon every day life. The businessman should be aware that his actions can affect American foreign policy. Also he must be willing and desirous to build an organization (institution builder) and then let others take over and get the credit of his work. Before the company sends anyone overseas it should be sure that this person can work with others and through others in building their organization. The applicant's past leadership and organizational experience can help the organization determine the person's organizational ability.

High school and college leadership positions are indicators of a person's ability to lead others and build the corporation overseas. This is especially true of his high school memberships and leadership experience. His leadership ability and experience are very important overseas because the executive works very close with the political leaders of the country and the people. There are greater economic-social-political ramifications and reverberations from his actions upon the community. Usually his overseas position has greater authority, responsibility, status, and prestige than a comparable job in the United States. The overseas businessman is constantly in the eyes of the people and is truly alone
in his decision making because he often lacks even staff advice. Therefore, it is essential that he have the ability to make decisions, build organizations, and lead others.

Also the writer recommends that the company select businessmen who have travel experience because they should enjoy traveling and be aware of its rigors, trials, and frustrations. The executive should view his job realistically and not with a romantic attitude for "far away places." Travel tends to reduce this romantic feeling to some extent and reduces cultural shock from overseas work. Travel should have exposed the businessman to different cultural systems and people and given him the opportunity to adjust to these different situations. This experience in adaptation and adjustment should help the executive to adapt to his cultural surroundings and recover from the overseas cultural shock more rapidly. The sooner the businessman can recover from cultural shock, then the sooner he will be an effective and productive administrator abroad.

In addition the writer recommends that the company screen its personnel for the traits, adaptability and cultural empathy. The firm should select individuals who display the ability to adapt to situations as evidenced by previous experience in adaptability and adjustment, e.g., adapting his materials and tools to meet current problems. Also his travel experience and linguistic ability are good indicators of the person's adaptability and cultural empathy. The prospective overseas representative should know several languages and be
able to read and speak the language of the assigned country.

The company should select managers who are conscientious about their work and realizing their past errors take proper steps to avoid repeating these mistakes in the future. The executive should respect himself and have a realistic attitude in assessing his importance to his company position and his company.

The writer feels that the company could help and improve overseas performance and productivity by encouraging its representatives by telling them that they are being sent overseas because of their good company record. Care should be taken not to make the executives over-confident through such careless statements or actions which lead the businessmen to conclude that they are the best or only man for the assignment. If the executive feels that he is sent abroad because of his good record in America or with the company, then he tends to work exceptionally hard to support and justify the company's confidence in his ability as well as preserve his good company record.

It is further recommended that the company develop a better predeparture training program and be sure that all personnel assigned to overseas work receive a specified amount of prepared instruction and materials. The use of simulation techniques can assist the company in testing the applicant's reactions to stimuli and behavior which confront him abroad prior to actual departure. This is a good method for teaching and selecting personnel. Through these methods
the personnel managers can pinpoint personal weaknesses within the prospective overseas representative and initiate further training or elimination of the person. Other techniques such as projection techniques, role playing, and study in a "controlled environment" of an international institute are recommended for company selection and training procedures and programs. In addition the writer recommends that the company use the 10 cultural determinants when selecting and training its overseas representatives since the study shows that the company's best performers and successful overseas representatives possessed one or more of these traits.

In conclusion, the writer recommends that the methodology and approach used in this study be continued and expanded for studying cross-cultural problems. He welcomes further testing of his 10 cultural traits as possible determinants of effective overseas performance and suggests that these cultural traits and methodology might be used for selecting and training future American businessmen for international work. Perhaps a research group with sufficient funds and organization such as the Ford Foundation or Carnegie Foundation might pursue this approach in studying a larger corps of American executives and businesses abroad, to see if these findings hold for an expanded universe as they seem to have for this subject firm and management corps.
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**UNPUBLISHED MATERIALS**


NEWSPAPERS


APPENDIX
APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

(Starred items were not subjected to Chi Square Analysis)
CONFIDENTIAL

Americans with foreign business experiences are participating in a study into the background and characteristics of American executives in a foreign environment. You are requested to complete this questionnaire and return it in the addressed envelope as soon as possible. Your assistance and cooperation will be greatly appreciated. All information will be handled in the strictest confidence. The data will be computed in summary tables which will in no way identify you.

Unless specified please select only one (1) answer to each question to the best of your ability. You select your best answer by circling your choice like this:

1. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IS A
   1. Country
   2. State
   3. City
   4. Continent

For best results, please use a heavy lead pencil (No. 1 or No. 2 lead) to mark the questionnaire. If you should change your mind, please be sure to erase the undesired answer completely and then circle your final choice.

