The Influence of Climate for Belief in the Overseas Mission on Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness.

Charles Andrew Handler

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THE INFLUENCE OF CLIMATE FOR BELIEF IN THE OVERSEAS MISSION ON CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS

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 Psychology

by

Charles Andrew Handler
B.A., Davidson College, 1990
M.A., Louisiana State University, 1993
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DEDICATION

This document is dedicated to my family especially my parents. Without their encouragement and support my education would not have been possible.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank all of the faculty members who have been responsible for my education during my time at LSU. I would especially like to thank my chair Eric Braverman for all his help in making this project a reality.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication ................................................ ii
Acknowledgments ........................................... iii
List of Tables ........................................... vi
List of Figures ........................................... vii
Abstract ................................................ viii
Introduction/Literature Review ............................ 1
Method ....................................................... 90
Results ..................................................... 138
Discussion ................................................ 181
References ............................................... 227

Appendix A: Introductory Lecture:
Scripts and Handout ...................................... 241

Appendix B: Benefits Lectures and
Accompanying Handouts .................................... 246

Appendix C: Climate Scale ............................... 261

Appendix D: Organizational Commitment Scale ....... 263

Appendix E: Self-Efficacy Scale ........................ 265

Appendix F: Motivation to Learn Scale ................. 267

Appendix G: Outline of Cross-Cultural
Training Program ........................................ 269
Appendix H: Reaction Measures ........................................ 281
Appendix I: Pre/Post-Training Knowledge Test ................. 285
Appendix J: Formulas for the Computation of ICC(1) and ICC (2) .................................................. 292
Appendix K: Formula for the Reliability of Differences .......... 293
Appendix L: Formulas Used to Examine Goodness of Fit ........ 294
Vita ................................................................................. 295
LIST OF TABLES

1. Factor Analysis Results for Climate Scale Used in Pilot Study 1 .......... 120
2. Regression of Climate Condition, Benefits Score, and Climate x Benefits Interaction on Climate Score (Pilot Study 1) ................. 123
3. Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment Scale Used in Pilot Study 1 ................... 127
4. Factor Analysis Results for Motivation to Learn Scale Used in Pilot Study 2 ............. 134
5. Factor Analysis Results for Self-Efficacy Scale Used in Pilot Study 2 .............. 135
6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Scales Used in Present Study .................. 139
7. Regression of Climate Condition, Benefits Score, and Climate X Benefits Interaction on Climate Score .................. 142
8. Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment Scale ............... 146
9. Factor Analysis Results for Motivation to Learn Scale ..................... 149
10. Regression of Motivation to Learn, Reactions, and Motivation X Reactions Interaction on Learning 1 and Learning 2 ................. 167

vi
LIST OF FIGURES

1. A New Model of Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness ........................................... 10
2. Overview of Experimental Procedure ................................................................. 94
3. Path Analysis Model ......................................................................................... 163
4. Path Coefficients for Proposed Model .............................................................. 165
5. Revised Path Model ......................................................................................... 172
6. Path Coefficients for Revised Model .............................................................. 178
ABSTRACT

This study represents the presentation and empirical investigation of a model of cross-cultural training (CCT) effectiveness. This model develops the idea that characteristics of the individual and the organization may influence trainees' motivation to learn and thus may impact the effectiveness of CCT programs. The proposed model is unique in that it suggests trainees' perceptions of a specific climate referent, climate for belief in the overseas mission, may serve as an organizational characteristic that can impact CCT effectiveness. It is proposed that perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission are created via organizational members' shared perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures. Specifically, a review of the international HR literature led to the identification of five types of expatriate HR policies, practices, and procedures that may serve as antecedents to employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. Finally, the proposed model suggests that characteristics of the individual such as self-efficacy and
organizational commitment may influence the effectiveness of CCT via their relationship with climate perceptions and their influence on trainees' motivation.

In order to investigate the ideas proposed in the present model, portions of it were examined using a laboratory study methodology. Specifically, 138 undergraduate participants were informed of the details of an overseas teaching exchange program as part of an experimental manipulation used to create perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. Participants then completed a short cross-cultural training program and several attitude scales. The data from this experiment indicated that the experiment used in the present study was successful at creating perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission and that participants learned from the CCT program. The results of a path analysis indicated that climate had a positive influence on motivation to learn, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy; and that self-efficacy influenced motivation to learn. No support was found for the proposed relationship between motivation to learn, learning, and reactions. However, the
results of a revised model indicated that reactions mediated the relationship between motivation and learning rather than moderated it as was originally proposed.
INTRODUCTION/LITERATURE REVIEW

The present study proposes a new model of cross-cultural training (CCT) effectiveness that has its foundation in recent theoretical and empirical investigations of training outcomes. More specifically, the model proposed in the present study suggests that situational (e.g. organizational climate) and individual (e.g. worker attitudes) factors may influence the effectiveness of CCT. The following study is devoted to the theoretical explanation and empirical investigation of these ideas.

Training can be defined as the use of a planned learning experience that is intended to result in the systematic acquisition of, and relatively permanent change in skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes (Goldstien, 1993; Noe, 1986). Each year firms spend significant amounts of money on programs designed to meet these goals. In fact, it has been estimated that industrial corporations alone spend about $200 billion a year on work force training programs (McKenna, 1990). Changing technology and work force demographics suggest that the importance of such programs will increase in the future, creating a need for
organizations to provide high quality training programs for all of their workers (Facteau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch, 1995).

One type of organization in which the need for training and development is becoming especially salient is the multinational corporation (MNC). This is occurring because increasing pressure for success in the global marketplace has placed a premium on the effective utilization of human resources to facilitate the globalization process. The employment of managers and technical personnel in international assignments (termed "expatriation") has been a major part of recent trends in the globalization of business (DeCieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991). Thus, it is logical that persons serving as expatriates play an important role in the globalization process because they are often the primary contact between the home organization and its international partners and subsidiaries (Giacalone & Beard, 1994). Given the importance of expatriates to the MNC, the establishment of programs that can facilitate the overseas adjustment and performance of such workers can be viewed as important for
the success of corporations doing business overseas (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Desphande & Visweshan, 1992).

Unfortunately, cross-cultural training programs represent a difficult issue for researchers and practitioners alike. This is due to the fact that such programs must address the complex difficulties inherent to intercultural interaction and acculturation, as well as several of the more general concerns common to all training programs. For example, most of the organizations that provide training programs often fail to properly evaluate them (Facteau et al. 1995; Goldstien, 1993; Noe, 1986; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Such failures are problematic because they do not allow the organization to gain an understanding of how well their training programs are working, a situation that may contribute to the fact that many training programs are failing to increase effective job performance (Facteau et al., 1995). Difficulties in the relationship between training and job performance are salient because firms that fail to properly evaluate their training programs may be unable to understand the relationship between training and job performance. This lack of understanding may lead to a compromise in the job
performance of organizational members, a factor that may prove extremely costly to the firm in the long run (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

A second major problem common to both domestic and cross-cultural training programs is that they often lack a solid theoretical foundation. This situation has led several training researchers (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992) to suggest that a reliance on atheoretical approaches has served to compromise the effectiveness of various training programs. Furthermore, in the absence of a solid theoretical foundation, it is difficult for both researchers and practitioners alike to gain an understanding of why a particular training program is effective (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986). This is unfortunate because such an understanding is needed for organizations to establish training programs that are able to translate the content of training into effective job performance.

A solid theoretical foundation on which to base training has also been identified by CCT researchers as a particularly salient concern in the design and
implementation of CCT programs (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Such a lack of theory-based CCT models led Black & Mendenhall (1990) to note that, despite the fact that cross-cultural training programs often provide an effective means of teaching important cross-cultural skills, we still lack an explanation for why CCT programs are effective. Black & Mendenhall (1990) have called for the development of a theoretical framework that may help explain the relationship between participation in CCT and the acquisition of certain critical skills needed for successful intercultural interaction and acculturation. Furthermore, these authors suggest that empirical investigation of such a framework is necessary in order to help both researchers and practitioners gain a more complete understanding of the proper design and evaluation of CCT programs.

In order to attempt to gain a better understanding of training effectiveness, training researchers have recently begun to propose models in which both individual and situational factors influence important training outcomes such as training effectiveness. Such factors have been proposed to exert an influence on training outcomes based
on their relationship with important factors such as pretraining motivation and post-training transfer of learning (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Facteau et al., 1995; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992; Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986). Several of these models have been tested empirically and have provided evidence for the general notion that a variety of training-related factors do exert important influences on training effectiveness (e.g. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Facteau et al., 1995; Mathieu, Martineau, & Tannenbaum, 1993; Mathieu et al., 1992; Noe & Schmitt, 1986). These studies suggest that the empirical investigation of the influence of individual and situational factors on the effectiveness of CCT programs may provide valuable information to those involved in the application of such programs.

Despite recent theoretical and empirical advances in the scope of training evaluation, there have been no empirical studies that have applied these ideas to the realm of cross-cultural training programs. This is unfortunate for several reasons. First, due to the fact that very little applied research has been conducted in the
field of international management, several theorists have suggested that the field is in a nascent, preparadigmatic state of development (Adler, 1983; Beaty & Mendenhall, 1989; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Dowling, 1986; Kyi, 1988).

Secondly, empirical investigations of CCT effectiveness are needed given the steadily increasing numbers of expatriate workers in business and industry (Cascio, 1992; Handler & Lane, 1995). Expatriates often face unique work and non-work related problems. The high costs to both the expatriate and their parent corporations associated with these difficulties suggest that the evaluation of CCT effectiveness should become an increasingly important issue (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Copeland & Griggs, 1985; Earley, 1987; Harris & Moran, 1979; Harrison, 1992; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1982). By helping to increase the adjustment and overseas performance of expatriate workers, empirical investigations of CCT effectiveness may help MNCs reduce some of the high costs associated with the utilization of expatriate workers.

The preceding problems associated with cross-cultural training suggest the need for the empirical investigation
of a model of CCT effectiveness that is based upon well developed theoretical underpinnings provided by domestic training literature. This model can then be applied in order to more efficiently manage expatriate HR and help clarify components of training effectiveness that are more salient in international settings. The present study proposes such a model.

Using the domestic training effectiveness literature (e.g. Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986) to provide theoretical underpinnings, the present model proposes that factors such as motivation to learn, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy exert important influences on CCT effectiveness. Furthermore, the model proposes that the unique situational conditions experienced by international assignees may exert an influence upon CCT effectiveness. Specifically, the present model proposes that organizational climate operationalized as employees' shared perceptions of policies, practices, and procedures related to their expatriate assignment and the firm's globalization process is a major influence on cross-cultural training effectiveness. The following sections contain a summary of the proposed model, its major
constructs, and their interrelationships. Specific hypotheses are presented within relevant sections of the following description of this model.

The proposed model of the influences of individual and situational factors on the effectiveness of cross-cultural training programs is shown in Figure 1. The sequence of discussion of the model begins with the CCT outcome variables and works backwards from the direction of causal influence on these variables.

CCT Outcome Variables

With respect to CCT outcomes, the proposed model suggests that several of Kirkpatrick's (1967) criteria of training effectiveness, when integrated with criteria proposed by other training researchers, (i.e. Kraiger, Ford, & Salas 1993; Black & Mendenhall, 1990) provide a basis for the investigation of CCT effectiveness. The proposed model suggests that the evaluation of these criteria is best accomplished through an assessment of the key outcomes of CCT to be conducted in two distinct stages. In order to provide a more complete background on the evaluation strategy suggested by the present study,
Figure 1: A New Model of Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness
the outcomes examined in each stage of the evaluation process are outlined below.

One of the most popular heuristics used for evaluating training effectiveness has been Kirkpatrick's (1967) model of training outcomes. In his model, Kirkpatrick (1967) proposed four types of training outcomes: reaction, learning, behavior, and results. Kirkpatrick's model suggests that these be arranged such that the broadest goal of training should be the promotion of tangible organizational outcomes such as increased productivity (results). Kirkpatrick further suggested that results occur due to the use of behaviors learned in training in the work setting (behavior) and that such behaviors should accurately represent the material learned in the training process (learning). Finally, Kirkpatrick's model suggests that learning of the material presented in training is, in part, due to motivation and attitudes regarding the training experience (reaction).

Several training researchers have supported the use of Kirkpatrick's components for the evaluation of various types of training. For instance, Noe (1986) suggests that a number of training evaluation studies have provided
indirect support for Kirkpatrick's (1967) model (e.g. Fromkin, Brandt, King, Sherwood, & Fisher, 1975; Latham, Wexley, & Purcell, 1975). Furthermore, several recent studies investigating the role of individual and contextual factors on training effectiveness have also made use of Kirkpatrick's model (e.g. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Mathieu et al., 1993; Noe & Schmitt, 1986). This use of Kirkpatrick's criteria is also consistent with the work of Alliger & Janak (1989) who underscore Kirkpatrick's idea that these criteria do not have to be causally linked to one another and that each may be useful even when examined independently of the others.

Based upon their widespread use in training evaluation, the present study suggests that several of Kirkpatrick's (1967) criteria may be essential for the evaluation of the effectiveness of CCT. This suggestion is consistent with several other CCT studies that have applied one or more of Kirkpatrick's (1967) criteria to the evaluation of the effectiveness of CCT programs (e.g. Earley, 1987; Fiedler et al., 1971; Gudykunst et al.,
In addition to examining the application of Kirkpatrick's criteria to the evaluation of CCT, the present study also seeks to add to the CCT literature by suggesting that the assessment of CCT effectiveness requires an examination of learning outcomes that are based upon a more complex definition of learning than that provided by Kirkpatrick. The application of this idea provides the basis for the present model's suggestion that the evaluation of CCT occur in two phases. A description of the specific outcomes of learning to be examined in both stages of evaluation as well as information on the rationale behind these stages is provided in the following sections.

In-Country Training Evaluation

The first stage of CCT evaluation suggested by the proposed model includes the assessment of trainees' reactions to training and their learning of training program content. This stage of evaluation is based upon Harrison's (1992) investigation of the effectiveness of two distinct types of CCT programs. Applying Harrison's
methodology to the present study suggests that the first stage of evaluation of CCT, that focusing on trainees' reactions and learning, should be implemented before trainees depart for their overseas assignment.

Reactions

Kirkpatrick's (1967) model of training effectiveness suggests that trainees' reactions to the training program are important because they may influence the amount of training program content learned by trainees. He suggests that this is because, in order for learning to occur from training, trainees must experience positive reactions to several aspects of the training program. These aspects include the degree to which trainee expectations were met and trainees' perceptions of the relevancy of the material covered in training (Brethower & Rummler, 1979).

Despite Kirkpatrick's (1967) idea regarding the link between learning and reactions, empirical support for this relationship remains mixed (e.g. Alliger & Janak, 1989; Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Harrison, 1992; Mathieu et al., 1992). For instance, Alliger and Janak (1989) suggest that it is difficult to link reactions and learning in a causal manner because these two outcomes are
most often measured at the same time. This has led to the search for other interpretations of the relationship between the two variables. One such interpretation is offered by Mathieu et al. (1992) who suggest that, although reactions and learning may be positively related, reactions may not cause learning. Rather, they suggest that reactions may influence learning indirectly by serving to moderate the relationships between other training related variables such as motivation and learning (this idea is investigated in the present model, but is explained in more detail in a later section).

Literature that suggests that learning and reactions are positively correlated (e.g. Alliger & Janak, 1989; Mathieu et al., 1992; Noe & Schmitt, 1986) and Harrison's (1992) findings indicating that learning measures are significantly, positively correlated with trainees' reactions to CCT allows the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Trainees' reactions to CCT program content will be positively related to their learning of the material presented in CCT.
Learning

The present study suggests that the first stage of evaluation of CCT effectiveness should include measures of learning. This idea is based upon Kirkpatrick's (1967) suggestion that positive reactions to training alone are not sufficient proof that learning has occurred. Despite the importance placed on the measurement of learning outcomes in Kirkpatrick's (1967) model of training evaluation, his definition of learning has been criticized as insufficient because it fails to recognize that learning is a multidimensional construct (Kraiger et al., 1993). Kraiger et al. (1993) suggest that there are several types of learning and that each distinct type is best evaluated via the examination of specific, related outcomes.

When applied to the present study, the model of learning proposed by Kraiger et al. (1993) suggests that the immediate, in-country, evaluation of CCT should be concerned with the assessment of the extent to which trainees have acquired relevant principles, facts, or skills taught in training (i.e. verbal learning). Kraiger et al. (1993) suggest that this type of learning is best
assessed using cognitive learning outcomes consisting of objective verbal learning measures such as paper-and-pencil exams. Such measures have been widely used in past investigations of CCT effectiveness (e.g. Earley, 1987; Fiedler et al., 1971; Gudykunst et al., 1977; Harrison, 1992; O'Brien & Plooij, 1977; Worchel & Mitchell, 1972). Furthermore, Kraiger et al. (1993) suggest that the acquisition of verbal knowledge is a prerequisite for the later development of more complex, higher order skills and knowledge structures. Thus, the present study suggests that more complex higher order outcomes of CCT should be measured in a later stage of evaluation.

To summarize, the present study suggests that CCT evaluation begin with an in-country assessment of trainees' reactions to CCT program content as well as an assessment of the initial verbal knowledge gained as a result of their participation in the CCT program. Because this initial verbal learning is critical to the development of more complex skills that rely on the application of such learning, it is suggested that additional CCT outcomes be examined once trainees have had the opportunity to use learned material. Thus, the
present model proposes that the second stage of evaluation be carried out once trainees have relocated overseas.

**Overseas Training Evaluation**

The second stage of CCT evaluation proposed in the present study takes place once expatriates have relocated overseas and have had a chance to practice interacting with members of the host country. The rationale behind this stage of evaluation is the suggestion that, by practicing intercultural interactions, trainees will facilitate the development of important cross-cultural skills that are needed in order to help their adjustment to the new culture and their in-role work performance. Thus, in order to further assess the effectiveness of CCT, this stage of evaluation examines the development of specific cross-cultural skills and the influence of these skills on adjustment and in-role performance. The following section provides an explanation for the rationale behind this proposed overseas evaluation strategy.

The overseas stage of evaluation proposed in the present study is based on the CCT outcomes outlined by Black and Mendenhall (1990). Specifically, these authors
suggest that the learning of training program content (i.e. the verbal learning evaluated in stage one) is directly related to several additional outcomes of CCT, including: (a) cross-cultural skill development (the development of the skills needed for successful integration into a new culture and interaction with members of that culture), (b) adjustment (the gradual development of familiarity, comfort, and proficiency regarding expected behavior and the values and assumptions inherent in the new culture), and (c) in-role performance (the level of performance on organizational tasks exhibited by the expatriate). Empirical evidence supporting Black and Mendenhall's (1990) propositions has been reported in a recent meta-analysis (Desphande & Viswesvaran, 1992). Thus, the literature suggests that the measurement of cross-cultural skill development, adjustment, and in-role performance should be a central part of the evaluation of CCT (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Desphande & Viswesvaran, 1992). Therefore, the second stage of CCT evaluation proposed in the present study seeks to provide an evaluation of each of these outcomes. The strategy and rationale behind the evaluation of each
outcome is described as follows, beginning with the
development of cross-cultural skills.

Cross-Cultural Skill Development

Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest that the material
learned in training is directly related to the development
of specific cross-cultural skills crucial to the overseas
adjustment and in-role performance of expatriates. These
specific cross-cultural skills include understanding the
actions of members of the host country (perceptual
skills), coping with the stress related to relocation
(self-related skills), and carrying out successful
relationships with persons from the host culture
(relational skills). It has been suggested that the
development of these skills is dependent on the amount of
related material learned during a CCT program (Black &
Mendenhall, 1990). Thus, the learning measured at the
first stage of evaluation is critical to the second stage
of evaluation because it serves as a foundation for the
development of cross-cultural skills such as those
outlined by Black and Mendenhall (1990). This idea leads
to the following hypothesis:
Hypothesis 2a: The amount of material learned by trainees in CCT programs will be directly related to the acquisition of important cross-cultural skills (i.e. relationship skills, perception skills, self-related skills).

The present model suggests that it is also important to examine the manner in which verbal learning from CCT influences the development of cross-cultural skills. Such an explanation is provided by Black and Mendenhall (1990); who suggest that, in order to develop cross-cultural skills, trainees must have experience in applying the material learned in training in actual interactions with members of the host country. This idea is supported by Kraiger et al. (1993) who indicate that the result of practice in applying the behaviors learned in training is a state of "automaticity" which allows the material learned in training to be utilized in a manner that is fluid, accomplished, and individualized. The ideas of Black and Mendenhall (1990) and Kraiger et al. (1993) suggest that when the initial information learned in training is put to use in intercultural interactions, behaviors related to these materials will be integrated.
into advanced cognitive structures. Thus, these authors suggest that it is possible that the development of such structures results in an increase in the ease with which individuals perform tasks that rely on the use of the cross-cultural skills outlined by Black & Mendenhall (1990). Information on the relationship between verbal learning and the importance of practicing cross-cultural interactions leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2b: The amount of material learned by trainees in CCT programs will be directly related to the acquisition of important cross-cultural skills (i.e. relationship skills, perception skills, self-related skills).

Adjustment

The present study also suggests that the development of the cross-cultural skills outlined by Black and Mendenhall (1990) is important because the mastery of these skills is necessary for the achievement of adjustment and performance in the host country. For instance, Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest that the learning of cross-cultural skills allows the individual to

22
become more at ease in interactions with members of the host culture. The subsequent reduction in the anxiety associated with intercultural interactions that results from learning the use of such skills is suggested to play an important role in increasing the ease with which one adjusts to a foreign culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; McDaniel et al., 1988). Thus, Black & Mendenhall (1990) suggest that the opportunity to practice interactions will allow persons to adjust to a new culture more quickly by helping them to learn the cross-cultural skills necessary for such adjustment. This information suggests that the learning of cross-cultural skills is related to adjustment and leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The learning of cross-cultural skills (i.e. relationship skills, perception skills, self-related skills) will be positively related to trainees' adjustment to the host culture.

In-Role Performance

Black & Mendenhall (1990) also suggest that the learning of cross-cultural skills is positively related to overseas job performance. This relationship is logical.
given the idea that the learning of these skills helps to facilitate increased ease in intercultural interactions. Assuming that such interactions are necessary for expatriate job performance, there should be a positive relationship between learning cross-cultural skills and the performance of organizational tasks requiring interactions with host country nationals. This relationship suggests the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: There will be a positive relationship between the learning of cross-cultural skills (i.e. relationship skills, perception skills, self-related skills) and the performance of in-role tasks.

Black & Mendenhall also (1990) suggest that overseas adjustment may be related to overseas work performance. This suggestion is based upon the assumption that, because overseas adjustment is likely to increase the ease and success of cross-cultural interactions, such adjustment will allow greater success in the in-role performance of organizational tasks that rely on these interactions. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:
Hypothesis 5: Cross-cultural adjustment will be positively related to the performance of organizational tasks that rely on cross-cultural interactions.

Results

The present model also suggests that the second phase of CCT evaluation should include the assessment of results criteria as defined by Kirkpatrick (1967). This suggestion is based upon Harrison’s (1992) study in which he proposes that data on the expatriate’s overseas job performance provide an opportunity for the collection of criteria related to the economic impact of the CCT program (Harrison, 1992). This type of data is critical because it may provide objective information that may play an important role in convincing persons within the MNC of the value of CCT. This information leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: The overseas job performance of the expatriate will have a direct influence on results criteria.

In summary, based on both the general and CCT training effectiveness literature, the present model
proposes that the evaluation of CCT should occur in two stages. The first, in-country, stage of CCT evaluation should take place directly after the completion of the CCT program and should assess reaction criteria and cognitive learning criteria. The second stage of CCT evaluation should occur after the expatriate has relocated overseas and should assess the influence of the cognitive learning outcomes examined in the first stage of evaluation on the learning of specific cross-cultural skills. Finally, this second stage of CCT evaluation should assess the influence of these specific cross-cultural skills on the adjustment and in-role performance of expatriates as well as the impact that these factors have on results criteria.