BEFORE MAILING YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE VIA THE AIR MAIL ENVELOPE, BE SURE TO CHECK THAT:

1. YOU HAVE ONLY ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION, UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED, AND
2. YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

1. HOW OLD ARE YOU?
   1. 20 to 29
   2. 30 to 39
   3. 40 to 49
   4. 50 to 59
   5. 60 or older

*2. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR HEALTH AND PHYSICAL CONDITION BEFORE YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Excellent
   2. Good
   3. Fair
   4. Poor

*3. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR HEALTH AND PHYSICAL CONDITION NOW?
   1. Excellent
   2. Good
   3. Fair
   4. Poor

4. HAVE YOU BEEN IN THE ARMED FORCES?
   1. Yes, as an officer
   2. Yes, as a warrant or petty officer or the equivalent
   3. Yes, as a non-commissioned officer or the equivalent
   4. Yes, as an enlisted man
   5. No, but you were a civilian executive of the armed forces
   6. None of the above

5. IN YOUR ASSOCIATION WITH MILITARY SERVICES YOU WERE IN THE FOLLOWING AREA: (Circle as many as apply)
   1. United States, including Alaska and Canada
   2. European Continent
   3. British Islands (e.g., England, Scotland, and Ireland)
   4. Africa (Excluding Egypt)
   5. Middle East (Including Egypt)
   6. Orient (e.g., China, Japan, Korea, India)
   7. Pacific (e.g., Australia and Pacific Islands)
   8. Latin America (South and Central American Countries including Mexico)
   9. Caribbean Area
   10. Never in the service.
6. HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN WITH THE COMPANY?
   1. 1 to 5 years
   2. 6 to 10 years
   3. 11 to 15 years
   4. 16 to 20 years
   5. 21 years or more

7. CONSIDERING THE PERSONNEL DIRECTLY BENEATH THE PRESIDENT
   OF YOUR COMPANY AS BEING ON THE FIRST LEVEL OF THE
   ORGANIZATION AND THE PERSONNEL BELOW THESE EMPLOYEES COM-
   PRISING THE SECOND LEVEL, ON WHICH LEVEL WOULD YOU
   APPEAR ON THE ORGANIZATION CHART?
   1. First
   2. Second
   3. Third
   4. Fourth
   5. Fifth
   6. Sixth
   7. Seventh
   8. Eighth
   9. Other (Identify)

8. WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION HAVE YOU COMPLETED?
   1. Some high school
   2. High school graduate
   3. 1 to 2 years of college
   4. 3 or more years of college
   5. College graduate
   6. Did some graduate or professional work
   7. Graduated from a graduate or professional school
      (e.g., M.S., M.D., LLB., etc.)

9. HOW MANY YEARS OF FOREIGN EXPERIENCE HAVE YOU? (Include
   last assignment in your answer.)
   1. Less than one year
   2. 1 to 2 years
   3. 3 to 5 years
   4. 6 to 10 years
   5. 11 to 15 years
   6. 16 years or longer

10. WHERE WAS YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
    1. Northern Europe (e.g., Scandinavia, Germany, Poland,
       etc.)
    2. Southern Europe (e.g., Spain, Italy, Greece, France)
    3. British Islands (e.g., England, Scotland, and Ire-
       land)
    4. Latin America
    5. Japan
    6. Africa
    7. Australia
    8. Mexico

11. WHAT WAS YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN POSITION?
    1. Finance and/or accounting
    2. Personnel
    3. General management
    4. Marketing, advertising, sales, etc.
    5. Transportation or shipping
    6. Engineering or production
    7. Economics, forecasting, etc.
    8. Others (Identify)
12. IF YOU HAD A CHOICE, HOW WOULD YOU FEEL ABOUT RETURNING TO YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Would be very glad to return
2. Would prefer not to return
3. Would be indifferent about returning
4. Would request not to return
5. Would refuse to return

13. YOU CAN READ NEWSPAPERS PRINTED IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English
2. French
3. German
4. Spanish
5. Italian
6. Arabic
7. Russian
8. Japanese
9. Chinese
10. Other (Identify) ______

14. YOU CAN CARRY ON A SIMPLE CONVERSATION, UNDERSTAND, OR MAKE YOURSELF UNDERSTOOD IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English
2. French
3. German
4. Spanish
5. Italian
6. Arabic
7. Russian
8. Japanese
9. Chinese
10. Others (Identify) ______

*15. WHERE DID YOU LEARN YOUR LANGUAGE(S) (Circle as many as apply)
1. School (high school or college)
2. Parents
3. Relatives
4. Military service
5. Friends
6. Independent study in the United States
7. Company
8. Traveling through countries, etc.
9. Others (Identify) __________

16. HOW PROFICIENT WERE YOU IN THE LANGUAGE OF THE COUNTRY OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Could read the newspaper easily and speak fluently in normal conversation
2. Passable; could understand and carry on simple conversations
3. Could understand and read but couldn't speak language
4. Could read newspaper easily but couldn't participate in conversations in the language
5. Could understand the spoken word but couldn't read or speak the language
6. Couldn't speak, read or understand the language.
17. WHERE DID YOUR FATHER AND HIS ANCESTORS COME FROM?
1. Northern Europe (e.g., Scandinavia, Germany, Poland, Austria, Rumania, etc.)
2. Southern Europe (e.g., Spain, Italy, Greece, France, etc.)
3. British Islands (e.g., England, Scotland, and Ireland)
4. Africa (Excluding Egypt)
5. Middle East (Including Egypt)
6. Orient (e.g., China, Japan, Korea, India)
7. Latin America (South and Central American Countries including Mexico)
8. Caribbean Area
9. American (two generations)
10. Other (Identify) __________________

18. WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION DID YOUR FATHER COMPLETE?
1. No formal education
2. Elementary
3. Some high school
4. High school graduate
5. 1 to 2 years of college
6. 3 or more years of college
7. College graduate
8. Graduate or professional
9. Graduate or professional degree (e.g., M.A., M.D., LL.B., etc.)

19. BEFORE YOUR 18TH BIRTHDAY, WHAT WAS YOUR FATHER'S OCCUPATION? (Select the one he did most.)
1. Unskilled laborer (e.g., factory)
2. Semi-skilled laborer (e.g., welder)
3. Skilled laborer (e.g., carpenter)
4. Farm owner or manager
5. Business man (e.g., sales or supervisory work)
6. "White Collar" worker
7. Professional work (e.g., doctor, lawyer, engineer, dentist, etc.)
8. Teaching profession
9. Other (Identify) __________________

20. BEFORE YOUR 18TH BIRTHDAY WHICH DO YOU RECALL YOUR FATHER MOST ENJOYED IN HIS LEISURE TIME?
1. Puttering in home or garden, making things with his hands
2. Playing sports
3. Reading
4. Hunting, fishing and camping
5. Playing games (cards, chess, etc.)
6. Collecting foreign stamps, coins, etc.
7. Watching television or listening to the radio, or records
8. Others (Identify) __________________
21. YOUR FATHER COULD READ THE NEWSPAPER PRINTED IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English
2. French
3. German
4. Spanish
5. Italian
6. Arabic
7. Russian
8. Japanese
9. Chinese
10. Others (Identify) ___

22. YOUR FATHER COULD CARRY ON A SIMPLE CONVERSATION, UNDERSTAND OR MAKE HIMSELF UNDERSTOOD IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English
2. French
3. German
4. Spanish
5. Italian
6. Arabic
7. Russian
8. Japanese
9. Chinese
10. Others (Identify) ___

23. WHERE DID YOUR MOTHER AND HER ANCESTORS COME FROM?
1. Northern Europe (e.g., Scandinavia, Germany, Poland, Austria, Rumania, etc.)
2. Southern Europe (e.g., Spain, Italy, Greece, France, etc.)
3. British Islands (e.g., England, Scotland, and Ireland)
4. Africa (Excluding Egypt)
5. Middle East (Including Egypt)
6. Orient (e.g., China, Japan, Korea, India)
7. Latin America (South and Central American countries including Mexico)
8. Caribbean Area
9. American (two generations)
10. Other (Identify) ___________________

24. WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION DID YOUR MOTHER COMPLETE?
1. No formal education
2. Elementary
3. Some high school
4. High school graduate
5. 1 to 2 years of college
6. 3 or more years of college
7. College graduate
8. Graduate or professional school
9. Graduate or professional degree (e.g., M.A., M.D., LL.B., etc.)

25. YOUR MOTHER COULD READ NEWSPAPERS PRINTED IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English
2. French
3. German
4. Spanish
5. Italian
6. Arabic
7. Russian
8. Japanese
9. Chinese
10. Others (Identify) ___
26. YOUR MOTHER COULD UNDERSTAND, CARRY ON A SIMPLE CONVERSATION, OR MAKE HERSELF UNDERSTOOD IN THE FOLLOWING LANGUAGE(S): (Circle as many as apply)
1. English 6. Arabic
2. French 7. Russian
3. German 8. Japanese
5. Italian 10. Others (Identify)

27. HOW MANY CHILDREN WERE YOU REARED WITH BEFORE YOU WERE EIGHTEEN? (Exclude yourself in your answer)
1. 0, was only child 5. 4
2. 1 6. 5
3. 2 7. 6 or more people
4. 3

28. EXCLUDING SCHOOL ASSIGNMENTS, WHAT TYPE OF READING DID YOU ENJOY MOST BETWEEN THE AGES OF 12 AND 18?
1. Mystery or detective stories
2. Current and political events
3. Historical stories
4. Biographical stories
5. Science fiction
6. Humor
7. Adventure stories
8. Technical scientific
9. Various degrees of interest in all

29. WHAT HOBBIES DID YOU ENJOY BETWEEN THE AGES OF 12 AND 18? (Circle as many as apply)
1. Team sports (e.g., football, baseball, soccer)
2. Outdoor activities (e.g., fishing, hunting, camping)
3. Individual study (e.g., reading, stamp collecting)
4. Individual mechanical (e.g., building things, etc.)

30. WHICH GROUP OF HIGH SCHOOL SUBJECTS DID YOU ENJOY MOST?
1. Physical science (e.g., chemistry, physics, mathematics, etc.)
2. Natural science (e.g., biology, zoology)
3. Social science (e.g., history, economics, civics)
4. Humanities (e.g., English, literature, foreign languages)
5. Commercial courses (e.g., bookkeeping, typing)
6. Shop courses (e.g., auto mechanics)

31. HOW MANY HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS WERE YOU ACTIVE IN? (e.g., newspaper, band, varsity or intramural sports)
1. None 4. 5 or 6
2. 1 or 2 5. 7 or more
3. 3 or 4
32. HOW MANY LEADERSHIP POSITIONS DID YOU HOLD IN HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS (e.g., president, class officer, captain of athletic team, etc.)
1. None
2. 1 or 2
3. 3 or 4
4. 5 or 6
5. 7 or more

*33. BY THE TIME YOU WERE EIGHTEEN, HOW MANY TIMES HAD YOUR FAMILY MOVED FROM ONE HOUSE TO ANOTHER?
1. Never
2. Once
3. Two or three times
4. Four or more times
5. You moved every year or so

34. BY THE TIME YOU WERE TWENTY-ONE WHERE HAD YOU LIVED MOST OF YOUR LIFE?
1. Farm
2. Town of less than 2,000
3. Town of 2,000 or more but less than 10,000
4. City of 10,000 to 100,000
5. City larger than 100,000