With the dependent variables to be utilized by the present model to measure CCT effectiveness and their interrelationships established, the remaining sections of this paper are devoted to the description of the variables that are proposed to exert an influence upon these outcomes.
Influences upon CCT Effectiveness

Motivation to Learn

The construct of motivation to learn has been identified by several training researchers as a major component of training systems models (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Facteau et al., 1995; Goldstien, 1993; Noe, 1986; Quinones, 1995). The present model also suggests that motivation to learn plays an important role in the effectiveness of CCT. The following section presents (a) a definition of the construct of motivation to learn; (b) a review of the literature supporting the role of the construct in training program effectiveness; and (c) a rationale for its proposed influence upon cross-cultural training effectiveness.

Motivation to learn has been defined by Noe (1986) as "a specific desire on the part of trainee to learn the content of the training program (p. 743)." Such motivation is essential because, as both Maier (1973), and Goldstien (1993) suggest; even if trainees possess the prerequisite skills needed to learn the content of the
training program, they may have difficulty learning them in the absence of motivation.

A number of researchers have conducted empirical studies that have investigated the relationship between motivation to learn and various training outcomes. For example, with respect to traditional work training programs, several studies have found a positive relationship between trainees' motivation to learn and scores on learning measures (Baldwin & Karl, 1987; Baldwin et al., 1991; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Hicks & Klimoski, 1987; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1990; Mathieu et al., 1992). Motivation to learn has also been linked both directly and indirectly to other important post-training outcomes such as job performance (Baldwin & Karl, 1987; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992; Quinones, 1995), the use of trained behaviors on the job (Quinones, 1995), and trainees' reactions to training programs (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Mathieu et al., 1995; Quinones, 1995). The evidence from these studies investigating motivation to learn indicates that this construct exerts an important influence upon many training outcomes. This suggests that motivation to learn may also exert an
influence on specific dependent variables related to CCT effectiveness. Unfortunately, no empirical research investigating the influence of motivation to learn on cross-cultural training exists at this time. Given this deficiency, the present study seeks to apply the domestic training effectiveness literature to the literature on CCT effectiveness in order to propose the idea that motivation to learn may play an important role in the effectiveness of CCT programs.

The task of integrating the two areas of training effectiveness literature is made difficult by the fact that the only existing theoretical investigation of the relationship between motivation to learn and CCT effectiveness is that provided by Black & Mendenhall's (1990) model of cross-cultural training effectiveness. This model utilizes Bandura's (1977, 1986) social learning theory (SLT) to explain the process by which the learning of CCT content influences the development of cross-cultural skills important to expatriate job performance. Specifically, Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest that there are four central elements of Bandura's (1977, 1986) SLT that can be linked to cross-cultural
training effectiveness including: attention (the allocation of cognitive resources to the observation of modeled behaviors), retention (the encoding of the observed modeled behaviors into memory), reproduction (the translation of the stored behaviors into actions), and incentives and motivational processes (factors that compel the trainee to reproduce the learned behaviors when appropriate).

According to Black & Mendenhall (1990), without proper motivation to engage in each step of the SLT process, learning may not occur because trainees' may fail to attend to and store the information taught in training. Furthermore, if not motivated to reproduce behaviors taught during training, trainees may fail to use information that is critical in facilitating successful interactions with persons from another culture. Thus, Black & Mendenhall suggest that the learning of CCT content may be minimal without trainees' motivation to succeed at each step of the social learning process.

The main difference between the definition of motivation as conceptualized by Black and Mendenhall (1990) and that provided by traditional models of training
effectiveness is that the former operationalizes motivation's influence on learning in a more specific manner than does the latter. For instance, while traditional models fail to offer specific information on how the motivational process influences learning, Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest the exact role that motivation plays in learning by critically linking the construct to each of the well defined steps in the SLT process. Thus, Black & Mendenhall's (1990) model provides theoretical justification for the suggestion that motivation to learn plays a central role in the learning of CCT program content.

This justification leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Pretraining levels of motivation to learn from a cross-cultural training program will be positively related to participants' learning of training program content.

Traditional training researchers have also suggested that the relationship between motivation to learn and learning may be influenced by other training related factors. Specifically, it has been proposed that participants' reactions to training programs may have an
important influence upon the effectiveness of training programs via their influence upon the relationship between motivation and learning (e.g. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995 Mathieu et al., 1992; Mathieu et al., 1993; Quniones, 1995). Mathieu and his colleagues (1992) proposed that trainees who enter a training program unmotivated are not likely to learn much even if the enjoy the program and that negative reactions to a training program may discourage even the most motivated participants from learning. These ideas led Mathieu et al. (1992) to propose that reactions to training programs may moderate the relationship between participants' motivation to learn and their learning of training program content. The results of an empirical investigation of this hypothesis offered support for the fact that training motivation was more strongly related to learning for participants who had positive reactions to the training program. These findings are important for the present study because they suggest that motivated participants who react favorably to CCT programs will be more likely to learn the content of such training courses. This information leads to the following hypothesis:
Hypothesis 8: Participants' reactions to training programs will moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and the learning of training content such that participants who react favorably to CCT programs will exhibit higher levels of learning for training program content.

In addition to factors such as motivation, models of training effectiveness have begun to focus on other factors such as the influence of individual and situational characteristics that may impact training effectiveness (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Noe 1986; Facteau et al., 1995). Therefore, the remaining constructs outlined in the proposed model consist of specific situational and individual characteristics that are proposed to exert an influence on training effectiveness via their influence on motivation to learn. The following section contains a description of the major situational factor suggested by the proposed model, organizational climate.

**Situational Factors Influencing CCT Effectiveness: Climate**

The present study suggests that an investigation of organizational climate as a situational influence on CCT
effectiveness may be useful. To date, research linking climate and training effectiveness has primarily addressed the relationship between a climate for transfer of training and post-training behavior. For example, studies by Rouiller & Goldstien (1993) and Tracey et al. (1995) found empirical evidence that a positive climate for transfer of training exerts a direct, positive influence upon important post-training behaviors. These results offer support for the idea that trainees' climate perceptions may have an important influence on their behavior following training. Thus, the present study proposes that organizational climate may directly influence cross-cultural trainees' motivation to learn. Furthermore, it is proposed that climate has an additional indirect effect on cross-cultural trainees' motivation to learn through its influence on several individual difference variables (e.g. motivation to learn, organizational commitment, self-efficacy). In order to better develop the ideas regarding organizational climate presented in the present study, the following section provides an overview of the climate construct and its function in the present model.
Definition of Organizational Climate

The present model utilizes the definition of organizational climate proposed by Schneider (1983, 1990). This definition suggests that climate can be conceptualized as shared individual perceptions regarding salient characteristics of the organizational context (Schneider, 1990; Tracey et al., 1995). Schneider's definition of climate is useful because it suggests that climate is based upon employees' perceptions of (a) events, practices, and procedures in an organizational setting (also known as "routines") and (b) behaviors that get rewarded and supported within that setting (also known as "rewards") (Schneider, 1990). Schneider proposes that routines and rewards are perceived by all persons in the organization. Furthermore, he suggests that the members of an organization attach meaning to their perceptions of routines and rewards and it is this meaning that communicates a message to employees regarding what it is that is valued in a particular setting. Thus, the routines and rewards established within an organization serve to both signal to employees the outcomes that are valued in a setting, as well as focus employees' energies.
and competencies on the attainment of these outcomes (Schneider, 1990).

An important aspect of Schneider's definition of climate is the idea that because persons attach meaning to any number of related objective events, organizations can be described as having numerous climates (Schneider & Reichers, 1983), each of which can be specifically defined by a criterion of interest (Schneider, 1985; Tracey et al., 1995). Thus, there may exist many climates within any given work setting; with the number of such climates limited only by the number of perceived clusters of events, practices, and procedures within each setting (Schneider, 1990).

For example, several researchers have investigated specifically defined climate referents such as climate for safety (Zohar, 1980), climate for customer service (Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Schneider, Wheeler, & Cox, 1992), and climate for innovation (e.g. Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987). Studies that have examined such specific climates have explained significant variance in related criterion variables such as on the job safety practices and customer ratings of service quality.
(Schneider et al., 1992; Tracey et al., 1995; Zohar, 1980).

To summarize, the concept of organizational climate can be defined as shared individual perceptions of an organizational context that communicate a message to employees about what is valued by the organization in that particular setting. Furthermore, because each work setting may contain numerous routines and rewards that may create many different climates, the study of the influence of climate on behavior in organizations requires the definition of a specific climate referent. The present model suggests that routines and rewards related to expatriation may create a specific climate referent focusing on the expatriation and globalization processes within multinational firms. I refer to this specific climate referent as "climate for belief in the overseas mission". The following section describes climate for belief in the overseas mission in more detail.

Climate for Belief in the Overseas Mission

The construct of belief in the overseas mission is one that has yet to be clearly defined. The present study seeks to provide a precise definition for the construct by
suggesting that belief in the overseas mission is a specific climate referent that is representative of organizational members' perceptions of routines and rewards related to expatriate assignments within their firm. The present model suggests that individuals' perceptions of the dimensions of climate for belief in the overseas mission may significantly influence the effectiveness of CCT programs.

The idea that expatriates may experience a belief in the importance of their overseas assignment has existed in previous literature concerning expatriate assignments (e.g. Cleveland, Mangone, & Adams, 1960; Hays, 1972; 1974; Ronen, 1989). Although past use of the construct has suggested that it is an important predictor of the job success of expatriate workers, theoretical definitions have been cursory and no solid empirical evidence has been provided to support these definitions.

Belief in the overseas mission was first introduced by Cleveland and his colleagues in 1960. These authors proposed that the construct has many facets including: an active desire to serve in an overseas assignment, enthusiasm about the job, a sense of purpose and
achievement from the job, faith in the work one is doing, identification with the job or career, and identification of the career as it relates to the organization. Despite the many outcomes attributed to belief in the overseas mission by Cleveland et al. (1960), they fail to provide any empirical investigation of the construct, never operationalizing it beyond a narrative review of its hypothetical components.

Ronen (1989) developed the construct more fully by suggesting that belief in the overseas mission is a motivational state that plays an important role in the success of the expatriate assignment. Ronen (1989) defines the construct as "the congruence between an individual's and an organization's goals such that the candidate feels they are filling a necessary position and that they will be serving the corporation and its interests abroad (p. 434)". Ronen (1989) proposes that the construct can be equated with the concept of task significance (the significance an individual assigns to the work they do) in Hackman & Oldham's (1980) model of job design. Despite this description, Ronen (1989) does not give any further information about how the construct
should be measured or what its antecedents or consequences may be.

The only empirical research that has investigated belief in the overseas mission is that conducted by Hays (1972, 1974). He identified the presence of a belief in the overseas mission as important for predicting success of expatriates working overseas. Despite reporting that the construct was a significant predictor of expatriate success, Hays (1972, 1974) never presented any evidence of how the construct was operationalized or measured in his research, thus making it difficult to replicate his findings or extend them to other scenarios.

The lack of research on belief in the overseas mission suggests that the construct needs to be more clearly defined and then empirically investigated. The present study seeks to accomplish this by suggesting that the construct may have its basis in the concept of organizational climate. Given Schneider's (1990) idea that climate perceptions involve shared individual perceptions of objective reality within the firm, the present study suggests that expatriate belief in their overseas mission is a function of the specific routines
and rewards related to expatriation within their firm. This viewpoint further suggests that routines and rewards may engender climate perceptions that may influence motivation to learn from CCT. When integrated with the idea of organizational climate, the present study suggests that the construct of belief in the overseas mission originally proposed by Cleveland et al. (1960) be viewed as a specific climate referent known as "climate for belief in the overseas mission". This referent can be defined as: "A perception, created by routines and rewards specific to the expatriation process, that one's overseas assignment is both an important part of the continued success of the firm and the success of the expatriate's job and career within that firm."

To summarize, the present study suggests that the idea of a belief in the overseas mission is really a climate referent that is based upon perceptions of organizational routines and rewards related to expatriate assignments within a given firm. Because a major part of this definition is the idea that belief in the overseas mission is a function of specific routines and rewards, a proper understanding of this construct requires knowledge of the
specific routines and rewards that are hypothesized to engender it. In order to provide such information, the following section reviews several specific routines and rewards that are proposed to be antecedents of perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission.

Although a wide variety of routines and rewards within the MNC can have an impact on climate perceptions, the present study reviews five specific areas of expatriate HR management that are proposed to be highly salient for expatriates. These include, routines and rewards associated with expatriate selection, cross-cultural training, expatriate compensation, overseas support for expatriates, and career planning for repatriation. Hypotheses regarding the proposed role of each of these areas of expatriate HR management in the formation of perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission are reviewed in the following sections.

**Expatriate selection.** The present study suggests that the routines used by MNCs to select their expatriates may serve to influence employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission within that firm. In order to develop this idea, the following section presents a
review of the literature on the relationship between selection procedures and climate perceptions followed by a review of related international selection research.

The climate literature has documented a relationship between selection procedures and climate perceptions (Schneider et al., 1980; Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Schneider et al., 1992). For example, a recent study by Schneider et al. (1992) indicated that an organization's hiring procedures were strongly correlated (r = .64) with perceptions of a specific climate for customer service among employees of that same organization (Schneider et al., 1992). These authors note that employees' perceive personnel selection routines as embodiments of what is valued by the organization and thus serve as the basis of related climate perceptions.

The relationships found by Schneider et al. (1992) suggest the possibility that hiring practices among MNCs may be related to the specific climate referent of interest in this study, climate for belief in the overseas mission, because these practices may serve as signals to employees that the firm values its expatriates and is committed to the success of its overseas operations.
Based on a review of the expatriate HR literature, the present study suggests that three specific aspects of expatriate selection may serve as cues that the firm values its expatriates and thus influence perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission among employees of that firm. These three aspects include the use of multidimensional selection criteria, the inclusion of the expatriate family unit in the selection process, and the inclusion of a realistic job preview for expatriates as part of the firm's expatriate selection system.

There is much literature within the area of expatriate HR that suggests that a positive relationship exists between the use of selection criteria that measure ability to successfully integrate into a foreign culture (e.g. relational ability, tolerance for ambiguity, open-mindedness) and the subsequent success of those selected for overseas assignments (e.g. Tung, 1981, 1982, 1984). Unfortunately, most MNCs do not seem to be cognizant of this relationship and, as a result, they have often failed to base the selection of their expatriates upon criteria that are thought to be related to intercultural competence (Ronen, 1989). Instead, MNCs
often rely on technical knowledge as the sole criterion for selection (Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987; Miller, 1972; Ronen, 1989).

The present study suggests that the use of a variety of criteria for expatriate selection may also be an important part of the expatriate selection process because such criteria may communicate the organization's understanding that: (a) successful expatriate work performance is dependent on a variety of skills; and (b) choosing multi-talented individuals to serve its interests overseas is critical. In other words, it is suggested that the use of multidimensional selection measures may be perceived by employees as a manifestation of the value which a firm places on the success of its expatriate human resources. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9a: The use of criteria in addition to technical competence for the selection of expatriates will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

In addition to the use of multidimensional selection criteria, another aspect of expatriate selection systems
that may contribute to perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission concerns organizational procedures used to assess the suitability of the expatriate's family for an overseas assignment (Harvey, 1985; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Tung, 1984). Such considerations may be important given that a spouse or family member who is having difficulties living abroad can adversely affect the performance of the expatriate manager (Harvey, 1985). In fact, the inability of the spouse to adapt to life overseas has been identified by several researchers as the primary cause of early return for expatriate workers (Gaylord, 1979; Grain & Cooper, 1981; Harvey, 1982, 1985; Ronen, 1989; Tung, 1982). In order to prevent family difficulties from becoming a catalyst for the eventual failure of an overseas assignment, it has been suggested that MNCs screen the entire family unit of a potential expatriate in order to make sure that all members are willing and capable of handling the difficulties that come with overseas relocation (Harvey, 1982, 1985; Mendenhall et al., 1987).

By including the entire expatriate family unit in the selection process, the firm may also signal that it wishes
to be supportive of its expatriates. Such actions on the part of the firm may be seen as demonstrating a concern for the welfare of the expatriate's family and may communicate the fact that they wish to provide assistance throughout the expatriation process. Thus, the signals sent by the organization due to the inclusion of the family unit in the expatriate selection process may serve as the basis of employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This information leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9b: Efforts to assess the family's suitability for an overseas mission will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

A third aspect that may serve as an important part of expatriate selection systems is the existence of a realistic job preview (RJP) for expatriates. According to the recruitment and socialization literature, providing persons seeking a position with a realistic, as opposed to an overly positive, picture of that job has many benefits for both the organization and the individual (Meglino, Denisi, & Ravlin, 1993). In fact there have been many
studies that have indicated that RJPs can be linked to higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, and retention (McEvoy & Cascio, 1985; Meglino et al., 1993; Premack & Wanous, 1985; Wanous, 1973, 1977, 1983, 1992, Wanous & Colella, 1989).

The literature on RJPs suggests that RJPs provide information that allows persons to make an informed choice about accepting a job, allowing persons who do not feel their skills are compatible with the demands of the job to self-select themselves out of consideration for the position (Meglino et al., 1993; Wanous, 1973). RJPs have also been identified as a good way of helping to diminish the "reality shock" that persons may encounter when beginning a new job for which they have unrealistic expectations (Meglino et al., 1993).

Given the numerous difficulties that accompany an overseas assignment, it seems logical that providing an RJP of an expatriate assignment may be advantageous to both the MNC and their potential expatriate workers. Recent literature on expatriate HR reinforces this idea by identifying the presence of RJPs as a factor that may
serve as an important component of expatriate selection systems (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Feldman & Thompson, 1993). The information provided by an RJP of the expatriate assignment may help the potential expatriate to make an informed decision regarding the acceptance of an overseas assignment (Feldman & Thompson, 1993). It is likely that the use of RJPs for the selection of expatriates may serve as a signal to potential expatriates that the firm is not trying to deceive them about the nature of the assignment, while also showing that the firm understands that such assignments aren't always easy. This suggests that RJPs for expatriates may contribute to their perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9c: The use of RJPs for expatriate assignments will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

In addition to routines related to the expatriate selection process, those associated with several other areas of HR management for expatriates may also serve as antecedents to the formation of perceptions of a positive
climate for belief in the overseas mission. The following section addresses one such area, the provision of CCT for expatriates.

**Training.** There has been much literature that has suggested a relationship between training programs for expatriates (and their families) and the success of expatriate assignments (Gaylord, 1979; Harvey, 1982, 1985; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall et al., 1987). The present study seeks to help explain this relationship by proposing that the provision of CCT programs influences employees' perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission. In order to develop this idea, this section summarizes the relevant literature on the relationship between training programs and climate perceptions and utilizes this information to propose hypotheses regarding the impact of specific aspects of CCT on perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission.

Previous research on the relationship between training programs and perceptions of organizational climate has indicated that the availability and content of training programs may serve as an influence on the climate
perceptions of a firm’s employees. For instance, a study by Schneider et al. (1992) found that the availability and content of customer service training programs offered by financial service companies was positively related ($r = .40$) to employees' perceptions of a specific climate for customer service (Schneider et al., 1992). Schneider and his colleagues suggest that this relationship exists because an organization's strategic imperatives drive their HR practices thus making such practices a direct signal to employees of what is valued by that company.

A review of the international HR literature suggests that Schneider et al.'s findings may apply to perceptions of a specific climate for belief in the overseas mission. This is based upon the results of several studies that indicate that CCT related HR policies send important signals that are interpreted by a firm's employees. For instance, studies by Gregersen and Black (1992), Guzzo et al. (1994), and Naumann (1993) suggest that the provision of CCT is seen by expatriates as an indicator of a parent companies' support. Thus, the present study suggests that the provision of CCT for expatriates may be related to perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas
mission, leading to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10a: The provision of CCT programs by MNCs will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

The present study argues that two other aspects of CCT programs for expatriates may also send important signals to a firm's employees and thus may serve as the basis of related climate perceptions. The first of these is the comprehensiveness of the CCT program. The comprehensiveness of CCT programs is important because most CCT programs have been criticized as being inadequate in terms of content, scope, and longitudinal integration of training (Naumann, 1993; Nicholson et al. 1991).

A contingency model recommended by Mendenhall et al. (1987) suggests that training for persons going abroad for over one year should last from one to three months and utilize a wide variety of techniques. This model provides a general picture of the type of program that should be provided for expatriates going on long term overseas assignments. However, given that the average length of an expatriate assignment is three years, and that a (1984)
survey indicated that the majority of CCT programs offered by MNCs last for less than one week and include only the presentation of objective information, the contingency model of CCT suggests that most MNCs are failing to offer training programs that are comprehensive enough to meet the needs of the average expatriate assignment (Mendenhall et al., 1987; Runzheimer, 1984).

The present study suggests that the depth of training for expatriates is critical because training programs serve as manifestations of the organization's support of its expatriates and may be perceived by employees as a signal of the importance that the organization attaches to the expatriate assignment. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 10b: Comprehensive CCT programs that are consistent with the needs of the overseas mission will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

A final factor related to training that may influence employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission is the inclusion of the expatriate family unit in the training process. Given that the expatriate
family situation is a central factor in the success of the overseas assignment (Gaylord, 1979; Harvey, 1982, 1985; Naumann, 1993; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Runzheimer, 1984; Tung, 1981, 1982), the inclusion of the spouse and family in CCT is critical. However, many researchers have indicated that most MNCs do not provide such training to other family members (Harvey, 1982, 1985; Naumann, 1993). Based upon literature that suggests that CCT related policies serve as important signals to expatriates (Gregersen & Black, 1992; Guzzo et al., 1994; Naumann, 1993), it is likely that policies such as the inclusion of the family in CCT may influence perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission among employees. In other words, just as it is critical to include the family unit in the selection process, it is equally as important to provide them with adequate amounts of CCT. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10c: The inclusion of the spouse and family members in the cross-cultural training program will be positively related to perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

54
Expatriate compensation. In addition to personnel selection and training, the proposed model suggests that expatriate compensation practices may be related to perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. In order to develop these ideas, the following section addresses the influence of several forms of compensation on perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission and provides several hypotheses regarding these proposed relationships.

The climate literature supports the existence of a relationship between a firm's compensation policies and perceptions of a related climate referent among employees within that firm. Specifically, a study by Schneider et al. (1992) found that issues related to compensation such as salary, hours worked, and fringe benefits had a positive relationship ($r = .43$) with employees' perceptions of a specific climate for customer service. Schneider et al. (1992) note that compensation policies related to customer service may serve as signals to employees that the firm values customer service. According to these authors, it is the interpretation of these signals by
employees that serves as the basis for perceptions of a climate for customer service within the organization.

The present study builds on Schneider et al.'s (1992) findings by proposing that compensation policies may serve as signals of an organization's support of its expatriates. Such a proposal is supported by the results of a study conducted by Guzzo et al. (1994). This study found that expatriates' judgements of the sufficiency of the financial assistance offered to them by their organizations was significantly, positively correlated ($r = .60$) with their perceptions of organizational support.

Monetary compensation for expatriates is more complex than domestic compensation due to a number of additional factors (Paauwe & Dewe, 1995). These factors include issues such as the high costs associated with relocation, differences in national and local economies, differences in the value of currencies, and differences in tax laws. The need to address each of these factors has led to the creation of specialized compensation packages for expatriates. These packages are most often comprised of two major areas. These include the expatriate's base salary (i.e. a package of payments used in order to
compensate the expatriate and cover the special expenses associated with the overseas assignment), and extra financial inducements for the overseas assignment (i.e. stock options, profit sharing agreements, etc.). In the case of the overseas assignment, the norm is that both the base salary and financial inducements are higher than the salaries of domestic positions (Dowling et al., 1994). This is usually done in order to offset the hardships associated with such assignments (Dowling, et al., 1994).