35. BY THE TIME YOU WERE TWENTY-ONE, YOU HAD LIVED OR TRAVELED IN HOW MANY STATES?
1. 1 or 2
2. 3 or 4
3. 5 or 6
4. 7 or 8
5. 9 or more

36. WHEN YOU WERE TWENTY-ONE YOU HAD TRAVELED THROUGH, VISITED, AND/OR LIVED IN HOW MANY FOREIGN COUNTRIES? (Canada and all countries outside the United States and its territories are foreign countries)
1. 1 or 2
2. 3 or 4
3. 5 or 6
4. 7 or 8
5. 9 or more
6. Been around the world at least once

*37. WHAT KIND OF COLLEGE DID YOU ATTEND AS AN UNDERGRADUATE (Check only one) ( ) COED ( ) NON-COED (Circle one:)
1. Liberal Arts
2. A teachers college or normal school
3. A technical school
4. A junior college
5. A military college
6. A professional college
7. Some other kind
8. Did not attend college

*38. THE COLLEGE YOU ATTENDED AS AN UNDERGRADUATE WAS: (Circle only one)
1. Federal supported (U.S.A.) (e.g., West Point)
2. State supported (U.S.A.) (e.g., Michigan State)
38. (Continued)
3. Religious supported (U.S.A.) (e.g., Notre Dame)
4. Privately supported (U.S.A.) (e.g., Harvard)
5. Municipally supported (U.S.A.) (e.g., Omaha University)
6. Foreign supported (e.g., Oxford)

39. WHAT WAS THE ENROLLMENT OF YOUR COLLEGE WHEN YOU WERE AN UNDERGRADUATE?
1. Did not attend college
2. Less than 500
3. 500 to 999
4. 1,000 to 1,999
5. 2,000 to 2,999
6. 3,000 to 4,499
7. 4,500 to 5,999
8. 6,000 to 8,999
9. 9,000 or more

40. WHAT WAS YOUR UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR? (Circle as many as apply)
1. Physical science (e.g., chemistry, physics, mathematics)
2. Natural science (e.g., biology, zoology)
3. Social science (e.g., history, economics, civics)
4. Humanities (e.g., English, literature, foreign languages)
5. Business Administration (e.g., management, finance, marketing, accounting)
6. Engineering (e.g., electrical, civil, mechanical)
7. Education (e.g., elementary, high school, physical)
8. Other (Identify) ________________________

41. WHAT WAS YOUR SCHOLASTIC STANDING IN COLLEGE AS AN UNDERGRADUATE? (Either at the time of graduation or upon leaving school)
1. Did not attend college
2. Upper 25 per cent of the class
3. Middle 50 per cent of the class
4. Lower 25 per cent of the class
5. Number one in class

42. HOW MANY HOURS A WEEK DID YOU WORK AT PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT AS AN UNDERGRADUATE IN COLLEGE?
1. Did not attend college
2. None
3. 1 to 5
4. 6 to 10
5. 11 to 15
6. 16 to 20
7. 21 to 30
8. 31 or more hours

43. WHAT WAS YOUR MOST SUCCESSFUL ACTIVITY IN COLLEGE AS AN UNDERGRADUATE?
1. Did not attend college
2. Academic studies
3. Athletics
4. Fraternity or social club activities
5. Dramatic activities
43. (Continued)
   6. Publication or radio activities
   7. Student political activities (e.g., student government)
   8. Music activities
   9. Debating activities
  10. Military activities (e.g., drill team, pistol club)

44. WHAT WAS YOUR OPINION ABOUT SOCIAL EVENTS AS AN UNDERGRADUATE?
   1. Did not attend college
   2. Enjoyed them and liked to attend
   3. Usually liked to attend
   4. Indifferent to social events
   5. Usually didn't like to attend
   6. Hated them and usually didn't attend
   7. Always refused to attend

45. HOW MANY ORGANIZATIONS OR GROUPS DID YOU INITIATE OR BECOME A CHARTER MEMBER OF AS AN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT?
   1. Did not attend college
   2. 1
   3. 2
   4. 3
   5. 4 or more
   6. None

46. YOU WERE AN ACTIVE MEMBER IN HOW MANY ORGANIZATIONS AND GROUPS AS AN UNDERGRADUATE IN COLLEGE? (e.g., fraternity, glee club, student government, church groups, military groups, theatre groups, etc.)
   1. Did not attend college
   2. 1
   3. 2
   4. 3
   5. 4 or more
   6. None

47. HOW MANY TIMES WERE YOU APPOINTED OR ELECTED TO A LEADERSHIP POSITION IN AN ORGANIZATION OR GROUP AS AN UNDERGRADUATE IN COLLEGE? (e.g., president, captain of athletic team, class officer, ROTC officer, student government, etc.)
   1. Did not attend college
   2. 1
   3. 2 to 4 times
   4. 5 to 8 times
   5. 9 or more times
   6. None

48. WHAT LEVEL OF EDUCATION HAS YOUR WIFE COMPLETED?
   1. Not married
   2. Some high school
   3. High school graduate
   4. 1 to 2 years of college
   5. 3 or more years of college
   6. College graduate
   7. Graduate or professional school
   8. Graduate or professional degree (e.g., M.A., M.D., LL.B., etc.)
   9. Secretarial or vocational school
*49. YOUR FAMILY HOUSEHOLD CONSISTS OF: (Include self)
1. 1 (single)  
2. 2  
3. 3  
4. 4  
5. 5  
6. 6 or more

50. ON THE AVERAGE, HOW MANY HOURS PER WEEK DO YOU AND THE MEMBERS OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD (WIFE, CHILDREN) DO THINGS TOGETHER IN YOUR LEISURE TIME?
1. Less than 5 hours  
2. 6 to 10 hours  
3. 11 to 15 hours  
4. 16 to 20 hours  
5. 21 to 25 hours  
6. 26 or more hours  
7. Did not accompany you on foreign assignment  
8. Not married

51. HOW DOES YOUR WIFE FEEL WHEN YOU DO BUSINESS WORK AT HOME?
1. You are frequently so occupied and she does complain  
2. You are frequently so occupied and she does not complain  
3. You are seldom so occupied but she complains when you are  
4. You are seldom so occupied but she does not complain when you are  
5. You are never so occupied at home  
6. Did not accompany you on foreign assignment  
7. Not married

52. REGARDING MOVING FROM LOCATION TO A FOREIGN LOCATION, YOUR WIFE:
1. Would go willingly wherever your job takes you  
2. Would prefer to remain in United States while you are on foreign assignment  
3. Would move only if it were absolutely necessary  
4. I don't know how she feels about moving  
5. Not married

*53. HOW MANY OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD ACCOMPANIED YOU ON YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT? (Include yourself in your answer)
1. 1 (single)  
2. 2  
3. 3  
4. 4  
5. 5  
6. 6 or more

*54. WHAT WERE THE AGES OF YOUR CHILDREN AT THE BEGINNING OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT? (Circle as many as apply)
1. Married, no children  
2. Single  
3. Children who accompanied you on the assignment (Circle the appropriate age(s).)  
  1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 years and older
*54. (Continued)
4. Children who remained in the United States
   (Circle the appropriate age(s).)
   1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15,
   16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 years and older
5. Children who attended school or lived in a foreign
   environment other than that of your most recent
   foreign assignment (Circle the appropriate age(s).)
   1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15,
   16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 years and older

55. HOW OFTEN DID YOU WORRY ABOUT THE HEALTH, EDUCATION,
    SOCIAL AND RECREATIONAL FACILITIES AVAILABLE TO YOUR
    CHILDREN IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Single
2. Married, have no children
3. Children did not accompany you
4. Frequently
5. Occasionally
6. Seldom
7. Never

*56. WHAT IS YOUR OPINION ABOUT THE MAJORITY OF PEOPLE?
1. There is a lot of good in all people
2. There is some good in most everyone
3. People are about as good as they have to be
4. A surprising number of people are mean and dishonest
5. Most people are just no good

*57. HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU IMPROVISED OR ADAPTED AVAILABLE
    MATERIALS OR RESOURCES TO SUBSTITUTE OR SERVE FOR
    IMPORTANT TOOLS OR MATERIALS YOU DID NOT HAVE IN ORDER
    TO SUCCESSFULLY FINISH A JOB?
1. Never
2. 1 to 3 times
3. 3 to 5 times
4. More than 5 times

58. HOW DOES RESPONSIBILITY FOR A DIFFICULT DECISION AFFECT
    YOU?
1. Eager to accept the challenge
2. Accept the challenge but do not eagerly seek it
3. Happier when such a challenge is not presented
4. Prefer to refer the decision to your superiors

59. WHAT IS YOUR OPINION ABOUT TRAVELING?
1. A very exciting and worthwhile experience
2. An enjoyable relief from your normal routine
3. Something which you can take or leave alone
4. Something which is to be done only when absolutely necessary

60. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARD TAKING A
    VACATION?
1. Like to plan it down to the last detail
2. Like to make general plans but let the details take
   care of themselves
60. (Continued)
3. Like to take spontaneous trips and recreation
4. Never take a vacation, or just work or loaf around home

61. TO WHAT DEGREE DO YOU ENJOY TALKING TO PEOPLE YOU DON'T KNOW?
1. Almost always enjoy it
2. Usually enjoy it
3. Occasionally enjoy it
4. Do not usually enjoy it
5. Almost never enjoy it

62. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU PREFER? (Consider that each may be presented through books, magazines, movies, stage plays, radio, TV, etc.)
1. Mystery or detective stories
2. Current and political events
3. Historical stories
4. Biographical stories
5. Science fiction
6. Humor
7. Adventure stories
8. Technical scientific
9. Other (Identify) ________________________

63. IF YOU MADE A WRONG CHOICE REGARDING A DIFFICULT DECISION YOU WOULD:
1. Forget it because there was nothing you could do about it
2. Try to forget it but it kept popping up in your mind
3. Condemn yourself for making such a mistake
4. Feel you made the best choice you could at the time
5. Attempt to justify it to yourself on the basis of insufficient information, etc.