Based upon the findings of Guzzo et al. (1994), the present study suggests that the high pay and multiple incentives that are the norm in monetary compensation packages for expatriates provide a signal of an organization's imperative to support its overseas operations. These polices may thus serve as a basis for employees' beliefs that the firm is supportive of its expatriates. The proposed model suggests that such policies contribute to perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 11a:** Financial compensation packages that are perceived by expatriates as offering high pay and
attractive monetary incentives will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

Non-monetary compensation for expatriates may also serve as an influence on perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This is likely to occur in situations where a high degree of status is associated with the overseas assignment among organizational members. One of the most salient ways in which MNCs can communicate the increased status of the expatriate assignment is via the provision of perquisites that both communicate support and act as an extrinsic incentive for the expatriate.

Common perquisites provided to expatriates include things that are used in order to increase the standard of living of the expatriate family. For instance, firms often provide expatriates with perquisites such as company cars, club memberships, servants, paid travel allowances, and access to company vacation properties (Dowling et al., 1994). These perquisites often greatly increase the quality of life of the expatriate family during an overseas assignment. The attachment of these perquisites to the expatriate assignment communicates specific
messages to the expatriate that he/she is part of an elite group of persons entrusted with the future of the corporation's globalization efforts. Such messages may convince key organizational players to take advantage of overseas opportunities within the firm (Gomez-Mejia, 1988; Pucik, 1985; Tung, 1988).

The proposed model suggests that perceptions of support engendered by perquisites for expatriates may serve as an influence upon employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11b: There will be a positive relationship between the provision of perquisites related to the expatriate assignment and perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission among expatriates.

Overseas assistance for expatriates. The following section proposes that several forms of overseas assistance for expatriates may represent important antecedents to the formation of perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. Specifically, it is proposed that the MNC's treatment of expatriate dual-career couple (DCC)
issues and the level of contact that is maintained between the expatriate and the firm's headquarters represent two specific facets of overseas assistance that may serve as important climate antecedents. In order to develop this idea, the following sections describe in more detail how HR functions related to each of these two issues may impact perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission among employees.

The present study suggests that the provision of various forms of support for expatriate DCCs may have an important influence upon perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This idea is based upon the increasing salience of DCC issues and the fact that providing assistance to DCCs in the form of the establishment of programs to help the expatriate spouse to find employment or continuing education while overseas and upon relocation may improve the attraction, retention, and motivation of expatriates (Handler & Lane, 1995; Harvey, 1985; Punnett, Crocker, & Stephens, 1992).

The proposed relationship between DCC assistance and perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission is based upon the results of several studies that
have found support for the idea that assistance to DCCs provided by the MNC may have a positive impact upon the attitudes of expatriates (Black & Stephens, 1989; DeCieri et al., 1991; Guzzo et al., 1994). Further evidence for this relationship is provided by the results of a 1994 study by Guzzo et al. that found that the judged sufficiency of a composite measure of support provided to DCCs was significantly, positively (r = .74) related to respondents’ perceptions of organizational support. These results led Guzzo et al. (1994) to the conclusion that their study provides evidence for the idea that HR policies that support expatriate DCCs have an important impact upon expatriates’ perceptions of their firm.

Guzzo et al.'s findings are important when viewed in conjunction with Schneider et al.'s (1992) idea that employee judgements regarding their firm may serve as the basis for the climate perceptions of employees within a firm. Based on these ideas, it is suggested that the presence of DCC assistance policies may be an important factor in the formation of perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission among expatriates. This
information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12a: The MNCs provision of assistance to the trailing member of an expatriate DCC will be positively related to perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission among employees of that firm.

In addition to assistance offered to members of DCCs, the present study also suggests that the frequency and intensity of contact with the home office (defined here as the establishment of a strong communication network that serves as a link between expatriates and the home office) may have an influence on perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. The present study suggests that this may occur because strong support from the home office may have an influence upon expatriate's perceptions of organizational support.

Several authors have suggested that the maintenance of overseas assistance may be an important influence upon expatriate's perceptions of dependability and support. For instance, Feldman (1991) proposed that the more assistance expatriates receive while overseas, the more
they are likely to experience attitudinal attachment to their firm. Furthermore, a model of expatriate success proposed by Nicholson et al. (1991) suggests that communication with the home office may exert an important influence upon the outcome of an expatriate assignment based upon the fact that the amount and quality of contact maintained with the home office is directly related to an MNCs internal commitment to the beliefs and values on which the corporation is based.

The suggestions of Feldman (1991) and Nicholson et al. (1991) are reinforced by the results of a study by Gregersen and Black (1992) that found that the provision of contact with the home office in the form of a home country sponsor (a person in the home office charged with maintaining contact with the expatriate) was significantly, positively correlated with commitment to the parent company. When viewed in conjunction with the ideas of Schneider and his colleagues (1992) that signals of organizational support serve as the basis for climate perceptions among employees, Gregersen and Black's (1992) results suggest that policies aimed at maintaining contact between the expatriate and the home office may serve as
important signals that may influence employees' perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12b: The establishment of policies that provide for the maintenance of contact between the expatriate and the home office will be positively related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

Repatriation. The proposed model suggests that the manner in which the MNC handles career-related aspects of the return of its expatriates to the home country may influence perceptions of a climate for a belief in the overseas mission. Specifically, it is suggested that policies aimed at repatriation related career planning for expatriates may serve as a signal to expatriates that the firm values expatriate experience and is committed to the support of its expatriates.

For the expatriate, perhaps one of the most salient aspects of repatriation is the impact that the international assignment has on their career. Unfortunately, the literature on international HR has
criticized MNCs for a general lack of proper repatriation related career planning (Bennett, 1993; Feldman & Thomas, 1991; Feldman & Thompson, 1993; Harvey, 1989; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1991). This deficiency is problematic because it can often result in the transformation of the expatriate assignment into a haphazard and ill-planned event, rather than allowing it to be an important step in a logical sequence of positions (Naumann, 1993; Tung, 1984). As a result of this lack of attention to career related repatriation planning, many companies have been accused of losing track of the careers of their expatriates during the overseas mission (Adler, 1981; Bennett, 1993; Harvey, 1989).

The international HR literature suggests that support should be provided by HR practices that include proactive policies aimed at providing continuing; career-related support before, during, and after the assignment (Bennett, 1993; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Feldman & Thompson, 1993). Furthermore, this literature suggests that the support outlined above be created via specific policies that provide such services as: contractual agreements regarding job
assignments upon repatriation (Mendenhall et al., 1987), proactive repatriation-related job placement planning (Bennett, 1993), mentoring programs (Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thompson, 1993), and the use of repatriated employees as resources to help future expatriates (Bennett, 1993; Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thompson, 1993).

The failure to provide repatriation planning throughout all phases of the expatriate assignment can be damaging to the MNC because it may serve as a negative influence upon the attitudes of organizational members (Adler, 1986; Black, 1992; Feldman, 1991; Naumann, 1993). This idea is reinforced by the empirical work of several authors who have found a positive relationship between the manner in which the MNC handles expatriates' careers and the attitudes and behaviors of these workers.

For instance, a survey of 89 expatriate managers returning from overseas assignments conducted by Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1987) found that the major determinant of satisfaction with the repatriation process was the impact the assignment had on the expatriates' career upon their return home. Furthermore, in a (1991) study, Feldman and Thomas suggest that the relationship
between job change and long term career plans may play a critical role in career development such that if job changers are able to see a connection between the current assignment and long term career paths they may be more likely to be committed to the overseas assignment. In support of this idea these authors found a significant positive relationship between the consistency of the assignment with the expatriate's career plans and their overall performance, intent to remain in the organization, and job satisfaction.

Empirical research on the relationship between career planning for repatriation and expatriate attitudes and perceptions also supports the idea that the provision of expatriate career planning sends strong signals about the firm to its employees. Evidence for this relationship comes from the results of a study by Gregersen (1992), that found that the provision of proactive career planning for repatriation was related to perceptions that the firm was supportive and valued international experience. Further, such perceptions were positively related to important affective outcomes such as increased commitment to the firm.
The information summarized thus far suggests that career planning for expatriates may have an important influence on expatriate work attitudes and perceptions. This information is important because it suggests that career planning policies may influence perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. This relationship is predicated on the fact that repatriation related career planning for expatriates serves to communicate important characteristics of the organization to its employees. This idea suggests that members of organizations providing satisfactory career planning assistance will be likely to interpret these policies as signals that the firm supports them. These interpretations are important because, according to Schneider, it is these signals that serve as the basis of perceptions such as those related to the presence of climate for belief in the overseas mission. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 13: The provision of repatriation related career planning for expatriates before, during, and after the overseas assignment will be positively
related to employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission.

Having operationalized the specific HR routines and rewards that are proposed to engender perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission, the present study proposes that such perceptions influence cross-cultural trainees' motivation to learn. The following section develops the rationale behind this idea.

Climate's Influence on Motivation to Learn

The proposed model suggests that perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission play an important role in the effectiveness of CCT through their influence on motivation to learn from CCT.

Research on organizational climate has demonstrated that climate perceptions created by organizational routines and rewards may influence specific behavioral dependent variables. For example, Kozlowski and Hults (1987) found support for the influence of specific organizational policies, practices, and procedures related to a climate for technical updating on affective and behavioral dependent variables (e.g. organizational commitment, technical performance). A similar study by
Zohar (1980) found evidence that organizational policies, practices, and procedures related to safety were positively related to behavioral measures of accident prevention and safety effectiveness among the organization's employees. The results of these studies suggest that the routines and rewards used by a firm can engender perceptions of a specific climate that may have a direct impact upon the motivation and attitudes of its employees (such as the motivation to learn from CCT).

More specifically, a related study by Rouiller and Goldstien (1993) investigated the impact of a specific transfer of training climate on trainees' use of training program content in the job environment. These authors found that work group members' perceptions of a transfer of training climate (as assessed by eight climate scales) were significantly related to post-training behavior after accounting for learning from training and work unit performance. These results are important because they indicate that the climate perceptions of work group members may impact important training behaviors such as the transfer of learned material to the job.
Further evidence for the relationship between climate and behavior related dependent variables is provided by a replication and extension of Rouiller and Goldstien's (1993) study conducted by Tracey and his colleagues (1995). This study investigated the idea that a transfer of training climate measured on the individual level of analysis would have a direct, positive impact upon post-training use of training program content. The results of this study indicated the presence of a transfer of training climate that had a direct impact upon important post-training behaviors of individual trainees. Of greater importance to the present study, Tracey et al. (1995) also found that other salient characteristics of the work environment indirectly related to training (e.g. behaviors that communicated that learning is important and cues suggesting that the organization is innovative and competitive) influenced trainees' climate perceptions and had a subsequent influence upon post-training behaviors. These findings led the authors to suggest that the social context of training that is created by various organizational policies and procedures may impact other important training related variables. Tracey et al.'s
(1995) ideas provide rationale for the suggestion that trainees who work in an environment that is not supportive of training may find it difficult to become motivated to learn training program content.

Further evidence for this idea comes from the results of an empirical study conducted by Mathieu et al. (1992). These authors found a significant relationship between the organizational context surrounding training (as characterized by features of the work environment that may interfere with work performance) and trainees' motivation to learn. Mathieu et al.'s (1992) ideas imply that organizational actions and policies may be related to motivation to learn from training because they allow trainees to make a connection between learning training program content, increased job performance, and obtaining organizational rewards.

The present study argues that these previous findings suggest that international HR practices that create perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission may have a direct positive influence upon trainees' attitudes and motivation to learn. This is based upon the idea that these practices may help to
clarify the importance of CCT for increased job performance and the reception of organizational rewards. This idea leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 14: The existence of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission will exert a positive influence on trainees' motivation to learn from CCT.

In addition to the situational influence on motivation to learn from training provided by climate perceptions, the present study suggests that several individual characteristics may influence training effectiveness via both their direct influence on motivation to learn and their interaction with situational factors (i.e. climate). These relationships are explained in more detail in the following section.

Individual Influences upon Training Effectiveness

The proposed model suggests that several characteristics of the individual trainee may influence important training related attitudes and outcomes such as motivation to learn. This idea can be found in traditional models of training effectiveness (e.g. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986;
Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Mathieu et al., 1992) and has been supported by the empirical investigation of several of these models (e.g. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Facteau et al., 1995; Mathieu et al., 1992; Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

Based upon the findings of these studies, the present study suggests that two such individual characteristics, organizational commitment and self-efficacy represent factors that may influence motivation to learn.

**Organizational Commitment**

The construct of organizational commitment has received a great deal of attention in the organizational behavior literature as both an antecedent and a consequence of other work related variables (for a narrative review see Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Although organizational commitment has been defined and measured in many ways, all of its various definitions share the core concept that commitment is considered to be a bond linking the individual to the organization, differing only based on how this bond has developed (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Of the related, yet distinct, types of commitment identified in the organizational literature (e.g. Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorff, 1994; Meyer &
Allen, 1984; Meyer & Allen 1991), attitudinal commitment is the type that has the most relevance to the present study. This idea is based upon previous support for the influence of this type of commitment on motivation to learn from training (Facteau et al., 1995; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Furthermore, attitudinal organizational commitment is the form of commitment that has been investigated in the majority of research on the commitment of expatriates to their organizations (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Guzzo et al., 1994; Naumann, 1993).

Attitudinal commitment is defined as “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).” Conceptually it can be characterized by a strong belief in the organizations' goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on the part of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The proposed model suggests that attitudinal commitment serves as a direct influence upon trainees' motivation to learn from CCT. Furthermore, in
Keeping with the proposition of several researchers (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Noe, 1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986) the proposed model also suggests that climate for belief in the overseas mission exerts an indirect influence upon motivation to learn through its influence on organizational commitment. The rationale behind these relationships is provided in the following section.

The present study suggests that organizational commitment among expatriates has a direct, positive influence on their motivation to learn from CCT. This idea is supported by a review of the training literature. For instance, Tannenbaum et al. (1991) note that pre-training levels of attitudinal commitment are likely to predispose trainees to view training provided by the organization as useful to both themselves and the organization. This suggestion implies that committed employees will be more likely to view training as an investment in the relationship between themselves and the company and will thus be motivated to learn training program content. Empirical support is provided by the results of a study by Facteau et al. (1995)., who found a
significant, positive correlation ($r = .40$) between attitudinal commitment and motivation to learn.

Although the preceding information provides support for the influence of organizational commitment on motivation to learn, no previous research has investigated this relationship within the context of CCT programs. It is likely that employees who experience organizational commitment will perceive CCT as valuable to themselves and the organization and thus will be motivated to expend the effort needed to learn from CCT (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Naumann, 1993). Information on the relationship between commitment and motivation to learn leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 15a:** Pretraining levels of attitudinal organizational commitment will be directly, positively related to employees motivation to learn from a cross-cultural training program.

The proposed model suggests that perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission have a direct, positive influence on organizational commitment. The rational behind the proposed relationship between climate and commitment is based upon the definitions of the two
constructs and literature that links expatriate HR policies with feelings of organizational commitment among expatriates. The following section summarizes evidence from these sources in order to provide support for the proposed relationship between climate perceptions and organizational commitment.

Of central importance to the definition of organizational commitment is the idea that such feelings are based, in part, upon employees' recognition of and identification with the organization's goals and values (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982). This is directly related to the main premise of the definition of organizational climate utilized in the present study, the idea that certain organizational routines and rewards serve to communicate the goals and values held by the firm to its employees (Schneider, 1990; Schneider, 1985; Schneider et al., 1992). The present study suggests that the communication that the organization's goals include the support of its expatriates that accompanies employees' perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission may serve to facilitate their understanding of, and identification with, organizational
goals and thus may serve as the basis of their commitment to the MNC. This idea is supported by the results of several studies that have found that policies that communicate organizational support and dependability have a direct positive influence upon the development of the commitment of organizational members (Angle & Perry, 1983; Buchannan, 1974; Steers, 1977).

In addition, several specific studies have provided evidence for the relationship between international HR policies and the organizational commitment of expatriates. For example, in his study of 174 expatriate managers returning from overseas assignments, Gregersen (1992) found that expatriates' feelings of acceptance regarding their financial compensation packages and the extent to which MNCs value and make use of the international experience gained by the expatriate were both significantly, positively related to perceptions of organizational commitment. Gregersen (1992) suggests that such HR practices are related to feelings of organizational commitment because they serve to signal that the firm values its international operations and is supportive of its expatriates. Naumann (1993) studied 152
US expatriate managers and found support for the hypothesis that the perceived value of pre-departure cross-cultural training and the extent of repatriation planning provided were both strong predictors of organizational commitment. A similar study of 321 US expatriate managers by Gregersen & Black (1992) found support for the fact that several international HR practices (e.g. pre-departure training, provision of an organizational sponsor, and repatriation practices) had a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment. The authors of both studies suggest that the basis of the relationship between the various international HR routines investigated and organizational commitment is the fact that these policies signal the organization's support of its expatriates.

Finally, the results of a study by Guzzo et al. (1994) found that supportive routines and rewards (e.g. financial inducements, general support, and family oriented support) were significantly related to organizational commitment among expatriate managers. Furthermore, Guzzo et al.'s (1994) study found that expatriates' perceptions of organizational support created by these routines and
rewards had a positive influence upon the formation of their feelings of organizational commitment.

The results of these studies suggest that the communication of organizational goals is a critical component of the development of attitudinal organizational commitment because, by definition, such commitment is predicated on an understanding and acceptance of these organizational goals and values. Indeed, it is the very understanding and acceptance of the organization's support that these policies communicate that gives rise to the climate perceptions leading to feelings of organizational commitment among employees (Angle & Perry, 1983; Buchannan, 1974; Steers, 1977; Gregersen, 1992; Guzzo et al., 1994; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Naumann, 1993). This idea leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 15b: Perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission will be positively related to feelings of attitudinal organizational commitment among employees.

Self-Efficacy

A second characteristic of the individual trainee that has been suggested to have an impact on cross-cultural
training effectiveness is the construct of self-efficacy. Specifically, the present study suggests that self-efficacy for learning the content of CCT may serve as a link between characteristics of the pretraining environment and training effectiveness. This idea is based upon the proposition that trainees' efficacy judgements are influenced by their perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission and that these judgments will have a direct, positive influence upon trainees' motivation to learn from CCT.

Self-efficacy has been defined as, "A person's judgement of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance, not concerning the skills one has, but rather with judgements of what one can do with the skills they possess (Bandura, 1986, p. 391)." The formation of efficacy judgements has been suggested to be a complex, task specific process that involves an individual's assessment of a broad range of predictors of performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). For instance, Bandura (1977) has suggested that an individual's formation of efficacy judgements relies on four antecedents: personal attainment
and past experience (enactive mastery), the observation of models (vicarious experience), verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. According to Bandura (1977, 1986), individuals arrive at a final judgement of efficacy for a specific task by integrating cognitive appraisals from each of these categories into a superordinate judgement of their performance capability for that task.

Gist and Mitchell (1992) note that efficacy judgements depend on factors related to the individual's environment. These authors suggest that, within organizational situations, the formation of efficacy judgements can be influenced by sources such as organizational tasks, organizational policies, and the actions of others in the organization. Furthermore, both Gist and Mitchell (1992) and Bandura (1986) suggest that efficacy judgements are task specific and thus reference to self-efficacy without a specific task with which these feelings are associated is inconsistent with the construct's intended definition. In order to remain consistent with this idea, the present study conceptualizes self-efficacy as an individual's summated judgements regarding his/her capability for learning the content of a CCT program.
The present study suggests that levels of self-efficacy for learning the content of CCT may have a direct, positive influence upon trainees' motivation to learn from CCT. This idea is supported by the training literature that has demonstrated that pre-training levels of self-efficacy can exert a positive influence on training performance (Frayne & Latham 1987; Gist 1989; Gist, Schworer, & Rosen, 1989; Latham & Frayne, 1989; Mathieu et al., 1993; Quinones, 1995; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Because it has been suggested that those with higher levels of self-efficacy for learning training program content tend to spend more time and energy to remain engaged with a task, the relationship between self-efficacy and training performance may be explained by the fact that self-efficacy exerts a positive influence on trainees' motivation to learn training content (Facteau et al., 1995; Quinones, 1995). The results of a recent study by Quinones (1995) found support for this relationship by demonstrating that pretraining levels of self-efficacy were significantly, positively related to trainees' pretraining motivation.
Black and Mendenhall (1990) provide a comprehensive model of CCT effectiveness that suggests that self-efficacy may exert an important influence on CCT. Specifically, they suggest that self-efficacy may influence CCT effectiveness based upon the fact that it exerts a positive influence on the learning process as it is described by Bandura's (1977, 1986) social learning theory (SLT). Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest that self-efficacy provides the motivational element that allows persons to engage in the attention, retention, and reproduction of training material. This viewpoint implies that self-efficacy is critical to CCT effectiveness because it is the major source of motivation for learning the material presented in CCT. Information on the relationship between self-efficacy and motivation to learn (Quinones, 1995) as well as the ideas of Black and Mendenhall (1990) leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 16a: Pre-training levels of self-efficacy for learning the content of CCT will have direct positive influence upon motivation to learn from CCT.
The literature reviewed thus far supports the idea that self-efficacy plays an important role in CCT effectiveness due to its positive influence on motivation to learn from training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Quinones, 1995). The present study further proposes that perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission represent a characteristic of the pretraining context that may influence the development of trainees' efficacy judgements.

The idea that characteristics of the pretraining context may influence the development of efficacy judgements is supported by the literature on self-efficacy. For example, it has been suggested that antecedents to efficacy development can be provided by the individual's environment (Bandura, 1986; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Such influences may include such things as task attributes (i.e. difficulty, complexity), distractions, and normative information regarding the environment (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Mathieu et al., 1993). The idea that environmental factors may influence the formation of efficacy judgements implies that the way in which training is presented by an organization may influence the
formation of trainees' efficacy judgements (Quinones, 1995).

This idea was investigated by Quinones (1995) who found that the manner in which the training program was presented (remedial versus advanced) had a direct influence upon the formation of training related efficacy judgements. The present study suggests that Quinones's (1995) findings that perceptions of self-efficacy rely heavily upon individuals' judgements regarding the characteristics of the context in which training occurs allow the proposition that climate perceptions may serve as an external cue in the formation of training related efficacy judgements. Based upon this information, the present study suggests that the policies, practices, and procedures on which perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission are based may influence trainees' efficacy for learning CCT content. This proposition is based upon the idea that the organizational polices, practices, and procedures regarding expatriation that create a climate for belief in the overseas mission may influences trainees' beliefs regarding the value that the MNC places on their overseas assignments and importance
that it places on CCT. The present study suggests that these signals may be related to trainees' self-efficacy development because they may influence trainees' perceptions of themselves and their abilities. For instance, it is possible that the opportunity to go on an overseas assignment will serve as a positive influence upon the feelings of ability and self-worth experienced by those who perceive a climate for belief in the overseas mission because those individuals will see expatriation as a reward offered to only a few special and highly skilled employees. Conversely, if overseas assignments are recognized among employees as a "dead end" or a demotion, an overseas assignment may serve as a negative influence upon an employees' feelings of self-worth because those employees may see the assignment as punishment. This information leads to the proposition of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 16b: Perceptions of a positive climate for belief in the overseas mission will have a positive influence on the formation of pretraining efficacy for learning the content of CCT programs.
In summary, the present study suggests that several characteristics of the organization and the individual trainee may exert an influence upon trainees' motivation to learn from CCT programs and thus, may be related to the effectiveness of these programs. The methodology used in order to provide support for these ideas is presented in the following section.