64. WHAT DO YOU USUALLY ORDER WHEN YOU DINE OUT?
1. Foods you know and usually have at home
2. Foods you know but don't usually have at home
3. Foods that you have never tried before

65. WHICH OF ONE OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS DO YOU BELIEVE TO BE THE MOST IMPORTANT IN DETERMINING WHETHER A PERSON WILL BE SUCCESSFUL IN YOUR PROFESSION IN A FOREIGN ENVIRONMENT?
1. General intelligence
2. Technical knowledge
3. Personality
4. A special "knack" for the work
5. Ability to understand how other people feel
6. Other (Specify) ________________________
66. HOW LONG DO YOU LET A HUMILIATING EXPERIENCE WORRY YOU?
1. It doesn't bother you at all
2. It bothers you for a little while
3. You occasionally worry about it much later
4. You worry about it quite often

67. WHAT HAVE YOU DONE (OR WOULD YOU DO) IF A FELLOW WORKER HAD PERSONAL HABITS WHICH YOU DISLIKED?
1. Be friendly and hope he would improve
2. Ask him directly to stop if he were annoying you
3. Try to help him toward improvement by pointing out his bad habits
4. Ignore him and his habits as much as possible
5. Try to get one of you transferred
6. None of the above

68. HOW WELL DO YOU LIKE TO BE WITH PEOPLE IN A SOCIAL SETTING?
1. Enjoy being with people very much; very rarely like to be by yourself
2. Usually enjoy being with other people; prefer to be by yourself only occasionally
3. Like being with other people sometimes and at other times like to engage in private activities
4. Prefer to engage in private activities, and only occasionally do you like to be with other people

69. BEFORE GOING TO YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT HOW MUCH INSTRUCTION OR PREPARATION DID YOU RECEIVE ABOUT THE FOREIGN SITUATION? (e.g., the people, country, language, etc.) (Circle as many as apply)
1. Less than 1 week of general instruction
2. 1 to 2 weeks of general instruction
3. 1 to 2 weeks of intensive instruction
4. 3 to 4 weeks of general instruction
5. 3 to 4 weeks of intensive instruction
6. 5 or more weeks of general instruction
7. 5 or more weeks of intensive instruction
8. Prepared on your own from your own books, materials, etc., and some material furnished by the company
9. No material or instruction furnished by the company and basically left on your own

70. HOW OFTEN DID YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN SITUATION MEET YOUR EXPECTATIONS? (e.g., customs, country, people, etc.)
1. Frequently
2. Occasionally
3. Seldom
4. Never
5. Had no prior opinion about foreign conditions prior to your departure
71. HOW DID YOU FEEL ABOUT THE PEOPLE PRIOR TO YOUR ARRIVAL AT YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Happy to go and was anxious to work with the people
2. Had doubts about the dependability and competency of the local people
3. Had great confidence in the ability of the local people and looked forward to working there
4. Indifferent to the people
5. Dissatisfied with people
6. Had been warned by friends, etc., about area and so was cautious and distrusted local people

72. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE CIVILIZATION OF THE COUNTRY OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Thought they were very uneducated, backward and uncivilized because they were behind technologically
2. Thought the country and people were making rapid strides toward becoming civilized because of their technological improvement
3. Thought country and people were behind the United States civilization because of their slow progress in the technological and scientific field
4. Thought the country was more civilized than the United States because of the high standards and development in the technological and scientific field
5. Thought the country and people could not be compared to American civilization but should be judged on different standards other than just technological and scientific achievement

73. HOW OFTEN DID YOU GET TOGETHER SOCIALLY (DINNER, ETC.) IN YOUR LEISURE TIME WITH SOME OF THE LOCAL EMPLOYEES AND LOCAL PEOPLE IN THE AREA OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Not at all
2. Once a month
3. Twice a month
4. Once a week
5. Twice a week
6. Three or more times a week
7. Only on special occasions like Christmas, etc.

74. WHAT STANDARD OF PUNCTUALITY DID YOU USE IN YOUR BUSINESS AND SOCIAL APPOINTMENTS IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. You kept appointments according to American customs and standards of time in order to maintain efficiency
2. Because you were unfamiliar with local standards and customs, you thought it best to apply American time standards
3. Because each situation differed, you sometimes applied American and at other times applied local
74. (Continued)
   time standards and customs
   4. Seldom bothered to differentiate between social
      and business appointments and so applied American
      standards since everyone has the same concepts and
      values of punctuality around the world
   5. Whenever possible you applied local time standards
      and customs of punctuality
   6. Used American standards and customs because people
      should be familiar with them if they wished to do
      business with you

75. HOW OFTEN DID YOU APPLY AMERICAN MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES
    IN PERFORMING YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Always
   2. Frequently
   3. Occasionally
   4. Seldom
   5. Never

76. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE WORK PERFORMANCE OF THE
    LOCAL EMPLOYEES AFTER THEY HAD RECEIVED YOUR INSTRUCTIONS
    AND ORDERS IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Always thought they understood orders and would do
      the job
   2. Thought they understood but doubted if job would
      get done
   3. Wasn't sure they understood orders and doubted if
      the job would get done
   4. Thought they understood and could not predict their
      reaction and work performance
   5. Wasn't sure they understood orders and could not
      predict their reaction and work performance

77. HOW DID YOU FEEL YOU HANDLED THE LOCAL EMPLOYEES IN
    YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Treated them as equals according to the American
      way
   2. Always tried to understand local customs and traditions
      and attempted to adapt your behavior to these
      customs and standards
   3. Tried to observe local customs but most of the
      local customs were stupid so applied American
      standards
   4. If local people wanted to work for an American firm,
      then they should get used to American customs and
      standards and that's how you handled them
   5. Always tried to understand local customs and
      traditions but applied American standards when there
      was a serious conflict
78. HOW DID YOU FEEL WHEN YOU THOUGHT THE LOCAL POPULACE WERE STARING AT YOU AND DISCUSSING YOU IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Embarrassed and nervous
   2. Self-conscious and the center of attraction
   3. Uneasy but not overly disturbed
   4. Enjoyed being in limelight
   5. Irritated
   6. Indifferent
   7. Angry at the intrusion upon your privacy
   8. People didn't do this

79. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE LOCAL EMPLOYEES' CONCEPT OF MANAGERIAL AUTHORITY, POWER, AND RESPONSIBILITY IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT? (Select one or more)
   1. Shared the same managerial concepts as Americans
   2. Local customs and traditions differentiated their managerial concepts from the American viewpoint
   3. Local customs and traditions made people indifferent to American concepts in these areas
   4. Local people constantly sought greater power and responsibility
   5. Local people tried to avoid power, authority, and responsibility
   6. Don't know how people thought about this
   7. Local people do not completely understand management concepts but are trainable over the years

80. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR ATTITUDE CONCERNING DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY TO LOCAL PEOPLE IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN AREA?
   1. Thought the local people were competent and you delegated authority frequently
   2. Thought the local people were incompetent and you delegated authority occasionally
   3. Personally directed the work rather than delegated authority because you understood the problem best
   4. Questioned honesty of local people and therefore seldom if ever delegated authority

81. WHICH ANSWER BEST EXPRESSES YOUR FEELINGS TOWARD THE HOST GOVERNMENT'S HANDLING OF AMERICANS AND AMERICAN BUSINESS IN THE COUNTRY OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
   1. Thought the government was hostile toward Americans
   2. Thought the government felt inferior to Americans and other foreigners and so placed unnecessary restrictions on all foreigners
   3. Thought the government discriminated against Americans
81. (Continued)
4. Thought the government was indifferent toward Americans
5. Thought the government was friendly, cooperative and helpful
6. Thought the government was unusually partial toward Americans

82. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR COMPANY'S ROLE IN THE COUNTRY OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. A missionary who assists the people to achieve a better way of life.
2. A friendly teacher who shows people the best way of doing things
3. A progressive force which is responsible for most of the country's progress economically, politically, etc.
4. Same as any other local business and the government and people showed proper attitude
5. A consistent helper of the country, and the people and country were ungrateful

83. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT'S ACTIONS IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. American law discriminated against American citizens and companies abroad
2. American government practices often conflicted with American foreign policy
3. American government actively supported Americans
4. American government usually remained neutral in business transactions and disagreements

84. HOW IMPORTANT DO YOU THINK YOUR COMPANY WAS AS AN ACTIVE PARTICIPANT IN THE EXECUTION OF UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Frequently very important
2. Frequently important
3. Occasionally very important
4. Occasionally important
5. Seldom important
6. Never important

85. HOW IMPORTANT DO YOU THINK THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT CONSIDERED YOUR COMPANY IN ITS FOREIGN POLICY IN THE AREA OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Frequently very important
2. Frequently important
3. Occasionally very important
4. Occasionally important
5. Seldom important
6. Never important
86. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT WHEN YOU HEARD YOU WERE GOING?
1. Glad to have the opportunity to go
2. Always wanted to go and requested assignment
3. A little reluctant about going
4. Indifferent to where you were going
5. Was against going but had to go

87. AT THE TIME OF YOUR DEPARTURE FOR YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT WHO LONG DID YOU ANTICIPATE YOU WOULD BE OUT OF THE UNITED STATES?
1. As a temporary assignment of less than one year duration
2. As a temporary assignment of less than two years duration
3. As a temporary assignment of less than three years duration
4. Expected to make overseas or foreign work a career
5. Indefinite duration—willing to stay as long as company needed you
6. Indefinite duration—wanted to return to the United States as soon as possible

88. WHY DO YOU THINK THE COMPANY SELECTED YOU FOR YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Company policy states all personnel will eventually receive foreign assignment
2. You did outstanding work and were successful in the United States
3. Company needed someone and you were selected by chance
4. Foreign assignment is a sure sign the company is displeased
5. Had successful experience comparable in the United States and some language qualifications
6. Had some experience in foreign operations and some language qualifications

89. WHAT REASON DID THE COMPANY GIVE YOU FOR ASSIGNING YOU TO YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. You were the best man they could send for this foreign assignment
2. Selected you because of your successful record in the United States
3. You would gain invaluable experience which they thought you needed
4. Company thought you could perform better in a foreign environment
*90. HOW DID YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN POSITION COMPARE WITH YOUR POSITION IN THE UNITED STATES PRIOR TO YOUR DEPARTURE?
1. Greater authority and responsibility
2. Identical authority and responsibility
3. Less authority and responsibility
4. Greater authority and less responsibility
5. Less authority and greater responsibility
6. Held no previous positions with the company

*91. HOW WOULD YOU COMPAIR YOUR STATUS AND PRESTIGE IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN POSITION WITH THAT STATUS AND PRESTIGE OF YOUR POSITION IN THE UNITED STATES PRIOR TO YOUR DEPARTURE?
1. Higher status and prestige in the eyes of your associates
2. Identical status and prestige in the eyes of your associates
3. Lower status and prestige in the eyes of your associates
4. Held no previous positions with the company