It should be noted that the empirical investigation of the present model described in the following section represents only a partial test of the proposed model. The reason for this is the fact that the use of a laboratory study methodology precludes the examination of several of the components of the model. Specifically, the components to be measured during the overseas stage of evaluation (cross-cultural skill development, adjustment, in-role performance, and organizational results) cannot be examined in the present investigation because they require that participants to interact with members of the host country while overseas. Because the sample used in the present study cannot meet this requirement, components of the model measured during the overseas assignment are beyond the scope of the present study.
METHOD

The present study used a laboratory study methodology to provide an initial empirical investigation of the proposed model of CCT effectiveness. There are several reasons for using a lab methodology. The first of these involves the increased amount of experimental control that is afforded laboratory investigations. For instance, the use of a laboratory study to investigate training effectiveness allows the implementation of experimental designs that can greatly reduce the threats to internal validity often associated with field studies. This should result in an increase in the probability of detecting the presence of complex interrelationships among variables (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Furthermore, the control afforded by a lab study provides an excellent opportunity for a preliminary investigation of the scales created to measure climate for belief in the overseas mission. The results of such an investigation will be useful for future field tests of the proposed model.

Finally, at the present time it was necessary to examine the present model in the laboratory given the difficulty of obtaining enough participants to conduct a
proper multiple organizational training study using expatriates. According to Cohen (1992), the number of participants needed to have the power to detect a medium effect size using multiple regression/correlation analysis for a study with four independent variables (the number found in the present study) at the .01 level would be 118. Whereas this number may not seem extremely large for many investigations, CCT represents a unique case. This is because expatriate workers are scarce. Most corporations use relatively small numbers of expatriates at any single point in time (Adler, 1981; Handler & Lane, 1995). Even among those firms using larger numbers of expatriates, the size of training cohorts is usually quite small. Different cohort groups may also receive training that is tailored specifically to the countries to which they are assigned. This creates a situation where an already small number of trainees may be subdivided into smaller groups receiving training programs that differ in terms of content. These factors make obtaining entry into a corporation that has a training class of at least 100 expatriates, all receiving the same training content and all going to the same location, a highly unlikely occurrence.
This does not mean that the evaluation of this model using actual expatriate trainees is impossible. Rather, such a detailed test of the model needs to be delayed until an adequate sample can be located. The lack of actual expatriates to be used as participants also makes the investigation of the full model that has been presented impossible because there was no opportunity for the measurement of participants' behaviors and attitudes in an overseas environment. Thus, the present study examined only hypotheses that could be measured while trainees are still in their home country (i.e. hypotheses 1, 7, 8, 9a, 9c, 10a, 10b, 11a, 11b, 12b, 13-16b).

Overview

This research effort represents a laboratory investigation of the influence of situational and individual factors on the performance of undergraduate students who participated in a brief CCT program. Participants were told that they were helping in the development of an overseas educational exchange program and were assigned to one of two climate conditions in which their climate perceptions were manipulated via the contents of a pre-training lecture. The purpose of this lecture was
to communicate very specific information about the exchange program and its associated benefits to the participants. Prior to the CCT program, participants completed measures assessing the strength of the climate manipulation and several individual difference factors proposed to influence their training performance. Path analysis was used to examine the influence of these independent variables on measures of trainee reactions and training performance.

Participants

The present study used 138 undergraduate psychology students who were currently enrolled in a large Southeastern University. 61% were females and 39% were males. The majority of participants (74%) were college sophomores.

Experimental Procedure

Overview

The following is a brief description of the experimental procedure used in the present study. This procedure is represented graphically in Figure 2. Note that the two pilot studies conducted as part of the present experiment are discussed in the method section rather than in the results section. This is because these studies
Lectures:
1. Description of program
2. Benefits associated with program

Measures:
1. Training pre-test
2. Climate
3. Org. commitment
4. Motivation to learn
5. Self-efficacy

Training program:
1. Objective material
2. Culture Assimilator training

Dependent measures:
1. Learning measures
2. Reaction Measures

Data Analysis

Figure 2: Overview of Experimental Procedure
provided information that was critical to the final methodology used in the experiment.

At the beginning of the experimental session all participants heard a twenty to thirty minute long lecture that provided an introduction to the study and material designed to manipulate their climate perceptions. This lecture consisted of a description of the specific benefits participants would receive as a part of their enrollment in a hypothetical overseas educational exchange program. In order to manipulate participants' climate perceptions, the contents of this lecture differed for members of the two experimental conditions. At the conclusion of this lecture, participants in both conditions were asked to complete several questionnaires containing the following measures: pre-training knowledge test, climate scales, an organizational commitment scale, a motivation to learn scale, and a self-efficacy scale. Following the completion of these measures, participants in both conditions attended a short (90 minute) CCT program. After the conclusion of the program, participants were given a short period of time to study a handout summarizing training content. Participants then completed measures created to assess
their reactions to, and learning from, the training program. The following sections present an in-depth description of the experimental procedure.

**Introductory Lecture**

**Part One**

The information given during the first part of this lecture was provided to help develop the pretense of the experiment (see Appendix A for the scripts and handouts used for this lecture). All lectures throughout the experiment were conducted by the experimenter. A handout containing an outline of the major points covered in this lecture was given to participants to make sure that the contents of the lecture were clear. The first part of the lecture was the same for participants in both of the climate conditions. In this lecture participants were asked to assume that they were helping to test part of an experimental intercultural exchange program to be conducted at their University in the near future. Participants were informed that this program will involve American students spending a semester in Thailand to help prepare Thai students to come to the US to get advanced educations. Participants were informed that the Asian Studies
Department has asked the Psychology Department to help them with two major tasks associated with preparing for the training of the first group of American students to participate in the program. These tasks include the initial testing and refinement of a selection test to screen students who wish to participate in the program and the testing and refinement of a training program used to prepare students who are selected for the program. Participants were informed that their participation was very important because it was the only way to test and to refine the measures being developed for use in the program scheduled to begin in the fall of 1998. The lecture concluded by making it clear to the participants that the success of this experiment depends upon their responses. In order to help reinforce this point, participants were told that even though they were not actually going to go overseas as part of the program, they needed to think and respond as if they were actually planning to participate in the exchange program.

Part Two—Climate Manipulation

After the initial lecture material describing the purpose of the program, participants listened to a lecture
and received a handout summarizing information about the benefits associated with the program (see Appendix B for the scripts and handouts related to this lecture). This information was presented to manipulate participants' climate perceptions. This manipulation was accomplished via the description of the specific benefits that were promised to persons participating in the exchange program. Because the contents of this lecture were used to attempt to manipulate participants' climate perceptions, they varied based upon experimental condition. Specifically, participants in the positive climate for belief in the overseas mission condition were informed of a series of benefits associated with the program. These benefits were based upon specific HR practices associated with the five antecedent dimensions to climate for belief in the overseas mission identified via a review of expatriate HR literature (i.e. selection, training, compensation, overseas assistance, repatriation). Participants assigned to the negative climate for belief in the overseas mission condition received a lecture in which they were informed of benefits associated with the same five dimensions, however the content of this "negative climate" lecture described
benefits that were designed to be perceived as inadequate. A more thorough description of the contents of the lectures associated with each climate condition is located in the section that describes the study's independent variables.

**Pre-Training Questionnaires**

After hearing the lecture on the benefits associated with the program, participants were asked to fill out several questionnaires. They were informed that the first of these was a questionnaire that was designed to assess their attitudes towards participation in the program. They were told that this questionnaire was developed based upon personality research and that it was to be tested for the first time in this experiment. This questionnaire contained scales measuring climate perceptions and organizational commitment. Next participants were given some background information about the training program and were asked to complete a second questionnaire. This questionnaire consisted of scales measuring motivation to learn, self-efficacy, and a pre-training knowledge test. More specific information regarding the contents of the questionnaires administered in part one of the experiment
can be found in the section describing the measurement of
the independent variables to be examined in this study.

**Training Program**

After completing the initial questionnaires, participants attended a ninety minute CCT program. Participants were informed that during this session, they would receive training similar to that which will be used to help train the participants in the actual program. This CCT program consisted of two parts. The first part took approximately 30 minutes and consisted of the presentation of material (a lecture, handout, and video) that provided general information about Thailand and its people. The second part of the training program took approximately 45 minutes and involved the use of a cultural assimilator to train participants about Thai social and cultural norms and to help them learn how to make culturally correct attributions about the behavior of Thai persons. More detailed information about the contents of the CCT program used in the present study can be found in a later section describing the contents of the training program.
Post-Training Questionnaires

Following completion of the first part of the training program, participants were given 15 minutes to study the handout and any notes that they may have made during the first part of training. This study session was followed by a post-training knowledge test that was developed to measure participants’ knowledge of the material covered in the general lecture about Thailand (part one of the training program). After the participants completed the second part of the training they completed a post-training knowledge test covering their knowledge of the material presented in the Thai Cultural Assimilator. The post-training knowledge tests for both parts one and two of the training program were identical to the pre-training knowledge tests completed by participants before the training session. The assimilator post-training knowledge test also contained questions measuring participants’ reactions to the training program and a manipulation check designed to gather information about the strength of the climate manipulation and the usefulness of the CCT program. After the completion of the manipulation check, participants were informed of when and where they could
receive debriefing materials related to the experiment once the data collection was completed. More specific information regarding the measures used to evaluate the training program can be found in a later section describing the dependent variables examined in this experiment.

Independent Variables

The experimental procedure that has been described in this section was conducted to obtain information that will allow the evaluation of the relationships between several independent variables and their proposed influence on CCT effectiveness. The manipulations and measures used to assess these variables are described in the following section.

Climate Manipulation

The major independent variable manipulated in the present study was participants' climate perceptions. It is important to note that the aim of this manipulation was not to test the hypotheses regarding the antecedents of climate perceptions outlined previously, but rather to create these perceptions via experimental manipulation and to evaluate their subsequent influence on other variables in the model. Thus, participants' perceptions of climate for belief in
the overseas mission were manipulated via the creation of
two distinct types of this specific climate, a positive
climate for belief in the overseas mission and a negative
climate for belief in the overseas mission.

The present study attempted to create perceptions of
each of these climates by varying the contents of lectures
explaining the benefits accruing to participants in a
hypothetical overseas teaching program. The contents of
these lectures were based upon hypotheses 9a, 9c, 10a, 10b,
11a, 11b, 12b, and 13 that identify the proposed influence
of the specific routines and rewards comprising each of the
five major categories of antecedents (i.e. selection,
training, compensation, support, and repatriation) on
perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas
mission. Note that hypotheses 9b, 10c, and 12a are not
included in the climate manipulation lecture. This is
because each of these hypotheses is related to spousal and
family issues and thus could not be examined using the
present sample of undergraduates. A handout summarizing
the benefits referred to in the lecture was provided to
participants to reinforce their understanding of the
specific routines and rewards that are associated with each dimension of climate antecedents.

The contents of the benefits lectures and related handouts differed based upon the climate condition of the participants. For example, participants in the positive climate condition received information describing a series of benefits that will accompany participation in the program. It was intended that these benefits be perceived by participants as rewarding, helpful, and supportive of their mission. On the other hand, participants in the negative climate condition received information describing a series of benefits that were designed to be perceived as negative, insufficient, and nonsupportive. The results of the first pilot study confirmed that the contents of these lectures elicited the desired perceptions.

Climate Scales

The climate scale used in the present study was created in a manner similar to that used by Zohar (1980). Zohar (1980) conducted a review of the literature relevant to his climate referent of interest (climate for safety). From this review, several dimensions of this specific climate referent and the behaviors associated with them
were identified. From this literature review, a questionnaire was developed that contained questions relating to the major policies, practices, and procedures associated with each dimension that was identified. This questionnaire was completed by participants in a manufacturing organization and the responses were factor analyzed to assess their representation of the proposed factor structure. Poor items were eliminated and the responses then summed across dimensions to provide an overall climate score.

Consistent with this method, the present study used a scale created based upon the literature review that identified five major antecedent dimensions of climate for belief in the overseas mission. Specific organizational routines and rewards formed the basis for the items used in the assessment of these climate dimensions. The final climate scale consisted of 15 items covering 5 content areas (3 items for each of the five proposed antecedent dimension). Responses to these items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale. A copy of the climate scale can be found in Appendix C.
Other Independent Variables

Three other independent variables were assessed as part of the present experiment. These include organizational commitment, self-efficacy, and motivation to learn. The scales used to assess these constructs are described in the following sections.

Organizational Commitment

The present study used an adaptation of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1982) to measure attitudinal organizational commitment. This scale is the standard measure used to assess attitudinal organizational commitment and has demonstrated high reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity with other scales (Mathieu et al., 1982; Mowday et al., 1992). The OCQ consists of 15 items that measure affective organizational commitment using a 7 point Likert type scale. This scale was modified to fit the population and experimental context of the present study by changing the referent word "organization" to "university". An example of the items on the original scale and its modification for the present study is presented as follows:
Original items:

"I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful."

"I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for."

Modified items: "I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this university be successful."

"I talk up this university to my friends as a great university to attend."

A full list of these items and their modifications for use in the present study is presented in Appendix D.

Self-efficacy

Because self-efficacy is task specific, there was a need to develop a scale that assessed efficacy for success in CCT. This was accomplished via the modification of a scale used by Quinones (1995) to assess participants' self-efficacy for success in a training program.

Quinones' (1995) scale consists of 10 items used to measure individuals' expectations regarding their future level of performance on an air defense simulation task. The present
study used a modified version of this scale that substituted references to CCT in the place of references to the specific training task used by Quinones (1995). A copy of the scale used to measure self-efficacy is presented in Appendix E.

Motivation to Learn

The scale that was used to measure motivation to learn in the present study is based upon a 10-item scale used by Quinones (1995) to measure participants' motivation to learn material presented in an air defense simulation task. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with items using a 5-point Likert type scale. An example of an item from the scale is as follows: "I will try and learn as much as I can during this training course." A full list of the items to be found in this scale can be found in Appendix F.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in the present study were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the CCT program. In order to provide background on the measurement of these variables, the following section first describes the
training program and then describes the measures that have been created to evaluate this program.

**Training Program**

Regardless of experimental condition, all participants received the exact same training program (handouts and examples of the materials used in this training program can be found in Appendix G). Only the manner in which the program is framed during its presentation was varied. The CCT program used in the present study consisted of two different methods of CCT. Several investigations of CCT effectiveness (e.g. Earley, 1987; Gudykunst et al., 1977; Harrison, 1992) have demonstrated the superiority of CCT programs that use a combination of methods over those using only one. The first part of the present CCT program used cognitive instruction techniques. These techniques consist of the presentation of objective information about the country of interest and its people. The information covered in this type of training most often consists of geographical and historical information. In the present training study, this part of the training program consisted of a lecture and a video presentation that lasted about 45 minutes. The information covered in the lecture/video...
consisted of historical, religious, cultural, and geographical information about the nation of Thailand and its people.

The second half of the CCT program consisted of 45 minutes of attributional training using the Thailand Cultural Assimilator. Because the relational abilities reinforced by the attributional training provided by cultural assimilators have been identified as one of the most important skills needed for success in overseas missions (Ronen, 1989), assimilator training has been used as part of several CCT programs designed to teach skills for successful acculturation in many different nations (e.g. Mexico, Thailand, Iran, Japan).

Cultural assimilators are a method of programmed learning developed by Fiedler et al. (1971). They were designed to teach and test trainees' knowledge of cultural differences and their understanding of the effects of these differences on adaptation to a foreign culture. The assimilator requires trainees to read a series of short intercultural incidents that describe an interaction between a person traveling overseas and a member of the host culture. Each incident that is presented is followed
by a relevant question and four alternative explanations for the foreigners' behavior. Trainees respond to the items by choosing the alternative they feel offers the most appropriate explanation for the foreigners' behavior. Depending on the response chosen, the text directs the trainee to a specific page that gives an explanation as to why the choice was correct or incorrect. Then, if their response was incorrect, trainees must reread the material and choose again.

The effectiveness of the cultural assimilator as a method of teaching trainees how to make correct attributions regarding the behavior of others has been rigorously researched in both laboratory and field settings with positive results (Barrett & Bass, 1976). The use of a cultural assimilator for CCT has been found to be more effective than lectures alone in terms of all four of Kirkpatrick's (1967) training criteria (Albert, 1986). Of specific interest to the present study is the fact that results on learning measures indicate that individuals trained on an assimilator performed significantly better in knowledge generalization and retention than those receiving cognitive training (such as essays about the foreign
culture) or no training (O'Brien & Plooij, 1977).

Furthermore, people trained using an assimilator have reported that they got along better with foreign co-workers, received more cooperation from host nationals, and had more productive teams than subjects receiving essay training or no training at all (Worchel & Mitchell, 1972).

Landis and Brislin (1983) suggest that it is best to use the assimilator before trainees have any contact with members of the host culture because assimilator training provides the opportunity for trainees to consolidate attributions regarding members of the host country prior to their use of these attributions in real intercultural interactions. This idea led Landis and Brislin (1983) to suggest that CCT programs follow this specific sequence: (a) lecture material presenting non-attributional cognitive information; (b) the use of the cultural assimilator to help provide trainees the chance to consolidate and practice making attributions regarding the behavior of persons from another culture; and, (c) actual contact with members of the foreign culture. These ideas have been incorporated into the design of the training program used in the present study by presenting lecture material prior
to the assimilator training. Although interaction with members of the host country culture is the final step in the process outlined by Landis and Brislin (1983), it is beyond the scope of the training program provided in the present study, however this step will represent an important component of future investigations of the present model.

The assimilator training used in the present study consisted of a self-paced training manual containing 10 episodes that were adapted from the Thailand Culture Assimilator. The episodes in the manual contained critical incidents explained the Thai value system, personality, and family life. Participants read each of the episodes and were guided to the correct answers using the programmed learning technique employed by the self-paced training manual. Instructions on how to use the programmed learning technique employed by the manual and a sample of the episodes used in the assimilator training portion of the present study can be found in Appendix G.

Training Outcomes

The present study used two primary dependent variables to assess the effectiveness of the CCT program. These
included reaction and learning measures. They are described in more detail as follows.

**Reaction measures**

The items used to measure trainees' reactions were based upon those used by Harrison (1992) in his CCT evaluation study. These items were designed to measure two of the specific dimensions identified as the cause of negative reactions to training by Berthower & Rummler (1979). These dimensions include: The design of the program (sample item: "I feel the amount of time the trainer spent with the participants was about right") and relevance of the material covered (sample item: "I feel the program greatly helped me improve my skills for dealing with persons from Thailand"). The use of these two types of reaction measures is consistent with the results of a recent meta-analysis by Aliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver, and Shotland (1997) that suggests that reaction measures that assess the relevance of training material for effective job performance are more related to learning and on-the-job performance than those that assess only the extent to which trainees liked or enjoyed the training program.
Participants' reactions to the training program were assessed as part of a manipulation check questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed to help assess participants' feelings regarding several aspects of the experiment. Specifically, this questionnaire was designed to assess the extent that the participants understood the material presented to them, understood what they were required to do in the experiment, believed the program described in the experiment was realistic, exerted effort in the training program, and believed that the contents of the various lectures were realistic. A list of the items comprising the reaction measures and manipulation check can be found in Appendix H.

**Learning measures**

After the first part of training, trainees were given fifteen minutes to review a summary of the major points discussed during the lecture portion of the training program and were then given a handout containing the learning measures for part one of the program. This measure consisted of 20 multiple choice questions that corresponded to the content of the objective of the training program.
The second set of learning measures was given after each participant completed the self-paced training manual. This measure consisted of questions designed to test trainees' ability to generalize material taught in training to make attributions in novel situations. This was accomplished by presenting trainees with 15 multiple choice questions based upon the assimilator episodes they studied in the training course. The contents of these questions were related to the same principles that trainees received in their assimilator training, but presented trainees with novel situations involving cultural interactions. The ability to make generalizations regarding behavior is the goal of assimilator training and thus is an important part of evaluations of the effectiveness of assimilator training programs (Albert, 1986). A list of the items found on the pre and post-training knowledge tests for both types of training can be found in Appendix I. Trainees received a total learning score based upon their responses to learning measures. This was comprised of a composite of scores from part one and part two of the training program. In order to provide a preliminary investigation of the experimental procedure used in the present study, two pilot studies were
carried out. Information on these studies is reported in
the following sections.

Initial Investigations-Pilot Studies

Before conducting this experiment, several important
issues were investigated via two pilot studies. The
following section presents the methodology and the results
of both of these studies.

Pilot Study 1

Method

The first pilot study was conducted to evaluate the
effectiveness of the climate manipulation used in the
present experiment. This investigation was critical
because the ability to draw conclusions from this
experiment relies on the manipulation and accurate
measurement of participants' climate perceptions. This
pilot study also examined the characteristics of the scale
used to measure organizational commitment.

There were 69 total participants in the two
experimental conditions of this pilot study, 32 in the
positive climate condition and 37 in the negative climate
condition. All participants in this study were presented
with a lecture that described a fictitious overseas teaching program and a description of the benefits associated with their participation in the program. The only difference between the experimental groups was that participants in the positive climate condition heard a lecture that presented a series of benefits indicating that the program will provide them with a strong degree of support, whereas participants in the negative climate condition heard a lecture that presented a series of benefits indicating a much weaker degree of support. After the conclusion of the lecture, participants completed an instrument designed to measure their perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission and organizational commitment. It was hoped that participants' scores on the climate measure would differ significantly such that those in the positive climate condition would score higher on the climate measure than those in the negative climate condition. This instrument also contained a manipulation check designed to assess participants' perceptions of several aspects of the experimental manipulation. The results of this study and the adjustments made to the
Results

Climate scales. A variety of analyses were conducted to provide information about the climate scale developed for use in this study. First, Cronbach's Alpha (\( \alpha \)) was calculated for the climate scale. This 15 item scale had an \( \alpha \) of .958. An examination of the item-total correlations for the 15 items comprising the climate scale revealed that these correlations were high (above .5) for all except one item that was related to realistic job previews. Further information about this problematic item and about the relationship between the items on the climate scale was obtained via a principal components factor analysis that used an Oblimin rotation. The results of this analysis (see Table 1) indicated that one overall factor accounted for a large amount of the variance (67%) in the scale.

An examination of the factor pattern matrix from this analysis revealed that all but one item which loaded on the largest factor satisfied simple structure criteria.
Table One:
Factor Analysis Results for Climate Scale Used in Pilot Study 1.

### Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
<th>Cumulative % variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
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<td>64.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>1.131</td>
<td>7.541</td>
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### Factor Loadings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.513</td>
<td>.300</td>
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<td>Item 3</td>
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<td>.921</td>
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<td>Item 4</td>
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<td>.145</td>
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<td>Item 6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.900</td>
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<td>Item 8</td>
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<td>.941</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
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<td>Item 14</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>-.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000
(i.e. factor loadings of above .4). The item that did not load on the largest factor identified loaded on a second, smaller factor. Further examination revealed that this item also exhibited a poor relationship with the other items on the scale (i.e. item total correlation of .167, loading of .0002 on the larger factor).

Based upon the these results, it was determined that this item was problematic. In order to improve the relationship between this item and the climate scale, the item was reworded from its original format ("The people in charge of this program appear concerned about providing participants with an accurate picture of the challenges associated with the assignment before participants enroll in the program") to read "The SFEEA appears concerned about providing realistic information about the difficulty of the program when selecting students to participate in it."

Overall, the analyses conducted on this scale revealed that it was psychometrically sound and fit for use in the final study.

**Manipulation Check.** To ensure that there was a significant difference between the climate scores of participants in the positive and negative climate
conditions and to investigate the possibility that the benefits associated with the negative climate condition did not seem realistic to participants in the experiment, a manipulation check was included as part of the first pilot study. Issues regarding the effectiveness of the climate manipulation were investigated via the use of moderated hierarchical multiple regression. The regression procedure for this investigation involved three steps. In the first step a dummy coded variable representing participants' climate condition was regressed on their climate score, in the second step a composite score representing the believability of the benefits presented in the lecture as measured by a 5 item manipulation check included as part of this pilot study was entered into the regression, and in the third step, an interaction term consisting of benefits score multiplied by group membership was entered into the regression equation (the results of this regression can be found in Table 2).

Climate condition was entered into the regression first based upon the assumption that this variable should account for the majority of variance in climate score.
### Table Two:
Regression of Climate Condition, Benefits Score, and Climate X Benefits Interaction on Climate Score (Pilot Study 1).

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Step 1</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.723</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Benefits score</td>
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<td>.001</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Climate x benefits</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the first step supported this idea indicating that climate condition was a significant predictor of climate score ($\beta = .653, p < .001$), accounting for 72 percent of the variance in this measure.

These results can be taken as evidence that participants' scores on the scales used to measure climate differed significantly based upon their assignment to a specific climate condition. The means for climate score were in a direction that supported these conclusions. Specifically, a mean score of $M = 65.94$ for the positive condition, and a mean score of $M = 39.43$ for the negative condition supported the idea that the positive climate lecture would give rise to stronger climate perceptions than the negative climate lecture (maximum score for the climate scale = 75, minimum score = 15. A higher value was indicative of stronger climate perceptions).

The results of the second step of the regression examining participants' scores on a five item scale ($\alpha = .80$) designed to measure the believability of the benefits listed in the climate lecture (example item: "The benefits described in today's lecture seemed realistic to me." A
full list of these items can be found in Appendix H) indicated that benefits score was a statistically significant ($\beta = .291, p< .001$), predictor of climate score. However, because benefits score accounted for only 4 percent of the variance in the climate measure, it was judged to be of little practical value in predicting climate score. These results indicate that believability of the benefits included in the climate manipulation were not nearly as important as climate condition for the prediction of climate score.

Finally, the results of the third step of the regression indicated that the climate condition x benefits score interaction was non-significant. This suggests that there was no significant difference in the believability of the climate manipulation due to the climate condition of the participant. These results suggest that the believability of the climate manipulation was not an issue in the present study.

Overall, the results of the manipulation check indicated that the climate scale was useful in measuring the results of the climate manipulation and quells initial
concern that the benefits described to participants in the negative climate condition were not believable. This information suggests that the scales used to measure climate perceptions and the manipulation used to create these climate perceptions were suitable for use in the experiment used to test the model presented in this study.

Organizational commitment. The first pilot study was also used to examine the properties of the 14 item scale used to measure organizational commitment. A reliability analysis of this scale indicated that the scale had an \( \alpha \) of .840. The item total correlations for the scale were high (above .3) for all items except two. In order to investigate the properties of this scale in more detail, a principal components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation was conducted. The results of this analysis can be found in Table 3. These results indicated the presence of 4 factors, with one factor accounting for most of the explained variance in the scale (35%). An examination of the loadings for the largest factor indicated that 7 of the items on the scale met simple structure criteria. The interpretation of the loadings for the other three factors
Table Three:
Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment Scale Used in Pilot Study 1.

Variance Explained

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<th></th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
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<th>Cumulative % variance explained</th>
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Factor Loadings*

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<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
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<td>.119</td>
<td>.913</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000
** Item eliminated from scale used in final study.
was not as clear cut. Only one item that loaded positively on the second factor met simple structure criteria. No items that loaded on the third factor exhibited positive loadings that met simple structure criteria, and only one item that loaded positively on the fourth factor met simple structure criteria. Several alterations to the scale were made on the basis of these results. First of all, two items "There is not much to be gained by remaining at my university for the rest of my academic career" and "I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected to help my university", were dropped from the scale based on their loadings. Although the remaining items did not load on the first factor and exhibited strong negative loadings on the third factor, none of these items were dropped from the scale. Rather, the wording of several of these items was changed slightly and they were retained for use in the final study. This decision was made based on the fact that the revised 12 item scale had strong internal consistency (the $\alpha$ for the revised 12 item scale was .841) and all the items on the scale had high item-total correlations.
Furthermore, although these analyses indicated that there may be some problems with this scale, these did not seem critical enough to preclude the scale from being of use in the final study. Thus, it was hoped that the revisions made to the scale would lead to a more interpretable factor structure for the version of the scale used in the final study.

Pilot Study 2

Methods

The second pilot study provided preliminary information about the effectiveness of the training program used in the present study. This was accomplished via an examination of the pre and post training knowledge test scores of 44 total participants, 22 of whom received the training program used in the study and 22 of whom were members of a control group who did not receive any training at all. In this study, participants in both the experimental and control groups were given a pre-training knowledge test composed of items based on the material to be presented in the training program. Members of the experimental group then participated in a 90 minute cross-cultural training program and were then given a post-
training knowledge test that was identical to the pre-
training knowledge test. Participants also completed items
measuring motivation to learn and self-efficacy as part of
this experiment. Members of the control group were also
given an identical post-training knowledge test, but
received no training during the experimental session.

Results

This study used Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), as
recommended by Arvey & Cole (1991) to evaluate change in
learning due to the cross-cultural training program used in
the present study. ANCOVA allows the researcher increased
statistical power to detect a learning effect because it
does not rely on the use of gain-scores to examine
learning. Instead, the use of ANCOVA allows the researcher
to partial out the effect of the pre-training knowledge
test while examining the difference between experimental
and control groups on the post-training knowledge test.
Arvey and Cole (1991) suggest conducting ANCOVA using
hierarchical multiple regression to covary out pre-training
knowledge test scores and examine change in post-training
knowledge test score due to training. They suggest that a
hierarchical regression be conducted in which test score is
regressed on post-training knowledge test score in the first step of the regression and the pre-training knowledge test score and a dummy coded variable reflecting group membership are regressed on the post-training knowledge test score in the second step. Arvey and Cole (1991) suggest that if the $R^2$ for the full model is significantly larger than that for the reduced model, it can be concluded that group membership predicts post-training knowledge test score, over and above any prediction offered by the pre-training knowledge test.

The results of such a regression conducted in the present study indicated that the $F$ value associated with the change in $R^2$ between the two models was significant ($F(2, 43) = 413, p < .001$), suggesting that the training program produced a significant change in post-training knowledge test score for members of the experimental condition. The means for pre and post-training knowledge test score were in a direction that supported this conclusion. Both the pre and post-training knowledge tests were identical and contained 30 items. Scores on the pre-training knowledge test ranged from 2 to 22 items correct with the mean number of items correct being $M = 13.3$. 

131
Scores on the post-training knowledge test ranged from 3 to 30 with the mean number of items correct being $M = 20.04$. This information suggests that a learning effect not related to the pre-training knowledge test occurred and thus indicates that the training program is suitable for use in the final experiment.

To refine the pre and post-training knowledge tests used to evaluate the training program, the mean number of participants who got each item correct and the item response patterns for each of the items on these tests were examined. This identified questions that may have been too easy or too difficult and identified of the effectiveness of the distractor for each of the items. On the basis of these analyses, one item was eliminated from the tests and the wording and distractions of several items were modified slightly.

Motivation to learn. To ascertain its suitability for use in the final experiment, the scale used to measure motivation to learn was also examined as part of the second pilot study. Analyses indicated that the 10 item motivation to learn scale had an $\alpha$ of .911 and that the item total
correlations for the items on the scale were all above .6. A principle components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation indicated that all items loaded well above .4 on one factor (see Table 4 for the results of this analysis). A second factor was also identified, however none of the items that exhibited positive loadings on this factor met simple structure criteria. These results indicate that this scale was adequate for use in the final study.

Self-efficacy. The 10 item self-efficacy scale used in this experiment had an $\alpha$ of .701, however, further analyses indicated that this somewhat low value was due to one item on the scale, “It would take me a long time to learn all of the material presented in the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program.” This item had an item total correlation of -.82 with the rest of the items on the scale. A principle components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation revealed that this item loaded -.836 on the largest single self-efficacy factor that resulted from the factor analysis (see Table 5 for the results of this analysis). This information suggested that this item be eliminated from the scale. After this item was eliminated,
Table Four:
Factor Analysis Results for Motivation to Learn Scale Used in Pilot Study 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>5.721</td>
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<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>1.316</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor Loadings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>-.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.804</td>
<td>-.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td>-.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td>-.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>.739</td>
<td>-.634</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>.666</td>
<td>-.495</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>-.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>.454</td>
<td>-.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>-.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>.662</td>
<td>-.767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000
Table Five:
Factor Analysis Results for Self-Efficacy Scale Used in Pilot Study 2.

### Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% variance explained</th>
<th>Cumulative % variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>5.925</td>
<td>52.948</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>1.212</td>
<td>12.117</td>
<td>65.065</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Factor Loadings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.974</td>
<td>-.195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>-.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3**</td>
<td>-.836</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>-.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>.737</td>
<td>.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>-.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>.648</td>
<td>.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>-.440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000

** Item eliminated from scale
the α for the self-efficacy scale was .858. The factor analysis revealed that all of the remaining items on the scale loaded strongly on one factor that accounted for much of the variance in the scale.

A second factor was identified but only two items had a positive loading on this factor met simple structure criteria and both of these items loaded more strongly on the larger factor. The results of these analyses indicate that the revised 9 item scale was adequate for use in the final study.

Pilot Studies: Conclusion

The results of these two pilot studies provided important preliminary information regarding the present experiment. The results of the first pilot study indicated that the experimental manipulation used in the present study was believable and that this manipulation produced a difference in the climate perceptions of participants in the two experimental groups. The results of the second pilot study suggested that the cross-cultural training program used as part of the present experiment produced a significant learning effect. Finally, both of the studies
allowed for the examination and refinement of scales used to measure the independent variables used in the experiment. The results of these analyses indicated that, for the most part, the scales examined were suitable for their intended purpose.
RESULTS

This section presents the results of the analyses conducted to examine the variables and test the hypotheses proposed in the present model of cross-cultural training effectiveness. The results of analyses conducted to examine the properties of the scales used to measure the independent variables included in the present study are presented first. These results are followed by results of the analyses conducted to examine the effectiveness of the training program used in the present study. Finally, the third section presents results of the causal analyses used to test parts of the model of cross-cultural training effectiveness presented in the present study.

Scales

Table 6 (see page 139) presents the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of the variables examined in the present study.

Climate

To provide more information about the climate scale developed for use in this study, a variety of analyses were conducted. A reliability analysis indicated that the 15 item climate scale had an $\alpha$ of .981.
Table 6:
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Scales Used in Present Study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Learning 1</td>
<td>13.06</td>
<td>3.994</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning 2</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reactions</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.440</td>
<td>.152*</td>
<td>.171*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.363**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Motivation</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.573**</td>
<td>.599**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Climate</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.360</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.702**</td>
<td>.211**</td>
<td>.434**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Commitment</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>-.116</td>
<td>-.086</td>
<td>.412**</td>
<td>.207*</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.587**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01
*P<.05

Scale values for 3-7 range from 1-5. A lower score indicates a low level for the attitude being measured on the scale.
An examination of the item-scale and item-total correlations for all of the items on the climate scale revealed that these correlations were high (above .6) for all items. Furthermore, the results from a principal components factor analysis using an Oblimin rotation yielded an interpretable one-factor solution that accounted for 80% of the variance in responses. Each of the 15 items on the climate scale that loaded on this factor satisfied simple structure criteria (i.e. factor loadings of above .4). This information suggests that the revisions made to the version of the scale were effective and that there were no major problems with the climate scale used in the present study.

As in pilot study number one, issues regarding the effectiveness of the climate manipulation were investigated via the use of moderated hierarchical multiple regression. The regression procedure for this investigation involved three steps. In the first step a dummy coded variable representing participants' climate condition was regressed on their climate score. Climate condition was entered into the regression on the first step based upon the fact that it should account for the majority of the variance in
climate score. Next, a score representing the believability of the benefits presented in the lecture was entered into the regression. Finally, in the third step, an interaction term consisting of benefits time climate condition was entered into the regression equation. The results of these regressions can be found in Table 7.

The results of the first step indicated that climate condition was a significant predictor of climate score ($\beta = .805$, $p < .001$), accounting for 83 percent of the variance in this measure. An examination of the means for the climate conditions supported the idea that persons in the positive climate condition had higher climate scores than those in the negative climate condition (positive condition, $M = 65.714$; negative condition, $M = 28.46$, scale range = 15 to 75) These results can be taken as evidence that participants’ scores on the scales used to measure climate differed significantly based upon their assignment to a specific climate condition. The results of the second step of the regression examining participants’ scores on a four item scale designed to measure the believability of the benefits listed in the climate lecture
Table 7:
Regression of Climate Condition, Benefits Score, and Climate X Benefits Interaction on Climate Score.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>( p )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>( \Delta R^2 )</th>
<th>( p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate condition</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits score</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate x benefits</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.790</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(this scale had an alpha of .787, the items on the scale are listed as part of Appendix H) indicated that benefits score was statistically significant ($\beta = .290, p< .001$), predictor of climate score.

However, since benefits score accounted for only 4 percent of the variance in the climate measure, it was judged to be of little practical value in predicting climate score. These results indicate that believability of the benefits included in the climate manipulation was not a major factor in predicting climate score.

Finally, the results of the third step of the regression indicated that the climate condition x benefits score interaction was non-significant. This suggests that there was no significant difference in the believability of the climate manipulation due to the climate condition of the participant. These results suggest that the believability of the climate manipulation was not an issue in the present study.

Because the climate construct represents a conceptual aggregation of individual data, Schneider, White, and Paul (1998) recommend providing statistical justification to
strengthen the assumptions of collective perceptions necessary when studying climate. They recommend the use of the Interclass correlation \{ICC(1) and ICC(2)\} to justify aggregation of data to higher levels of analysis (Bartko, 1976). The ICC(1) compares the variance from between units of analysis (climate conditions) to the variance within units of analysis using the individual responses of each participant. The ICC(2) assesses the relative status of between versus within variance using the average ratings of respondents within each unit (Bartko, 1976; Schneider et al., 1998). See Appendix J for the formulas used to compute ICC(1) and ICC(2).

The ICC(1) for climate condition was .833 whereas ICC(2) for the climate condition was .998. Schneider et al. (1998) suggest that, although there are no strict standards of acceptability for interclass correlations, values of .60 or above can be considered to provide sufficient evidence for the aggregation of the data in question. Based upon these guidelines, the values for ICC(1) and ICC(2) obtained from the data used in the present study provide evidence for the existence of a climate for belief in the overseas mission that
is based upon the collective perceptions of individual participants.

Overall, the results of the various analyses conducted on the climate scale indicate that it is psychometrically sound and useful in measuring the results of the climate manipulation used in the present study.

**Organizational Commitment**

Analyses conducted on this 12 item scale were similar to those conducted for the climate scale. A reliability analysis of this scale indicated that the scale had an $\alpha$ of .890. The item total correlations for the scale were high for all items (above .4) except one. A principal components factor analysis of the scale using an Oblimin rotation indicated the presence of two factors, however one of these accounted for almost 50 percent of the variance in responses and all of the loadings on this factor except one met, or were very close to meeting, simple structure criteria (see Table 8 for more information). The second factor accounted for less than 10 percent of the variance and contained only one item that did not
Table 8: Factor Analysis Results for Organizational Commitment Scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>Cumulative Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>% variance explained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>5.967</td>
<td>49.728</td>
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<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>1.182</td>
<td>9.853</td>
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Factor Loadings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td>.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>.398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td>.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td>.387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>.689</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 9**</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td>.649</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000
** Item eliminated from scale
meet simple structure criteria for its loading on the larger factor (this item read: "It would take very little change in my present Because of its factor loadings and its low item total correlation (.183), this item was eliminated from the organizational commitment scale. The α for the revised scale was .905. The loadings of two items on the smaller factor also met simple structure criteria. These same items were also close to meeting simple structure criteria for the larger factor as well, suggesting that perhaps these two items on the scale were measuring a construct related to, yet slightly different than, organizational commitment.

Overall, these analyses indicated that the revised 11 item organizational commitment scale was more psychometrically sound than the version used in the first pilot study and better suited for use in this study, but that several items on the scale may be measuring something other than the concept of organizational commitment as it was operationalized in the present study.
Motivation to Learn

Analyses conducted on the motivation to learn scale were similar to those conducted on the climate and organizational commitment scales. This 10 item scale had an α of .911. The item total correlations for the items on the scale were all above .6. A principle components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation yielded two factors, one of which accounted for 53.8% of the variance, with all items loading above or very close to .4 on the one overall factor (see Table 9 for more information).

A second, smaller factor was identified as well. This factor accounted for a much smaller amount of variance in responses (10.01%) but several of the items that loaded at or close to .4 on the first factor also loaded heavily on this factor.

These two factors were strongly correlated with one another (r = .521). This suggests that the scale may also have been measuring a construct which is related, yet slightly different than, motivation to learn. Despite the presence of the second, smaller factor; the high alpha, high item total correlations, and high factor loadings on
Table 9:
Factor Analysis Results for Motivation to Learn Scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Variance Explained</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>1.001</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Factor Loadings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>.851</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>.365</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>.795</td>
<td>.326</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td>.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>.369</td>
<td>.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td>.712</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Oblimin rotation used, loadings below .0001 rounded up to .000
the factor that accounted for a large amount of the variance in the scale indicate that this scale was psychometrically sound and fit for use in this study. However, the presence of the second factor does suggest the possibility that the scale may not have been measuring the construct of motivation to learn exactly as it was operationalized in the present study.

**Self-Efficacy**

The 9 item self-efficacy scale used in this experiment had an α of .851. The item total correlations for each of the items on the scale were all above .6. A principal components factor analysis with Oblimin rotation yielded an interpretable one-factor solution that explained 47.3% of the variance, with all of the loadings for the items satisfying simple structure criteria. The results of these analyses indicate that this scale is psychometrically sound and fit for use in this study.

**Common Method Variance**

One possible consequence of using self-report measures collected during a single experimental session to measure several independent variables is the possibility of
the presence of common method variance in the data. Common method variance is a potential problem in the present study because it often arises in situations where measures of two or more variables are collected from the same respondents and an attempt is made to draw conclusions based on correlations between the measures (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Drawing conclusions from data that contains common method variance can be problematic because of the fact that, when self-report measures come from the same source, any defect in the source can contaminate all the measures gathered from that source (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Although researchers have identified several proactive methods that may be used to limit the possibility of common method variance, the constraints dictated by the design of the present study suggest that a post-hoc solution must be used. One such post-hoc solution that has been suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) involves the use of an exploratory factor analysis to identify the presence of common method variance between independent variables. This procedure, known as Harman's one-factor test, suggests that if common method variance accounts for
the relationship between any variables, an exploratory factor analysis of these variables should identify the presence of only one factor in the data.

As recommended by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), all of the variables of interest were entered into a factor analysis and the results of the unrotated factor solution were examined to determine the number of factors needed to account for the variance in the factors. This procedure assumes that if a substantial amount of CMV is present either a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis or one general factor will account for the majority of the variance present (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

A factor analysis examining the items used to measure climate, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, motivation to learn, and reactions to training revealed the presence of 45 factors explaining the variance in the 66 items included in the analysis. An examination of the eigenvalues and a scree plot of these factors indicated that four of them accounted for 62% the variance in the scales, with the largest factor accounting for 36% of the total variance. An examination of the factor loadings for the individual items revealed that these items loaded on
the four major factors in a manner that was somewhat consistent with the constructs that the items represented.

These results offer an initial indication that CMV was not a problem in the present study, however these results cannot be taken as conclusive evidence of this assumption. There are several reasons for this. First of all, although four factors emerged from the factor analysis, one of these did account for a much larger percentage of variance than the others. Although the amount of variance accounted for by this factor was not extremely large in relation to the total variance to be explained, the items loadings for this factor and the fact that it did explain much more variance than the other three significant factors may be problematic. Podsakoff and Organ (1986) support this suggesting that a major problem with the one-factor method is that it is not clear how many additional factors must be discovered or the amount of variance the first factor must extract before it can be claimed to be one general factor indicative of CMV. Finally, Podsakoff and Organ (1986) suggest that the likelihood of finding more factors increases as the number of variables increases, thus making the single-factor test
less conservative as the total number of variables increases.

Although the results of the present factor analysis provide a reasonable indication that CMV is not a problem in the present data, the difficulties associated with the one-factor test have led several other researchers to recommend the use of other methods to examine data for CMV. For instance, Oswald, Mossholder, and Harris (1995) suggest that confirmatory factor analysis may represent a more powerful approach to providing an accurate picture of the presence of common method variance within a data set. The utility of this approach is that confirmatory factor analysis allows the comparison of different factor analytic models based upon the magnitude of a goodness-of-fit statistic (they suggest the use of Bentler and Bonnett’s goodness-of-fit index) associated with each model. Oswald et al. (1995) suggest that the magnitude of the goodness-of-fit index of a model with one factor should be compared to that of a model containing all of the factors found in the data set. If the goodness-of-fit index of the full factor model has a larger magnitude than that of the single factor model, they suggest that it can be assumed that the
larger model offers a better explanation of the data and that common method variance alone cannot account for the relationships between the variables.

Based upon Oswald et al.'s (1995) suggestions, the variables measured in the present study were examined using a confirmatory factor analysis (this was done using the EQS modeling program). A rule of thumb for judging goodness of fit for factor models is that their fit index should be .9 or above (Oswald et al., 1994). A model positing that one factor underlies the variables used in the study did not fit well at all (Bentler-Bonnett's Normed fit index (NFI) = .419, nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = .517, comparative fit index (CFI) = .532). On the other hand a 5 factor model composed of the five study variables fit much better and was much closer to acceptable levels (NFI = .587, NNFI = .789, CFI = .748).

This information provides further evidence that the presence of CMV is not a major problem in the present study. Of greater concern is the fact that the fit indices for the 5 factor model were slightly below acceptable levels of fit, indicating that the data may not provide a good fit with the present model. The results of analyses

155
investigating the fit of the model to the data will be discussed in a later section devoted specifically to testing the present model.

Training Program

The next series of analyses concern the evaluation of the cross-cultural training program included in the study. These analyses were conducted because it was critical that both learning from, and reactions to the training program be evaluated before testing the model.

Learning

The results of the second pilot study provided preliminary information regarding the effectiveness of the cross-cultural training program used in the present study; however, it was still important to examine this information as it pertained to the sample used in the final experiment. This presented some difficulty because the use of a control group would have required another 138 participants. Because no control group was used, it was impossible to use ANCOVA to evaluate the scores and thus alternate strategies had to be employed to examine learning. These consisted of examining the differences between the pre and post-training knowledge test means for trainees and calculating an
overall learning score for each trainee based on their pre and post-training knowledge test scores.

First of all, Tracey et al. (1995) recommend using a t-test to examine the difference between pre and post-training knowledge test scores to examine whether trainees have gained knowledge as a result of the training program. A dependent samples t-test on these means indicated a significant difference between the pre-training knowledge test mean (M = 13.65, out of a possible 30) and the post-training knowledge test mean (M = 26.7, out of a possible 30) (t(137)=38.4, p<.000). This suggests that trainees knew more about Thailand at the end of training than before training, thus indicating that the training program was effective from a learning standpoint.

**Learning Scores**

To provide an index of learning for the participants in the experiment, two types of learning scores were calculated. The first method used to provide learning scores was the calculation of gain-scores for each trainee. Although the use of gain-scores has been questioned because of poor reliability and a lack of ability to answer research questions, there is evidence that suggests that
when only pre and post-training knowledge test data are available (as in the present study), the gain score is a reliable, natural, and useful estimate of individual change (Noe & Schmitt, 1986, Rogosa, Brandt, & Zimowski, 1982). Also, Arvey and Cole (1991) suggest that the main problem with using gain-scores is that they reduce the chances of finding a significant difference between pre and post-training knowledge test scores. Thus, if a significant difference is found using gain-scores, it means only that the effect size related to this difference may be attenuated. For the purpose of the present investigation, this effect size is not as important as the knowledge that the training program was responsible for learning, a fact that was demonstrated by the results of a t-test conducted on trainees' pre and post-training knowledge test scores.