92. HOW OFTEN WERE YOU ABLE TO USE BUSINESS EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION GAINED IN THE UNITED STATES IN PERFORMING THE DUTIES OF YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT?
1. Frequently
2. Occasionally
3. Seldom
4. Never

*93. HOW DID YOU LIKE YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN POSITION ONCE YOU WERE ON THE JOB?
1. Enjoyed the work very much
2. Usually enjoyed the work
3. Indifferent toward the work
4. Hated the work
5. Didn't see why you were sent to do such routine work
6. Had a "had to" attitude toward the job

94. HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT IN RELATION TO COMPANY OBJECTIVES?
1. Thought it was important to firm
2. Thought it was very important to firm
3. Indifferent to its contribution in achieving company objectives
4. Thought job was unimportant and a created position
5. Didn't understand its relationship to company objectives or the job's importance to firm

95. HOW DID YOU FEEL AFTER YOU HAD COMPLETED YOUR WORK IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN POSITION? (Circle as many as apply)
1. Very satisfied with yourself
95. (Continued)
2. Satisfied with yourself
3. Dissatisfied with yourself
4. Frustrated
5. Inadequate
6. Insignificant
7. Indifferent to it all
8. A waste of your time and talent and you were "spinning your wheels" and going nowhere

96. HOW HAS YOUR EXPERIENCE IN YOUR MOST RECENT FOREIGN ASSIGNMENT AFFECTED THE OPINIONS YOU HELD PRIOR TO YOUR DEPARTURE FOR THAT ASSIGNMENT?
1. Confirmed ideas held prior to departure
2. Modified to a small degree attitudes held prior to departure
3. Modified to a significant degree but not completely the attitudes held prior to departure
4. Demonstrated that attitudes held prior to departure were wrong

#########

Thank you very much for your expeditious cooperation in filling in this questionnaire.

Please return it in the enclosed addressed air mail envelope provided for your convenience.

If by chance the envelope has been misplaced I would be most appreciative if you would return the questionnaire to me at the following address:

Richard J. Fleming
Research Director,
Marketing and Management
Department
College of Business Administration
THE CREIGHTON UNIVERSITY
Omaha, Nebraska, 68131
APPENDIX B

CHI SQUARE, CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT, AND
FISHER EXACT PROBABILITY VALUES AT
THE .05 CONFIDENCE LEVEL
<table>
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<th>Questionnaire Question</th>
<th>Company Rating</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
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<th>Fisher Value</th>
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<td>8</td>
<td>4.950</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>Company's Importance in U.S. Foreign Policy</td>
<td>Frequently to Occasionally Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.951</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td></td>
<td>Company Reason for Overseas Assignment</td>
<td>Successful Record in the United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.086</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>Importance of his Job to Company Goals</td>
<td>Thought it was Important to the Firm</td>
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<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.873</td>
<td>.304</td>
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<td>Importance of his Job to Company Goals</td>
<td>Thought it was Important to the Firm</td>
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<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>.336</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>Overseas Affect on Predeparture Opinions</td>
<td>Modified Predeparture Opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Company Traits are: (1) "knowledge"; (2) "ability to get things done"; (3) "character"; (4) "planning"; (5) "ability to organize"; (6) "initiative"; (7) "decision making"; (8) "communications"; (9) "ability to motivate people"; (10) "ability to develop people"; (11) "control"; and (12) "present over-all performance rating."

+Fisher Values have been rounded whenever possible.
VITA

Richard John Fleming, son of Mr. and Mrs. Charles A. Fleming, Jr., was born in Detroit, Michigan on February 2, 1936. He graduated with honors from St. Michael High School in Pontiac, Michigan in June, 1954. While in high school he was active in sports, student council and social organizations.

In 1954, he entered the College of Commerce and Finance at the University of Detroit, Detroit, Michigan. During his undergraduate studies he participated in Beta Gamma Sigma, Tau Kappa Epsilon, U. of D. Rifles, U. of D. Cavaliers, Detroit Military Society, Association of the United States Army, Military Student Council, Reno Dorm Council, Society for the Advancement of Management, and in campus politics. He received a Bachelor of Science in Industrial Management and Labor Relations and a Second Lieutenant Commission in the Medical Service Corps of the United States Army Reserve in June, 1958.

Accepting a Graduate Teaching Assistantship at Louisiana State University in June, 1958, the writer pursued graduate studies and obtained a Master of Business Administration Degree in June, 1960. During graduate work he was active in Delta Sigma Pi, Pi Tau Pi, and American Marketing Association.
Upon graduation he served six months as an officer in the Medical Service Corps of the United States Army at Fort Sam Houston, San Antonio, Texas. In February, 1961, he completed his tour of duty and entered Michigan State University for doctoral studies in March. After the summer term, he accepted a faculty appointment in the Department of Management of Western Michigan University in Kalamazoo, Michigan, and taught management for a year. In 1962, he accepted a Graduate Teaching Assistantship at Louisiana State University and resumed his doctoral studies. The following year the university awarded him a Graduate Fellowship. During his doctoral studies he was active in the Graduate Business Association.

In 1964, he taught management on the faculty of the College of Business Administration of Creighton University. Presently he is a candidate for the Doctor of Philosophy Degree at Louisiana State University. He is active in several international management organizations in Europe and the United States.
EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: Richard John Fleming

Major Field: Management & Marketing

Title of Thesis: Cultural Determinants of the Effectiveness of American Executives Abroad

Approved:

[Signatures]

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Date of Examination: January 11, 1966