Noe and Schmitt (1986) suggest that the reliability of gain-scores be calculated using the formula for reliability of parallel tests recommended by Stanley (1967). Noe and Schmitt (1986) applied this method to calculate gain-scores used to provide an index for their investigation of the effectiveness of an interpersonal skills training program. In the present study reliabilites
were calculated for the gain-scores using the method employed by Noe and Schmitt (1986). Using the formula found in Appendix K, the reliability of the gain-scores used to represent learning in the present study was \( \alpha = .613 \). This figure is close to acceptable levels of reliability and is consistent with the figures obtained by Noe and Schmitt (1986).

Although evidence has been provided in support of the use of gain-scores, it is still understood that the gain-score approach to calculating an index of learning may not be optimal, thus a second method of calculating learning scores was also used. This entailed the regression of participants’ pre-training knowledge test scores on their post-training knowledge test score. The standardized residuals from this regression were then saved and used as an alternate index of learning. These residuals represent learning on the post-training knowledge test after controlling for the influence of the pre-training knowledge test. Thus any analyses that include learning were conducted twice, once using the gain-score as an index of learning (referred to from now on as Learning 1), and once
using the residuals as an index of learning (referred to from now on as Learning 2).

Reactions

The items used to measure trainees' reactions were designed to measure two specific dimensions identified as the cause of negative reactions to training by Berthower & Rummler (1979). Thus, the 19 item reaction scale used in the present study had 2 sub-scales, one concerning the design of the program and one concerning the relevance of the material presented in the training program. The 11 item design subscale had an $\alpha$ of .844. The 8 item relevance subscale had an $\alpha$ of .815. The total 19 item reactions scale had an $\alpha$

A principal components factor analysis of the scale using an Oblimin rotation revealed the presence of two factors that accounted for 48.6 percent of the variance. Item total correlations for the scale were all above .30. The overall scale mean for the 19 item reaction scale was $M = 83.462$ (the minimum possible score on the scale was 19, the maximum possible score on the scale was 95). The mean for the 11 item design sub-scale was $M = 43.978$ (minimum
possible score = 11, maximum possible score = 55) whereas
the mean for the 8 item relevance sub-scale was $M = 32.380$
(minimum possible score = 8, maximum possible score = 40).

Test of the Model

**Initial Path Analysis**

The causal relationships between variables measured
in the present model were examined via a path analytic
approach that made use of the ordinary least squares method
of estimating path coefficients (Heise, 1975; Noe &
In this technique the strength of each link in the path
diagram is obtained by the regression of each variable on
its casual antecedents. When only one antecedent is
associated with a variable, the path coefficient is merely
the correlation between the dependent variable and the
antecedent variable. When two or more variables are
proposed to have a direct influence on another variable,
the path coefficients are standardized regression
coefficients (i.e. beta weights). The magnitude of the
path coefficients determines practical and statistical
significance of the hypothesized path. After the path
coefficients have been computed, path analysis usually
involves an investigation of the goodness of fit between the model and the data. Based upon the fit between the model and the data and relevant theory, a revised model is then proposed and the fit between the revised model and the data is examined. The following section describes these procedures as they were applied to the present model (see Figure 3 for the path model analyzed in this study).

**Computation of Path Coefficients**

The path analysis of the components in the present model began with the computation of a correlation matrix containing all of the variables investigated in the present study. This matrix is reported in Table 6 (see Page ). This matrix was examined to provide a preliminary idea of the interrelationship among the variables in the model.

In addition, this matrix provided the correlation that was used to test Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 states that reactions to, and learning from, the cross-cultural training program will be positively correlated. This hypothesis was supported. Reactions were significantly, positively, correlated with Learning 1 (learning as captured by gain-score) \( r = .171, p = .02, \) one-tailed)
Figure 3: Path Analysis Model
and Learning 2 (learning as captured by residuals) $r = .152$, $p = .04$, one-tailed. This information offers support for the idea that learning and reactions from training are related to one another.

To generate the path coefficients needed to assess several of the other hypothesis in the model, four separate regressions were carried out. A diagram of the paths investigated via these regressions and the corresponding path coefficients can be found in Figure 4. To test the relationship between climate and organizational commitment, (hypothesis 15b) commitment was regressed onto climate; yielding a significant path coefficient ($\beta = .587$). To test the relationship between climate and self-efficacy, (Hypothesis 16b) self-efficacy was regressed onto climate; yielding a significant path coefficient ($\beta = .211$). To investigate the relationship between motivation, climate, self-efficacy, climate, and commitment were regressed onto motivation. This yielded a significant path between motivation and climate ($\beta = .453$), a significant but negative path between commitment and motivation.
Figure 4: Path Coefficients for Proposed Model

* = p < .05, ** = p < .001
(β = -.232), and a significant path between self-efficacy and motivation (β = .555). Finally, to investigate the path between learning and motivation, (hypothesis 7) both Learning 1 and Learning 2 were regressed onto motivation. Neither of these paths were significant (Learning 1, β = .019; Learning 2, β = .004).

The results of this path analysis indicated that, although one path was in the opposite direction as predicted, all of the relationships in the model being investigated were significant except for those between motivation and learning.

In addition to the regressions used to investigate the causal relationships between the variables of interest, the proposed moderating relationship of reactions on the relationship between motivation to learn and learning (Hypothesis 8) was investigated using hierarchical moderated multiple regression (the results of this analysis can be found in Table 10). This involved a three step regression in which motivation to learn, then reactions, and then an interaction term of motivation to learn times
Table 10:
Regression of Motivation to Learn, Reactions, and Motivation X Reactions Interaction on Learning 1 and Learning 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning 1 (Gain-score)</th>
<th>Step</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation to learn</td>
<td>.202</td>
<td>.473</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reactions score</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation x</td>
<td>-.521</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning 2 (Residuals)</th>
<th>Step</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation to learn</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reactions score</td>
<td>.486</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation x</td>
<td>-.525</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
reactions were regressed on learning. These results indicated no significant change in the variance accounted for in Learning 1 and Learning 2 when an interaction term was entered into the regression equation. This provides an indication that reactions do not moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

**Test of Model Fit**

An index of goodness of fit for the proposed model was computed to provide an indication of how well the proposed model fit the obtained data. The examination of such information is an important part of evaluating path models (Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Pedhazur, 1982). The fit of the model to the data helps provide information indicating whether the paths that have been proposed describe the optimum manner in which the variables under consideration should be configured within the model. Information regarding the fit of the model to the data is an important factor in revising the model under consideration.

The goodness of fit between the present model and the obtained data was determined using the Q statistic (Pedhazur, 1982). This statistic is a representation of
the ratio of the variance explained by all of the possible paths in the model (fully recursive model) to the variance explained by the model proposed by the researcher using theory to specify the deletion of specific paths (see Appendix L for formula used to compute Q). The Q statistic then represents the magnitude of the differences between the original and reproduced correlations such that the closer Q is to one, the smaller the residual values and thus the closer the fit between the model and the data.

The measure of goodness of fit Q can also be tested for significance using the $\chi^2$ distribution (see Appendix L for this formula). A significant $\chi^2$ at a prespecified level of $\alpha$ allows a rejection of the data, indicating that the model does not fit the data (Pedhazur, 1982). It is this two step approach that was used to test the fit of the present model to the data.

First of all the Q statistic was calculated for the path model. The Q statistic for the model was .990 using learning as measured by gain-scores (Learning 1) and .984 for learning measured by residuals (Learning 2). Both of these values of Q indicate that the proposed model has a good fit with the obtained data. Next the model was tested...
for significance using the $\chi^2$ distribution. With 2 df, $p < .001$ the critical value of the $\chi^2$ distribution was 9.210. This is greater than the value obtained by the formula used to test Q for significance for models using learning as measured by gain-scores (1.36) and learning as measured by residuals (2.19), implying a failure to reject the null hypothesis and allowing the conclusion that the model fits the data. Although this information implies a fit between the proposed model and the obtained data, statistical and theoretical evidence suggest that the model could be improved. These improvements are discussed in the following section describing a second, revised model.

**Revised Model**

The "theory trimming" approach was used to make revisions to the original path model (Heise, 1975; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Pedhazur, 1982). This process involves the deletion of path coefficients that do not meet statistical or theoretical criteria of meaningfulness and the addition of new paths that are justified by relevant theoretical considerations. This method is useful because even though the goodness of fit for the overall model may be significant, it is still possible for individual paths to
be statistically non-significant, thus suggesting that the model could be improved (Pedhazur, 1982). Furthermore, it is possible that a criterion of meaningfulness can be used to alter the model by deleting paths and proposing new ones as long as these adjustments are made using relevant theory and are not applied merely as a post-hoc method of hypothesis testing. Thus, the statistical and theoretical concerns associated with theory trimming were applied to the original path model to produce a revised model. The following section describes the statistical and theoretical rationale for changes made to the model.

The revised model can be found in Figure 5. This model reflects several revisions made to the initial model tested in this study. The biggest change to the model involves the role of reactions to training. The revised model suggests that reactions mediate rather than moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning. This change is proposed based upon both statistical and theoretical evidence supporting such a relationship.

From a statistical standpoint investigation of the original path model indicated that Hypothesis 8 stating that reactions moderate the relationship between motivation
Figure 5: Revised Path Model

- Learning 5
- Reactions 4
- Motivation 2
- Self-Efficacy
- Climate 1

Connections:
- $P_{24}$ from Learning to Reactions
- $P_{34}$ from Reactions to Motivation
- $P_{23}$ from Motivation to Self-Efficacy
- $P_{32}$ from Self-Efficacy to Motivation
- $P_{31}$ from Self-Efficacy to Climate
- $P_{21}$ from Motivation to Climate
- $P_{11}$ from Climate to Climate
and learning was not supported. However, Hypothesis 1 stating that reactions and learning would be positively correlated was supported, suggesting that there is some relationship between the two.

From a theoretical standpoint the training literature indicates that reactions are a critical part of training evaluation (Alliger et al., 1997; Alliger & Janiak, 1989; Kirkpatrick, 1967). Specifically, Kirkpatrick (1967) suggests that reactions are a direct and necessary antecedent to learning. Recently it has been suggested that this relationship is not true in every case (Alliger & Janiak, 1989). However recent empirical research has indicated that such a relationship does exist in certain situations (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Tracey et al., 1997).

Several studies have found support for the idea that reactions mediate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning. Evidence for this was provided by Tracey et al. (1997), who suggest that motivation to learn may enhance one's understanding of the relevance of new knowledge and skills that, will, in turn; facilitate
positive reactions to training, and that these positive reactions are necessary for learning to occur. The results of a study examining the effectiveness of a management training program indicated that reactions to the utility of this training program did partially mediate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning (Tracey et al., 1997).

Further evidence for this relationship is provided by Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell (1995). They originally proposed that reactions would moderate the relationship between learning and motivation to learn, however the results of their study indicated that reactions mediated rather than moderated this relationship. They found no direct path between motivation and learning, however the paths between motivation and reactions and reactions and learning were both significant. These results allow support for the idea that the degree that individuals are motivated to learn predicts the favorability of their reactions and based upon these reactions, the degree of learning can be predicted (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995).

The results of an investigation of the initial path model used in the present study suggest the fact that
motivation to learn did not cause learning. Given statistical and theoretical evidence supporting the role of reactions as a mediator rather than a moderator, the revised path model suggests that reactions mediate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning.

The second set of changes to the model involves the removal of the construct of organizational commitment. This was done for several reasons. First, results indicate that motivation to learn and organizational commitment were not significantly correlated with each other. Second, although the path between organizational commitment and motivation to learn was significant, the relationship was in the opposite to the hypothesis. Because there is no theoretical justification for these results (i.e. that motivation to learn causes organizational commitment, rather than commitment being an influence on motivation), paths involving organizational commitment were deleted from the present model.

Additional justification for the elimination of organizational commitment in the revised model is provided by the nature of the scale used to measure the construct. In the present situation, the constraints of using a
laboratory paradigm rather than a field study to measure commitment required that the commitment scale be modified from its original format. These modifications entailed substituting "university" for "organization" because participants were not members of a real organization. It is possible that this alteration was responsible for counterintuitive results. Thus, given the constraints of the present situation, and the lack of meaningful and statistically significant results from the original path model, organizational commitment was eliminated from the revised path model.

Finally, the revised model included an additional path between self-efficacy and reactions. This path was added based upon the results of several studies that have indicated that self-efficacy is directly related to reactions to training (Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Gist et al., 1989; Mathieu et al., 1992; Mathieu et al., 1993; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). It is possible that these results are based upon the idea that individuals who experience self-efficacy in a situation will be more likely to develop interest and favorable reactions toward that situation or activity (Mathieu et al., 1993). This
information and the fact that reactions and self-efficacy are highly correlated in the present study ($r = .599, p < .001$) suggests that the addition of a path between self-efficacy and training reactions is justified.

Path Coefficients and Goodness of fit for Revised Model

Four regressions were carried out to obtain the path coefficients for the revised model (the path coefficients obtained from analyses using the revised model can be found in Figure 6). First of all, self-efficacy was regressed on climate, yielding a significant coefficient ($\beta = .211$).

Next, motivation to learn was regressed on climate and self-efficacy, yielding significant path coefficients between climate and motivation ($\beta = .321$), and between self-efficacy and motivation ($\beta = .535$). Next, reactions were regressed onto motivation to learn and self-efficacy, yielding a significant path coefficient between motivation and reactions ($\beta = .544$), and a non-significant coefficient between self-efficacy and reactions. Finally, both measures of learning were regressed separately onto reactions, yielding significant path coefficients for
Figure 6: Path Coefficients for Revised Model
Learning 1 ($\beta = .171$, $p = .048$, two-tailed) and Learning 2 ($\beta = .171$, $p = .039$, one-tailed).

The Q statistic was calculated for the revised path model in the same manner as it was for the original path model. The Q statistic for the model was .988 using learning as measured by gain-scores and .990 for learning measured by residuals. Both of these values of Q indicate that the proposed model has a good fit with the obtained data. Next, the model was tested for significance using the $\chi^2$ distribution. With 1 df, $p < .001$ the critical value of the $\chi^2$ distribution was 9.210. This is greater than the value obtained by the formula used to test Q for significance for Learning 1 (1.65) and Learning 2 (1.37), implying a failure to reject the null hypothesis and allowing the conclusion that the model fits the data.

Although Q could be calculated for both the original and the revised path models, the fit of the original model could not be directly compared to that of the revised model because the two models were not nested within one another. That is, reactions were viewed as a moderator in the original model and thus were not included in the regressions used to test this model. However, theoretical
considerations dictated that they be examined as a mediator in the revised model, causing them to be included in the regressions used to test this model. Due to this difference, all that can be said about the two models is that both models fit the data well. It is up to theoretical considerations about the arrangement of the independent variables in the model to dictate which model is more correct (Pedhazur, 1982). The following section discusses the implications of the results.
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to investigate a new model of cross-cultural training effectiveness that proposes that characteristics of the individual and the organization interact to determine training program outcomes. This model was created based on a synthesis of recent literature in the areas of organizational climate perceptions, expatriate human resource management, and training. The investigation and revision of the model provided support for the influence of climate perceptions on several individual difference variables and subsequently on training effectiveness. These results and their implications are discussed in the following section. This section begins with a discussion of the climate manipulation and the cross-cultural training program used in the present study because it is necessary that their effectiveness be discussed before drawing any conclusions from tests of the proposed model.

Climate

For the purposes of the present study, climate is defined as shared individual perceptions regarding salient characteristics of the organizational context (Schneider,
1990; Tracey et al., 1995). This definition suggests that the members of an organization attach meaning to their perceptions of an organization's practices and it is this meaning that communicates a message to employees regarding what it is that is valued in a particular setting. Thus, the routines and rewards established within an organization serve to signal to employees the behaviors and outcomes that are valued in a setting (Schneider, 1990). Based upon the results of several studies by Schneider and his colleagues (Schneider et al., 1998; Schneider et al., 1992; Schneider et al., 1980; Schneider & Bowen, 1985) that indicate that specific routines and rewards are an essential part of the formation of climate perceptions, the present study proposed that routines and rewards provided to expatriates by their organizations may influence their perceptions such that a specific climate referent, climate for belief in the overseas mission, is created. The present experiment sought to create perceptions of this specific climate within a controlled experimental context, the creation of which was necessary in order to draw conclusions about the influence of these climate
perceptions on individual difference variables and training outcomes proposed in the present model.

Experimental results supported hypotheses regarding the role of several types of specific routines and rewards in creating perceptions of a climate for belief in the overseas mission. Specifically, these results indicated that the content of the climate lectures used to create the climate manipulation was a significant predictor of climate perceptions and that there were significant differences in climate score between the two climate conditions created by the climate manipulation. These results reinforced the presence of the construct of climate for belief in the overseas mission by indicating that the lectures used for the climate manipulation created specific shared perceptions among participants regarding expatriation and that these perceptions were detected by the climate scale used in the experiment. Further evidence that the climate lectures created shared perceptions among participants was provided by the computation of interclass correlations (measures that indicate the aggregation of shared perceptions). These correlations indicated agreement among
participants within each climate condition regarding the presence of perceptions of a specific climate referent.

Results indicating the presence of shared perceptions among participants are important because they can help provide confidence in the conclusions to be drawn from further examination of the relationship between these perceptions and other variables in the model. Without the presence of these shared perceptions it would be difficult to investigate the model properly because this model is based upon the impact of these perceptions on training effectiveness and other individual difference variables. More specific information on the influence of climate perceptions will be discussed in a later section.

Cross-Cultural Training Program

Before discussing the present model as a whole, it is first necessary to discuss the cross-cultural training program included in the present study. This training program was an integral part of the present study because it provided information on outcomes critical to an understanding of the complex interrelationships proposed in the model. Previous research on the impact of contextual factors on training effectiveness
(i.e. Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Mathieu et al., 1992; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Tracey et al., 1997) has suggested that unless it can be established that trainees learned as a result of their participation in this training program, subsequent information regarding the role of contextual factors in the effectiveness of training is less meaningful. This is especially true within the present context because the independent variables in the model are all proposed to exert an influence on learning. The central importance of learning to the other relationships in the model suggests the importance of measuring learning as a result of the training program used in the present experiment. Thus, before discussing the entire model as a whole it is first necessary to comment on the effectiveness of the training program itself.

The results of an ANCOVA conducted on pilot study data in order to provide preliminary information on the training program to be used in the present study indicated that there was a significant, positive change in knowledge of the material presented in training that could not be attributed to the participants’ pretraining knowledge. Furthermore, analysis of the experimental data indicated
that there was a significant difference between the means of participants' pre and post-training test scores, suggesting that learning occurred as a result of their participation in the training program. This information is important because it suggests that the training program was effective in meeting its intended purpose and suggests that the relationships between learning and the contextual variables examined in the present model will be interpretable. More specific detail on the learning outcomes of the training program will be discussed in a following section.

Evaluation of Models

Original Model

The path coefficients obtained for the model proposed in the present study (see Figure 3 on pg. 163) suggest that a number of important causal relationships exist. Specifically, these path coefficients indicate significant links between climate perceptions and self-efficacy, climate perceptions and motivation to learn, and climate perceptions and organizational commitment. Finally, a significant link between motivation to learn and self-efficacy was also obtained. This suggests that perceptions
of organizational climate among participants led to higher levels of self-efficacy, higher levels of organizational commitment, and higher levels of motivation to learn and that higher levels of motivation to learn led to higher levels of self-efficacy. These results are important because they serve as empirical evidence of links between climate perceptions and organizational outcomes that are important to training programs. The significance of these results are described in more detail in the following sections.

Climate perceptions, self-efficacy, and motivation to learn

Results linking climate perceptions to self-efficacy formation are important because they reinforce literature providing evidence that self-efficacy formation may be influenced by the context surrounding training programs (Quinones, 1995). The present results also extend this literature because they are the first to provide empirical evidence of a direct relationship between a pretraining context, as defined by collective perceptions of specific HR practices, and the formation of self-efficacy perceptions related to the training program in question.

The present results linking climate perceptions to feelings
of self-efficacy are also important in that they provide initial evidence for the fact that this relationship can occur within a CCT paradigm. Given the theoretical importance of the role of self-efficacy in Black & Mendenhall’s (1990) model of CCT effectiveness, empirical evidence regarding the formation of efficacy perceptions may serve to be an important step in understanding ways to enhance the effectiveness of CCT programs.

Information supporting a relationship between climate perceptions and self-efficacy is also important given the fact that the path coefficient between self-efficacy and motivation to learn was significant. This suggests that persons with higher levels of self-efficacy had higher levels of motivation to learn from training. This is consistent with literature suggesting that trainees’ efficacy perceptions are critical for providing training motivation (Facteau et al., 1995; Quinones, 1995). These results are important within the context of the present model because, although self-efficacy has been suggested to be a major motivational element in CCT and essential for the success of CCT programs (Black & Mendenhall, 1990),
there has been no empirical evidence linking it to motivation within a CCT program.

The present results regarding climate perceptions, self-efficacy, and motivation to learn are noteworthy because they provide empirical support for the idea that climate perceptions can influence the formation of self-efficacy for CCT and that these efficacy perceptions may serve as an influence upon the motivation needed for the facilitation of learning from CCT. The present results provide empirical evidence for Black & Mendenhall’s (1990) notion that efficacy can provide the motivation needed for learning from CCT while adding to these ideas by suggesting that climate perceptions may function as a mechanism that is important to the formation of self-efficacy perceptions. This information is important because it may be helpful in future research linking the training environment to the success of CCT efforts.

The present results also provide evidence of a positive relationship between climate perceptions and motivation to learn. These results are important because, although the training literature has provided evidence for the relationship between climate perceptions and transfer
of training (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tracey et al., 1995), the results of the present study are the first to provide empirical evidence for a direct relationship between climate perceptions and motivation to learn from training. These findings are also an important addition to the international HR literature because they provide specific evidence of a relationship between climate perceptions and motivation to learn within a CCT paradigm.

**Climate perceptions and organizational commitment**

The results of the present study also provide evidence of a positive relationship between climate perceptions and feelings of organizational commitment. These results are important because, although the literature on international HR practices and organizational commitment indicates a strong relationship between the two (Guzzo et al., 1994; Naumann, 1993), the results of the present study are the first to provide empirical evidence for the fact that a distinct climate referent created by perceptions of specific HR practices can have a direct impact on organizational commitment. The link provided by this evidence is important given the significance placed on commitment in the expatriate HR literature and the previous...
lack of empirical evidence between specific climate perceptions and feelings of organizational commitment.

Despite evidence for a relationship between climate and feelings of organizational commitment, results linking feelings of organizational commitment and motivation to learn were somewhat problematic. A significant path coefficient was obtained between organizational commitment and motivation to learn, however this relationship was in the opposite direction as hypothesized. That is, although commitment was proposed to influence motivation to learn, motivation was found to cause organizational commitment instead. Although, the training literature offers no support for these counterintuitive results, there are several possible theoretical and methodological explanations for this relationship.

From a theoretical standpoint, it is possible that the relationship between organizational commitment and motivation to learn is dependent upon the influence of other variables that may serve as mediators or moderators. This idea is consistent with the results of a study by Tracey et al. (1997) that found evidence for the fact that pre-training self-efficacy was a mediator of the
relationship between organizational commitment and motivation such that motivation would not occur in the absence of self-efficacy, regardless of participants' level of commitment to their organization. This suggests that the failure to find the hypothesized relationship between commitment and motivation to learn may have been due to the fact that other variables in the model such as self-efficacy may play a role in the relationship between commitment and motivation.

A second reason for the obtained results involves the operationalization of the construct of organizational commitment used in the present study. The organizational commitment literature identifies the presence of several distinct types of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Although the type of commitment examined in the present study, attitudinal commitment, is the type most often examined, it is possible that other forms of commitment, such as calculative organizational commitment, may be more relevant to the present research situation. Calculative commitment is defined as "A structural phenomenon that occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments." 

192
over time (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This type of commitment occurs when individuals become bound to an organization because they have long-term investments associated with their career path within that organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Thus, it is possible that calculative commitment is more relevant than attitudinal commitment in the present situation given the fact that expatriate assignments are often used as part of the long-term career development within an organization (Dowling et al., 1994). This suggests that persons may experience commitment because of the importance of an expatriate assignment to their career path within an organization rather than because they feel an attitudinal connection to the organization. In such cases persons for whom the expatriate assignment an important career investment may be more motivated to learn from training because they see CCT as a way to help ensure success in their career. Given the possibility of this idea, perhaps the measurement of calculative commitment would have been more relevant in the present situation.

It is also possible that the relationship between commitment and motivation obtained in the present study was
methodological in nature. For instance, in order to better fit the experimental manipulation and the population used as participants, the scale used to measure commitment in the present experiment was altered from its original format. Specifically, participants were college students and thus had no "parent organization" to identify with. This necessitated a change in the scale used to measure commitment such that references to the university attended by participants were substituted for references to a parent organization. In the present case, it is possible that these alterations caused changed in the meaning of the construct measured by the scale, suggesting the possibility that the obtained results were based upon the manner that organizational commitment was operationalized in the present study. It is possible that what was operationalized as organizational commitment may have represented a similar yet different construct related to participants' enjoyment of, and affiliation with their university rather than their commitment to an organization. This idea is supported by factor analytic results suggesting that the organizational commitment scale used in
the present study may have been measuring a related yet distinct construct.

In summary, there are several possible reasons for results indicating that commitment causes motivation rather than the hypothesized idea that motivation is influenced by commitment. More research is needed in order to clarify whether these results were related to the relationship between commitment and other variables in the model or whether it may have been an artifact of the operationalization of commitment necessitated by the experimental manipulation used in the present study.

Overall, results linking climate perceptions, commitment, motivation to learn, and self-efficacy support the criticality of the routines and rewards offered by a firm in influencing important work-related constructs. This information is also important because it reinforces the expatriate HR literature that indicates the importance of providing adequate support for expatriate workers (Dowling et al., 1995; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Feldman & Thompson, 1993; Guzzo et al., 1994) by providing the first direct empirical evidence of a direct relationship between the perceptions created by specific practices and important
contextual training variables. Thus, these results both support and extend the existing training and expatriate HR literature by presenting new information that suggests that perceptions of climate for belief in the overseas mission and the routines and rewards on which they are based may have a direct influence on the work related variables important to the expatriate situation.

Motivation to learn, learning, and reactions

The final paths analyzed in the model involved the relationship between motivation to learn, learning, and reactions. Hypotheses regarding the relationships between these variables were not supported by the data. Although reactions and learning were significantly, positively correlated with one another; none of the other relationships between motivation, learning, and reactions were significant. Specifically, the path between motivation and learning was non-significant and the data indicated that reactions did not moderate this relationship. These results were problematic because they indicate that, although several important variables influenced motivation, this construct did not have an impact upon the dependent variables examined in the study.
These results are disturbing because, within the context of the present experiment, they preclude any influence of climate on learning. Since the proposed influence of climate on training outcomes such as learning is the major pretense of the study, it is important to understand the possible reasons for these results.

First, it is possible that there was range restriction among the learning scores that resulted from the training program. This problem is consistent with Arvey and Cole’s (1991) proposition that range restriction is a common problem in training evaluation. An examination of the learning data from the training program indicated that there was a ceiling effect on the post-training knowledge test such that most of the participants received almost a perfect score on this test. This suggests that the measures used to evaluate learning as a result of the training program were too easy. As a result of this effect, there was little variance in the learning measures used, a situation that may often result in a lack of any significant relationships among the variables in question. It is also possible that the training material itself was too easy. This is not surprising given the time
limitations of the present training program. Participants spent only about an hour in the training program and the level of the material presented was kept at low levels of difficulty so as to keep the program from becoming overwhelming. Non-significant results may also be an artifact of the training program and the measures used to evaluate it rather than an indication that trainees' motivation to learn failed to predict how much they learned as a result of training.

The failure to find a clear relationship between motivation and learning is consistent with the results of several training studies that have also failed to find such a relationship, and has led researchers to suggest that more research is needed on this relationship (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Quinones, 1995). It is possible that the absence of a relationships between motivation, learning, and reactions may be due to the manner that these relationships were hypothesized. This is not surprising given the fact that the training literature seems to be provide support for both the idea that reactions moderate the relationship between motivation and learning (Mathieu et al., 1992) and for the idea that
reactions mediate rather than moderate this relationship (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Tracey et al., 1997). Since the present study failed to find support for the hypothesized relationship between motivation and learning and was unable to provide evidence that reactions moderated this relationship, it may be worthwhile to investigate the possibility that the relationship between these three variables differs from the one originally hypothesized.

The failure of the data to support critical relationships between motivation, learning, and reactions; problems with the operationalization and measurement of the construct of organizational commitment, and the importance of self-efficacy for the success of CCT led to the proposition of a second revised path model. The rationale behind the revisions made to the original model and the results of analyses conducted using the revised model are discussed below.

Revised Model

A revised path model (see Figures 5 and 6) was proposed based upon the results of the first set of analyses. The results of the path analysis conducted on the revised model provided further information on the
variables investigated in the present study. The revised model reflected three major changes from the first model. First, the construct of organizational commitment was dropped from the model. The deletion of this construct does not mean that it is not deemed important in the present context, indeed the training literature provides much indication that the construct plays an important role in training related organizational behavior (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Mathieu et al., 1992; Tracey et al., 1997). Rather, commitment was dropped from the revised model because of a belief that the construct could not be accurately measured within the context of the present experiment and is best investigated in future field studies to be conducted using actual expatriates. Results of the path analysis conducted on the revised model indicated that the elimination of this construct from the revised model did not significantly alter the relationships between any of the other variables in the model.

The second major revision to the original path model involves the relationship between motivation, learning, and reactions. Initially, the present study proposed that reactions may serve as a moderator of the relationship
between motivation and learning. Because the original hypotheses involving these variables were not supported by the data, and because the training literature is inconclusive as to exact relationship between these variables, post-hoc analysis based upon relevant training theory were conducted in order to provide more information on their relationship. Specifically, the revised model investigated the role of reactions as a mediator between motivation and learning, rather than a moderator of this relationship. Path analyses for the revised model provided support for this relationship, indicating that there was a significant path coefficient between motivation and reactions and a significant path coefficient between reactions and learning. These results are important because they provide support for the idea that, despite the level of pretraining motivation, trainees who do not feel that the training program is relevant and well designed will not learn from training. This finding has important implications for training research and practice and helps provide evidence that is valuable in helping to clarify the role of reactions in training evaluation. Additionally, these findings are important because they provide evidence
for a relationship between climate perceptions and learning such that, without favorable reactions to training, the relationship between climate perceptions and learning will be attenuated. This suggests that climate perceptions have an influence upon reactions critical to learning from CCT programs.

The final revisions to the original model involved the construct of self-efficacy. The CCT literature has suggested that self-efficacy plays a central role in the effectiveness of CCT (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). In order to more fully understand the role played by self-efficacy in the context of CCT, the revised model proposed that self-efficacy perceptions would have a positive influence on reactions from training. This proposition is based upon the idea that trainees with high levels of self-efficacy have been found to exhibit more positive reactions to training content (Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Gist et al., 1989; Mathieu et al., 1992; Mathieu et al., 1993; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). This relationship is suggested to exist because it has been argued that individuals who experience high levels of self-efficacy in a training situation are more likely to develop an interest in that
training and thus will react more positively to it (Mathieu et al., 1993).

Although links between climate perceptions and efficacy as well as those between efficacy and motivation were supported in the revised model, as they were in the original one, the relationship between self-efficacy and reactions proposed in the revised model was not supported. This indicates that, although the data supports the idea that trainees' self-efficacy is influenced by their climate perceptions and that these perceptions influence motivation for training, self-efficacy perceptions had no bearing on reactions to training. These results are surprising given the results of several studies that have found self-efficacy was directly related to reactions to training (Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Gist et al., 1989; Mathieu et al., 1992; Mathieu et al., 1993; Tannenbaum et al., 1991). A possible explanation for the discrepancy between the results of the current study and these previous studies may be the fact that the influence of other variables may be involved in explaining the relationship between motivation and self-efficacy. This idea is supported by several training studies that have found that
the relationship between self-efficacy and reactions to training is mediated by trainees' motivation to learn such that self-efficacy is a direct antecedent to motivation and that this motivation is a critical component in the formation of reactions to training (Quinones, 1995; Tracey et al., 1997). These results suggest that the failure to find a significant relationship between self-efficacy and reactions in the revised model may be due to the absence of the examination of the role of trainees' motivation in this relationship.

Summary of Path Analysis Models

Overall, the two models examined in the present study offer support for interrelationships between the climate, training, and expatriate HR literatures by suggesting that trainees did share perceptions of a specific climate referent, that these perceptions were based upon the routines and rewards related to the expatriate assignment, and that these perceptions influenced specific training outcomes via their influence upon several other individual difference variables. These results also add to the training literature by indicating that positive reactions to training are an important factor in the effectiveness of
CCT programs and may be necessary for learning to occur as a result of training.

Limitations

Although the present study produced some meaningful results, these results should be interpreted with caution for several reasons. These reasons fall into three major categories: those associated with the experimental manipulation and design, those associated with the training program used, and those associated with the revisions made to the original path model. Limitations regarding the experimental manipulation and design will be discussed first. The most obvious limitation of the present study is the fact that the proposed model was investigated using a lab study methodology. The use of undergraduate participants as a surrogate for expatriate workers presents difficulty when attempting to generalize any results beyond the context of the present model. This is especially true given the fact that there was low fidelity between the context of the present experiment and that faced by actual expatriates. That is, participants in the present experiment were not actually part of an organization. Furthermore, these participants were not actually going to
be facing situations such as those presented to expatriate workers attending CCT and the experimental situation had no personal relevance to them outside of the context of the experiment.

Another limitation imposed by the methodology used in this experiment was that it was impossible to examine several important parts of the model presented. For instance, it was impossible to examine the influence of the independent variables examined in this study on critical training outcomes proposed in the model such as overseas adjustment and work performance. Furthermore, the fact that the experiment utilized undergraduates precluded the examination of hypotheses regarding spousal and family issues. Although the results of the present experiment suggest that these factors would only serve to strengthen the climate perceptions of participants, an examination of these variables using a field study is needed in order to learn more about their role in the formation of perceptions of the climate construct proposed in the present model.

Another limitation of the present study involves the climate referent of climate for belief in the overseas mission. The scales used to measure perceptions of this
climate were constructed in conjunction with the climate lectures used in the experiment. This creates the possibility that the scales were measuring only the participant's perceptions of what they heard in the lecture, but does not guarantee that these were actually perceptions of the specific climate of interest. Rather, it is possible that the lectures cued the participants as to how to respond when completing the climate scales and suggests a possible problem with the external validity of the climate measure. This problem is also exacerbated by the fact that climate formation is viewed as a process that develops over extended periods of time during which organizational members are exposed to the organizational routines and rewards related to the climate construct of interest (Schneider et al., 1998). Since, in the present situation, participants were asked to make climate related judgements after a very short, impersonal exposure to the routines and rewards comprising the climate construct, the external validity of climate related results may be questionable. This provides further evidence for the need to examine the climate measures used in the present study with actual organizational members whose climate
perceptions will be based upon routines and rewards
provided by an ongoing relationship with a real
organization.

Although the present model examines many important
variables that have been proposed to influence training
effectiveness, there may be other important variables that
were excluded from the present model. For example, factors
such as cognitive ability have been suggested to account
for important variance in training effectiveness (Noe &
Schmitt, 1986). Furthermore, other training researchers
have included constructs such as locus of control (Noe,
1986; Noe & Schmitt, 1986), job involvement (Deutsch &
Barnes-Farrell, 1995; Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Tracey et al.,
1997, employee fairness perceptions (Quinones, 1995), and
career planning (Deutsch & Barnes-Farrell, 1995).
Measurement considerations and parsimony dictated that the
investigation of these constructs was beyond the scope of
the present study, however future revisions to the present
model may benefit from the examination of such constructs.
For example, perhaps climate perceptions may influence
important job-related constructs such as career planning
and job involvement. An examination of influences on these
constructs may be important because they have been proposed to influence work related outcomes such as organizational commitment (Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Mathieu et al., 1992).

Finally, the methodology used in this experiment dictated that information used in the study be collected during the same experimental session, making common method variance a possibility. Although the data were examined for common method variance using the techniques proposed by Podsakoff & Organ (1986) and Oswald et al. (1995) and no evidence of CMV was found, its presence is still a distinct possibility. Future studies taking place in actual organizations should strive to measure the individual difference variables of interest at different times with separate measures whenever possible.

A second set of limitations associated with the present model are a result of the training program utilized in the present study. First of all, although cross-cultural training literature and practice recommends that programs used to train expatriates should be intensive and last for several sessions (Mendenhall et al., 1987; Nicholson et al., 1991), the present sample limited the training program to about an hour. Secondly, although the
pilot version of the training program utilized a control group who did not receive the training program but completed pre and post-training knowledge test measures, practical considerations did not allow the use of such a control in the experiment used to test the proposed model. In order to use a control group, another 138 participants would have had to go through a version of the training program in which they received the pre and post-training knowledge tests but did not receive any actual training. Since the pilot study used to provide a preliminary examination of the training program did include a control group and results the results of this study indicated that the learning that occurred was not a result of a pre-training knowledge test effect, the use of a control group was deemed unnecessary.

Finally, there were some problems with the data obtained from the training program. These data indicated that there was range restriction resulting in a ceiling effect among the post-training knowledge test data. This suggests that the training knowledge measures used were not difficult enough. The fact that some significant data were obtained despite the presence of severe range restriction
suggests that the effect would be even stronger if more difficult measures had been utilized.

There is also some question surrounding the fact that difference scores were used as an index of learning. Despite information that difference scores can be useful for the evaluation of learning (Noe & Schmitt, 1986; Rogosa et al., 1982) as long as they are reliable, statistical knowledge and theory suggests that these scores can be inherently unstable and should not be used (Arvey & Cole, 1991; Cronbach & Furby, 1970). Although the reliability of these scores for the present model was slightly below what is considered acceptable, results using difference scores were similar to those obtained using a second measure of learning represented by the residuals of the post-training knowledge test after partialing out the variance associated with the pre-training knowledge test. This suggests that the use of difference scores probably did not effect the credibility of the results obtained in the present investigation.

A final set of limitations is associated with the revision of the proposed path model. Because it was based upon post-hoc alterations of the original model, the
significance of the results of the revised model may be suspect. Even though theory is often applied in making revisions to models, many researchers have suggested that such revisions are driven by the data rather than by relevant theory and thus call into question the validity of the results. Although revisions to the original model had merit in the present study because they provided evidence for the need to examine the role of reactions as a mediator rather than a moderator, future field research needs to be conducted to investigate the robustness of these findings.

A second problem with the revised path model is related to the relationship between the original model and the revised one. Because it included reactions as a moderator, rather than a mediator, the revised model was not nested within the original one. This means that the goodness of fit indices computed for these models cannot be directly compared. That is, although it is possible to compute a test of significance to provide a comparative examination of the fit of the models allowing one to claim that one model fits the data better than another, because the two models weren’t nested, a direct comparison between the two was not possible in the present context.
Practical Implications

The results of this study have some implications for a variety of organizational practices and situations. Of primary importance to organizations is the idea that training effectiveness does not occur in a vacuum. That is, the interaction between an organization's policies and its individuals can have an influence on important organizational outcomes. In the context of the present study this information suggests that any organization that provides training programs needs to be aware of the fact that organizational policies and procedures that may seem unrelated to training may actually have an impact on outcomes valued by the organization. In order to make sure that training programs are effective in meeting their intended outcomes, organizations must make sure to assess the impact of the organizational environment on the employees who will be participating in training because training efforts may be wasted on trainees who are unsatisfied or have negative perceptions of this environment.

The results of this study suggest the possibility that organizations using expatriates need to be aware of the
ramifications that result from their expatriate HR practices. The present study suggests the possibility that a variety of policies related to expatriate selection, cross-cultural training for expatriates, expatriate compensation and benefits, home country contact for expatriates while on assignment, and repatriation practices for expatriates may have an impact upon the effectiveness of cross-cultural training and ultimately the success of expatriation programs. Organizations that recognize the interrelationships between these aspects of the expatriation process and training outcomes may be able to avoid costly problems associated with the expatriation process such as early return and poor expatriate performance. In the case of the expatriate worker it may be important for organizations to assess perceptions of the policies and procedures regarding the expatriation process before providing cross-cultural training. In this way, negative perceptions associated with specific policies and procedures can be identified and altered before they provide a detrimental impact on training outcomes critical to overseas job performance. These results further support previous suggestions that leaders and policy makers within
MNCs need to make expatriate policies part of a strategic system designed to provide support for overseas operations and the persons who staff them.

The results of the present study are also important to organizations because they provide preliminary evidence that perceptions created by specific HR practices and individual difference variables may impact important training outcomes. If future research on this topic proves that this is indeed the case, this information may have applied value given the fact that research has indicated that individual difference variables such as self-efficacy can impact valued organizational outcomes. For instance, increasing levels of self-efficacy for cross-cultural training can also have important practical ramifications given evidence that high levels of this construct have been shown to be related to higher levels of learning and performance (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Gist, 1989; Gist et al., 1989; Mathieu et al., 1993; Tannenbaum et al., 1991).

The results of the present study suggest that self-efficacy appears to be an important mediator that links individual and situational factors to relevant training outcomes. This is especially critical in situations involving
expatriates because these training outcomes have been shown to be related to the adjustment and performance of expatriate workers (Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). This implies that organizations that provide expatriates with high levels of support may be able to reduce expatriate turnover and increase expatriate training performance and adjustment via the development of training programs based upon learning methods that are intended to increase levels of self-efficacy.

One example of a training methodology that is designed to increase the efficacy of trainees is social learning theory (Bandura, 1986). Because social learning theory is based upon the building of self-efficacy through practicing material learned in training and the importance of feedback on training performance, it may be possible to use social learning theory as the cornerstone of longitudinal training programs that stress interactions with members of a foreign culture. Such programs might be conducted in several stages beginning with practice interactions in the home country and continuing once trainees have relocated overseas. Because social learning theory relies upon the central role of self-efficacy in the learning process, such
training programs could use increases in self-efficacy to help trainees to build important skills for interacting with members of a foreign country before and during their stay overseas and will thus facilitate their adjustment and performance.

The results of the present study also have important practical implications for all types of organizational training programs. First, these results indicate that shared perceptions of organizational practices can impact the amount of material learned from training. Secondly, the results of the present study suggest the importance of motivation to learn. These results show that perceptions of specific policies and practices have a direct influence on motivation to learn from training and that without such motivation, learning will not occur. In the case of expatriates, this provides more evidence for the fact that organizations must pay careful attention to their policies and practices since perceptions of these practices may have a direct impact on learning and may consequently impact overseas work performance.

Perhaps the most important implication of the present study with respect to training evaluation is the central
The importance of reactions to training effectiveness. The present study provides important information for organizations regarding reactions to training. Results of the present study indicate that reactions are necessary for learning of CCT material to occur. It is suggested that organizations providing training pay attention to trainees' perceptions of the relevance and design of the training program in question. It may be useful for organizations to gather information from trainees before and after they have completed training in order to help better understand their perceptions of the design and relevance of training programs in which they have participated. This information will allow the organization to make adjustments in these training programs that may have a big impact on their effectiveness. Once again, this is especially important within the context of cross-cultural training because of the critical role that learning from training plays in expatriate adjustment and performance.

Future Research

Although the present study was valuable in that it provided information that collective perceptions of HR practices can impact cross-cultural training effectiveness,
more research is still needed. Of primary importance is the need to replicate these findings using a field study in which the formation and influence of the climate perceptions of actual expatriate workers are examined in an applied setting. It is suggested that such studies should be included in a program of research that involves a longitudinal investigation of expatriate perceptions, training performance, adjustment; and job performance before, during, and after the overseas assignment. The following section provides a more detailed discussion of several aspects of such a research program as they relate to the present experiment.

The design of the present study presented some limitations that should be addressed in future studies. For instance, the present research effort was cross-sectional in nature. Because the cross-cultural training and cultural adaptation process are continually evolving, longitudinal research studies are needed. The ability to investigate the influence of climate on: (a) comprehensive cross-cultural training programs, (b) measures of actual expatriate adjustment to the host country, and (c) expatriate job performance; is critical to understanding
the influence of climate on a variety of important outcomes. Furthermore, the climate literature suggests that climate is best examined using multiple organizations (Schneider, 1990). This information suggests future investigations of the construct provide an examination of the formation and influences of the climate perceptions of expatriates before, during, and after the expatriation process. This type of investigation may help to link these perceptions to individual difference variables as well as valued organizational outcomes.

Another important part of a longitudinal research program investigating cross-cultural training effectiveness involves the actual training program that is used to train expatriates. In the present study, situational constraints dictated that an extremely short and simple cross-cultural training program be used. Although this program was based upon techniques that have been shown to be effective in the cross-cultural training literature (Harrison, 1992), the examination of more in-depth programs is needed. For instance, the present model is based on Black and Mendenhall's (1990) model that suggests that social learning theory offers an excellent explanation of how
cross-cultural training works to increase adjustment and job performance. Despite this, there have been no empirical studies that have examined the influence of such a program on the interactions of expatriates with members of a foreign culture once they have relocated overseas. Information from this type of study would provide crucial data on the adjustment and job performance of participants. Thus, it is suggested that future studies examining the influence of contextual factors on cross-cultural training effectiveness utilize social learning theory as part of a continuing training program. An evaluation of such a program will provide important empirical evidence as to the influence of such a training program over various stages of the expatriation process.

Although the present study has provided preliminary answers to many questions surrounding the relationship between climate and training effectiveness, there are many questions that remain unanswered. Perhaps one of the most important topics for future research involving the topic of climate for belief in the overseas mission involves the identification of the relative importance of the various types of routines and rewards that have been proposed to
create perceptions of this type of climate. For instance, it would be interesting to conduct research studies in which specific HR practice within the five areas of international HR policy that have been proposed to be related to perceptions of this specific climate are examined in order to determine which ones may have the greatest impact on specific outcomes valued by expatriates. The results of such research may be used to develop a taxonomy that identifies and categorizes the role of specific policies and procedures on specific outcomes valued by expatriates. The results of this program of research would be of great value to organizations because it would help them to understand how to create flexible policies that could be used to help understand what is valued by expatriates and how HR routines can be used to help increase their job performance.

The present study outlined the importance of several individual difference variables on cross-cultural training effectiveness, however much more research is also needed on the relationship between these variables, climate perceptions, and training effectiveness. For instance, both the training literature and the expatiate HR
literature have indicated that organizational commitment is an important construct. Although the present study did show that commitment was directly influenced by climate perceptions, information regarding the influence of commitment on training effectiveness was difficult to interpret. Future research should seek to clarify the influence of this construct on motivation to learn from training. The use of actual expatriates may also help clarify this relationship given the problems with the construct validity of the scale used to measure commitment in the present experiment.

It is also suggested that future research investigate the role of trainees' cognitive ability in cross-cultural training effectiveness. Several training researchers have recommended the inclusion of this variable in training effectiveness studies (Facteau et al., 1995; Noe, 1986). It is important to understand the contribution of this construct to training outcomes as well as its impact on other important training related variables such as motivation to learn. Although the measurement of this construct was beyond the scope of the present study, it
should be considered for inclusion among the variables measured in future studies.

Future research is also needed to understand the role of reactions in training effectiveness. The training literature has provided evidence that, depending upon the situation, reactions can both mediate and moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning. It is possible that the exact relationship between these variables may in fact depend upon the elements of the training situation in question. For example, perhaps there is something about CCT that creates a situation where reactions mediate the relationship between motivation and learning while other training paradigms may create a situation where reactions moderate rather than mediate this relationship. Thus, future research clarifying the role of reactions given specific situational parameters is needed. Since the present study indicated that the absence of positive reactions may preclude significant amounts of learning due to training, it is important to both replicate these findings and to begin to understand which situational parameters cause reactions to mediate or moderate the relationship between motivation to learn and learning. For
instance, perhaps because CCT situations may be perceived as critical for overseas success and involve the reduction of high levels of stress regarding relocation to a foreign culture, positive reactions to CCT may help put trainees at ease during training and thus allow them to be more receptive to training content.

It can also be suggested that investigations of the relationships proposed and examined in the present study should not be limited to expatriate workers and cross-cultural training. Because there many types of climate possible within any given situation, the foundations and influence of these climates should be investigated whenever it is believed that they may influence training effectiveness or other important organizational outcomes. Given that the present model has its foundations in the training literature, it is also possible that the relationships obtained between the variables examined will be important in a variety of training situations. Finally, there seems to be a specific need for more studies linking climate perceptions of all types to important training related outcomes. Such studies will help to clarify the

225
role of contextual factors in training effectiveness for training programs of all types.

In conclusion, the present study provided evidence of the importance of employees perceptions regarding specific policies and procedures on important training outcomes, however more in-depth, longitudinal research in an applied setting is needed in order more fully understand these relationships and their influence upon expatriate job performance.


237


239

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTORY LECTURE:
SCRIPTS AND HANDOUT

Introductory Script:

Thanks for helping us today. Please take a look at the handout which I am going to pass around, it describes the purpose of what is going on today and what we will be doing during today’s session.

Please follow along while I read over this handout
{READ HANDOUT TO PARTICIPANTS}

Now I am going to describe the program which you are helping us work on today:

The Thailand student teaching program is being sponsored by Students for Far Eastern Educational Advancement (SFEEA). SFEEA is a Thailand based, non-profit organization which is working to set up an overseas student-teaching program. LSU has been chosen as one of the locations for the development of this new exchange program.

When the final version of the exchange program is up and running at LSU it will involve a small group of students going overseas for two semesters worth of work at Payap University in Thailand. This university has twenty thousand students and was founded by the Thai Government in 1977. This University is located in the city of Chiang Mai in the Northern part of Thailand.

Before explaining why we need your help in today’s session, let me tell you a bit about the reason why our program is so important. As you might have noticed, many foreign exchange students come to the US to study every year. For many of them making the transition to life in the United States in the 1990s can be very threatening and difficult. This is really true for Thai students who to come to the U.S. to get advanced educations.
The SFEEA has found that, in the past, students from Thailand have really had trouble adapting to life in American universities and have often had to come home because of these problems. The program we are developing is aimed at helping these Thai students so that they can feel more comfortable and make getting an education in the US an enjoyable experience.

Next year, LSU students will participate in the actual teaching program. These students will actually go to Thailand and will be responsible for teaching classes aimed at helping Thai students to learn about American culture. LSU students who become participants in the program will be responsible for actually giving lectures and teaching subjects such as American culture, advanced conversational English, U.S. culture and customs, U.S. History and Government, and life in the United States.

The students who go will also get a chance to know Thai students and the Thai culture and way of life because the program will involve living among the Thai people and providing a lot of hands on learning, coaching, and counseling. Students who are teaching in Thailand will not have to worry about learning to speak the Thai language because all the Thai students in the classes will be required to have good conversational English skills.

Now let me explain to you all why you are here today. We really need your help in order to get the exchange program going by next year. In order to do this, the SFEEA and the LSU Asian Studies Department has asked the LSU Psychology department to help test some of the program before we use it. We are hoping that by testing some of our program using students, we will be able to see how the students who are really going to be in the program will like what we are doing for them.

We would like you help us today by doing two things. First of all we think it will be helpful to us to gather information from students about their attitudes towards what we are doing. We need to know more about people's attitudes towards our program so we are asking you to answer some questions for us. We also need you to help us to test a cross-cultural training program which may be
offered to the students who participate in the SFEEA program.

One thing I need to say before I go on is that in order for you to really help us on these things we need you to take today's session very seriously. I really hope that you will listen carefully to everything and then to answer our questions as if you were actually going to participate in our student teaching program. I am not kidding when I tell you all that the success of our program depends upon the information we get from you today. So even though you yourselves are not actually going to go overseas as part of the program, and may not even be interested in this program, it is really important for you to think and respond as if you were actually interested in participating.
SUMMARY: THAILAND STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

THE PROGRAM: Today's session is an important part of the development of a student-teaching exchange program sponsored by Students for Far Eastern Educational Advancement (SFEEA).

The goal of this program is to send US students abroad in order to help train Thai foreign exchange students for life in the USA.

PURPOSE OF TODAY'S SESSION:

Your participation in today's session will help us learn about attitudes towards our overseas teaching program and to help test a training program designed to help prepare students to live in Thailand.

AGENDA:

The following is an outline of what you will be doing during today's session.

1. Introductory lectures (10 min)
2. Completion of questionnaires (15 min)
3. Training program (90 min)
   A. Lecture/Video
   B. Self-paced training
4. Follow-up survey (10 min)

***VERY IMPORTANT***
WHAT IS ASKED OF YOU: Although you will probably not be participating in the actual Thailand Student Teaching Program, it is very important that you respond to all questions as if you were interested in being a participant.

THANKS FOR YOUR HELP!!
APPENDIX B

BENEFITS LECTURES AND ACCOMPANYING HANDOUTS

I. Benefits lecture-Negative Condition

PASS OUT HANDOUT #2 (details of climate manipulation)

In order to help you understand the Thailand student teaching exchange program more fully, we want to provide you with some more general information about the program.

First of all as I mentioned before, part of the importance of this experiment is that we are having some problems with our parent organization. The SFEEA is a very new non-profit Organization. Because they are a Thai organization, they do not see things from the American point of view. Also they have not had a lot of practice running any exchange programs and they do not have much funding. Because of this they have made it kind of hard on us. It has been very hard to convince them that they need to do some of the things that our research has shown to be important when running this type of exchange program. Part of the reason for this session is to try and produce some evidence which we can use to help convince them that they should try some of our programs out. In the past they have been very reluctant to provide many of the benefits which are needed for students to have a meaningful and successful time on their teaching missions. They are very tight with their money and since they do not have psychologists on their staff, they do not seem to care a lot about the psychological aspects of making sure to do what it takes to take care of students who are chosen to go on their programs. We really hope that we can use some of the information we gather in these studies to convince them to do more for the people who are going to go overseas.

For instance, Because Thailand is a very different country from the U.S. we think that it will be very hard on persons in the program to adjust to life there. This means that this program is not for everyone.
We think that the attitudes of the students who are considering our program may be an important part of making sure that the people who go on the assignment are successful.

We are trying to gather some information on attitudes because we are thinking about using attitude information as part of how we select students for the program. Even though psychological research has proven the importance of using attitudes to select persons for work overseas, it has been very hard to convince members of the SFEEA that attitudes really matter that much. They are very reluctant to use any type of attitude survey in order to help pick students who are going to go on The program. For now, even though we know that attitudes are important, The SFEEA has told us that they are planning on using only grades and interest in The program to choose The first people for The program. We hope that our research will be able to allow The eventual use of attitude information. We may be able to do this if we can convince The persons in charge of The program that attitudes are useful. This is The reason for The attitude survey which you will be filling out later on in today’s session.

We also expect that people who sign up to be in The program will wonder what The program may be like before they go overseas. Unfortunately The SFEEA does not want us to offer participants any advanced information about what to expect from The assignment because they are afraid of scaring away potential students. So as of right now, students will be on their own to discover what The experience of moving to Thailand will be like once they get there.

Another problem we are having with The SFEEA involves cross-cultural training. We all know that it will not be easy for people to move to Thailand and live life as they have been doing here in The US. In many cases, The organization which is sending its students overseas will offer a cross cultural training program which is used to help The people learn about what it is like in The foreign country they are going to visit. Research in psychology has shown that people who go through these programs are happier and have an easier time dealing
with the stress of moving to a foreign culture. Research has also shown that in order for these programs to really work well, they need to be about a week long. We have proposed to The SFEEA that we give a week long intensive training program for our students before they go to Thailand. Unfortunately The people in The SFEEA feel that this may be too costly and may not be needed. They have asked us to test a much shorter program to see if it may be as effective as The week long intensive program. We do not feel that this type of program will be enough, but we have designed a shorter one to test anyway. This is part of what you will be doing in today's session. The SFEEA has given us some guidelines and we have compromised what we want to and come up with a very short introductory cross-cultural training program about Thailand. The training is only going to be an hour and a half long. Even though it may not do The best job of completely preparing someone to move to Thailand, we hope that it may help teach a few important things about The country. Hopefully, people will pick up things they need to know as they go along. We hope that eventually we can convince The SFEEA to sponsor a more in-depth training program which is based upon what we are testing in today's session.

We also realize that most people who will be in The program won't have The teaching experience they need to lead classes. Unfortunately The SFEEA has stated that they cannot offer this type of training at this time, they hope that participants can build their teaching skills by just going in doing it. Providing students with training in how to teach is another thing we are trying to convince The SFEEA to include in this program.

Once again, The SFEEA has pretty much said that they do not feel that extra benefits are necessary part of their program so they will not be offering a lot of benefits in association with their program. For example, In terms of getting there, participants will have to pay half The airfare over to Thailand. Also students will receive no monetary compensation for participation in The program. In fact The people who go to Thailand will have to bring their own spending money for any outside expenses incurred during The program such as weekend trips and souvenirs. We are trying to convince The SFEEA of The importance of providing
these things but so far they are pretty well set on making The participants pay for most of travel associated from The program from their own pockets. They feel that The experience that The students get will be enough of a reward for participating in The program. Also because The SFEEA frowns upon it s student teachers becoming too busy to do their jobs they are making it hard for participants in The program to take classes while they are in Thailand. Because of this, students will also need to pay tuition for additional classes offered by Payap College if they feel they want to try and take some classes during The assignment. Because The Thai standard of living is lower than ours The housing accommodations at The university are pretty basic. The SFEEA does not feel that American students should get any special treatment and expect them to live exactly as Thai students do. Because of this The housing arrangements for students in The program will also be a less than luxurious. During The program participants will be living in dorms with Thai students and will be eating in their common dining room. Because of lack of funding and poor economic conditions there may be up to 4 people in a room in The dorms and The food is very basic. Also it will be difficult for you to get around The city because The public transportation is slow and unreliable. Because Thailand is far away and is not as advanced as The US, The SFEEA does not place much trust or value in modern methods of communication. This means that it may be hard for participants to keep in touch with what is going on in The US while they are gone. The mail is very slow and long distance calling is expensive so it will be hard to keep in close touch with home. There is no English TV, and most movies are dubbed over into Thai. The SFEEA does not have The desire or The resources to make special provisions to make sure that participants can keep in touch with home very often. Providing The necessary communications and contact with home has been seen as being too costly and unnecessary by The SFEEA. Also Due to The high costs of air fair and lack of time, participants will not be able to go home and visit during their stay. Also because The SFEEA is worried about student-teachers being disrupted from their duties, it may be very difficult for persons in The US to obtain permission from The University to visit
participants while they are working in the program, so you probably can’t count on any visits from your friends and loved ones.

Let me explain some of the long term details which go along with participating in the program. Because the SFEEA has not yet become accredited with the US educational system, it is hard for them to make sure that our students are given academic credits for their work in Thailand. For instance, once participants return home, we can only give them 6 credits for the experience. Unfortunately, any classes in your major which you miss will have to be made up. This means that participants may end up losing some time in school. Also in order to help people form Thailand, the SFEEA will hire only Thai people to work in its offices. The only Americans which can work for their organization are the student teachers, so after the assignment is over and the students return home, there is no more they can do to work for the SFEEA.

This information has been presented in order to give you a short overview of the major details of the program. As you can see we are having some difficulty with our parent organization, the SFEEA. They have made the benefits associated with this program pretty poor, however we hope that our research can convince them that some of these things are an important part of a successful overseas teaching program. Until then participants will just have to understand that what they are doing is important and that they may have to make some sacrifices.

Now that you understand a bit more about the program I would like to pass out our surveys for you to complete. These surveys are important because they help us to measure the attitudes of students towards our program. The information which we gain from them will be an important part of the process we use to select persons for the program because it will help us understand how students feel about what we are doing. Because these surveys are so important, please fill them out as if you wished to participate in our program.
Remember to answer as if you were interested in becoming part of The program.
II. Benefits Handout-Negative Condition

SUMMARY OF THE
THAILAND STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

A. Selection for participation in the program-We will use only the following two things to choose students to participate in our program:
1. Grades
2. Relevant course work completed

B. Cross-cultural Training Program-Participants will receive the following training to prepare them for a year of living in Thailand:
1. A 90 minute Thailand cross-cultural training program

C. Compensation and Benefits-The following are compensation and benefits issues associated with participation in the program:
1. No monetary compensation provided
2. Participant must pay half air fair
3. Participants will be housed in crowded dorms
4. Participants may have transportation problems

D. Difficulties with Home Contact-Unfortunately, the SFEEA cannot offer too much assistance to participants to help them keep in contact with the US during the year they are abroad. These are a few of the problems participants may encounter:
1. No chance to go home to visit
2. Difficulty maintaining contact with home-few chances to contact home
3. No visitors
E. Upon return to the USA

1. 6 academic credits for the year's work
2. Students may have to make-up classes which they miss.
3. No future employment with the SFEEA
III. Benefits lecture-Positive Condition

PASS OUT HANDOUT #2 (details of climate manipulation)

In order to help you understand the Thailand student teaching exchange program more fully, we want to provide you with some more general information about the program.

We want you to know that we know that the trip to Thailand to teach is a very hard assignment for any student to do so the SFEEA is committed to making sure that the people who go on the program are taken care of as well as they can be. They are committed to making this hard assignment into one of the most positive experiences that the participants have ever had. So I want to describe some of the things they plan to do to make sure the students who go to Thailand as a part of our program have a positive experience.

Because of how hard this assignment will be and the amount of preparation required, the SFEEA wants to make sure to communicate that they are trying to choose only very special people to participate. They want to make sure that the students we select are some of the best ones available. Because of this the students who are picked to go to Thailand will have to meet certain standards. These standards will be based upon a few things like grades, academic backgrounds, and attitudes towards our program and life overseas. To help choose the people who are going to be able to participate in the program the SFEEA is going to request that applicants to the program submit an academic transcript, letters of recommendation and complete an attitude survey kind of like the one you are helping us with today.

We hope you understand that providing an attitude survey in addition to choosing people based upon grades and academic background is important because it will help us pick people who are ready to up to the stress of moving to a new country.

To help us develop this attitude survey, we have done some preliminary research in the psychology department to help
us determine some of the attitudes which we feel are important for success in long overseas stays. From this information, we have developed a short version of the survey which we would like you to test run for us today. Remember we need you to answer the items presented on this questionnaire honestly, as if you were applying for this program. I will ask you to fill out this survey in a minute.

Another thing which the SFEEA feels is critical is the importance of making sure that everyone who applies for the trip overseas understands exactly what they are going to be asked to do during their year overseas. So before anyone can be accepted into the program they must view information which realistically describes some of the major problems they may face in going overseas for a year, as well as some of the positive points associated with their participation in the program. This information will help us make sure that applicants who are planning to go overseas to get a realistic preview of the assignment which they can use to decide if the assignment is really for them. The SFEEA hopes that this preview will give them a chance to pull out of the program if they decide they would not be happy with the responsibilities which go with participation.

Another thing the SFEEA feels is critical to do is to make sure that students who are chosen to go to Thailand receive an intensive training program. This type of program is very important because it can help the students going overseas learn about the country they are going to visit before they get there. The more they have learned before they get there, the easier it will be for them to fit in because they will be a lot less culture shocked. Persons who are actually going overseas will receive a week-long, in-depth version of our training program. Once these persons have relocated overseas they will receive several more training sessions. The actual training in the program will be intensive and will also allow trainees the opportunity to interact with members of Thai culture in order to practice using what they have learned in training. This training program is modeled after those which have been used highly effectively by the Peace Corps so we think it can help persons in our program too. We are going to go through a practice version of this training program after
you complete out attitude surveys. The SFEEA also knows that it is not realistic to college students to be able to just show up in Thailand and teach a class on their own. For this reason, the students going overseas will be given training in teaching methods and will be team teaching along with a more experienced advisor for the first semester of the program. During the second semester they will have the chance to teach classes on their own.

Because the trip overseas will be long and difficult and because it is a very important the SFEEA wants to make sure that we really take care of the students who participate so they will be given many benefits. First of all, they will be payed the sum of 1000 dollars for their participation after they complete the program. They will also receive free airfare to and from Thailand and will be able to attend free classes (in English) in several major subject areas at the Thai University during the program. Participants will receive free room and board and the sum of 200 dollars a month spending money (a lot in Thailand). Students will be able to live in brand new apartments and will be housed in suites which have full facilities. In addition they will receive their own offices and will have access to private transportation off of campus when it is needed.

The people at Payap College are very thankful for our help so persons participating in the program will really be treated as special guests and will be given many privileges which other students in that country would never be able to have. We hope all of these things will make the difficulty of moving to another country for a year much less of a problem.

The SFEEA also knows that one of the main reasons this assignment will be so hard is that it will require that the students who go on it will be away from friends and family in a strange place for a long period of time. To deal with this we have set it up so that we can try and make sure that participants are able to keep in touch with the USA. Here are some of the things which will be done to help them to keep in touch. Between semesters participants will get
a free visit to the US for two weeks. While in Thailand they will have access to cable with CNN and several US movie channels. Participants will get newspapers from the school and hometown once a week, and will be able to have unlimited Internet access as well as 2 hours of free calls home per week. In addition, participants will receive a newsletter put together by the program to keep them informed of major US goings on. The SFEEA also feels that it is critical that friends and family of the participants also be allowed to visit if they desire as long as it does not interfere with teaching duties. The SFEEA takes great care to set up all of these things so that participants will be able to keep in touch with friends and home to combat the feelings of isolation that they may have.

The SFEEA also wants to reward the students who go overseas with our program for their participation in this initial start-up operation of the program. They plan to do this by offering participants many special benefits once they have completed the program and have returned home to their university in the US. First of all they will be eligible to get 18 credits and an automatic minor in the Asian Studies Department for participation in the program. In addition they will be able to take classes in many subjects at Payap College. These credits will transferred up to 6 hours per semester so at the end of the year participants will not have missed a year’s worth of credits in other subject areas. This will allow participants to fulfill requirements for their majors during the program. Participants will also be given the opportunity to use their expertise to serve as trainers for groups of students from other Universities going on the program and will also have the option of working with the students from Payap College who come overseas to their University the year following the program.

The SFEEA hopes that a quick summary of the benefits associated with participation in their program will help to demonstrate their commitment towards making sure that their student teachers have a very positive experience and are well cared for.

This information has been presented in order to give you a
short overview of the major details of the program. Now that you understand a bit more about the program I would like to pass out our surveys for you to complete. These surveys are important because they help to measure the attitudes of students towards our program, the information which we gain from them will be an important part of the process we use to select persons for the program because it will help us understand how students feel about what we are doing. Because these surveys are so important, please fill them out as if you wished to participate in our program.

Remember to answer as if you were interested in becoming part of the program.
IV. Benefits Handout-Positive Condition

SUMMARY OF THE
THAILAND STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

A. Selection for participation in the program-Participants will undergo a rigorous selection process which will include a careful evaluation of the following:

1. Grades
2. Relevant course work completed
3. Results of an attitude survey

Candidates for the program will be given a realistic preview of the good and bad aspects of the program so they can decide to withdraw if they do not feel like participation is for them.

B. Cross-cultural Training Program-In order to help prepare participants for spending a year in Thailand, the following training will be given:

1. One week of intensive cross-cultural training before departure
2. A training program focusing on interactions with members of the Thai culture to be conducted in Thailand
3. Training in effective teaching techniques

C. Compensation and Benefits-In order to reward and compensate participants for their work during the program, the following compensation and benefits will be offered:

1. $1000 upon successful completion of the program
2. Free airfare/ room and board
3. $200/month spending money
4. Luxury housing
5. Special transportation
D. Overseas Assistance-In order to help keep participants in contact with the US during the year they are abroad, the following services will be offered:

1. 1 free visit home
2. Cable TV
3. Newspapers and magazines from the US
4. Unlimited Internet access
5. A newsletter about the SFEEA program
6. Participants will be allowed to have visitors during the program

E. Upon return to the USA

1. 18 academic credits
2. Transfer of up to 6 credits for classes taken in Thailand
3. Job opportunities with SFEEA upon return
APPENDIX C

CLIMATE SCALE

Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. The SFEEA appears to place great emphasis placed on choosing the specific persons who are likely to be successful teachers in Thailand.

2. The SFEEA appears to be concerned about choosing persons who have certain attitudes which should help them to be successful in their mission in Thailand.

3. The SFEEA appears concerned about providing realistic information about the difficulty of the program when selecting students to participate in it.

4. The SFEEA appears concerned about providing participants with providing the training needed to successfully adapt to life in Thailand.

5. The SFEEA appears to be providing participants with a training program which is comprehensive enough to prepare them for spending two semesters in Thailand.

6. The SFEEA realizes the importance of providing the kind of training needed in order for participants to be prepared for life in Thailand.

7. The SFEEA appears to be concerned about making sure that participants lead a comfortable lifestyle while living in Thailand.

8. The SFEEA has made sure that there are many attractive benefits associated with participation in the program.
9. The SFEEA appears concerned about making sure that participants feel that they have been compensated fairly for their participation in the program.

10. The SFEEA seems to understand the value of helping participants keep in touch with their friends and loved ones while in Thailand.

11. The SFEEA appears concerned about providing assistance to help participants stay in touch with home while they are overseas.

12. The SFEEA appears concerned about providing participants with as many opportunities as possible to stay in touch with their homes during their stay overseas.

13. The SFEEA has made plans to provide adequate career planning for participants before, during, and after the program.

14. The SFEEA appears concerned about using the skills learned by participants who have returned from Thailand to help improve the program for future participants.

15. The SFEEA cares about employing participants who have returned from Thailand in future job roles related to the program.
APPENDIX D

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Adapted from: Mowday et al., 1982.

Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this university’s policies on important matters relating to its students.

2. Deciding to attend this university was a definite mistake on my part.

3. I am extremely glad that I chose this university to work for over others I was considering at the time I enrolled.

4. I talk up this university to my friends as a great university to go to.

5. I feel very little loyalty to this university.

6. I really care about the fate of this university.

7. I am proud to tell others that I attend this university.

8. For me this is the best of all possible universities to attend.

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this university.
10. I find that my values and the university's values are very similar.

11. I could just as well be attending another university as long as my course of study was similar.

12. This university really inspires the very best in me in the way of academic performance.
APPENDIX E

SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Adapted From: Quinones (1995).

Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. I think I can eventually learn the material presented in the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

2. I am not confident that I can perform well on the Thailand cross-cultural training program knowledge checks.

3. I am sure I can learn the material presented to me in the Thailand cross-cultural training program in a relatively short period of time.

4. On the average other people are probably much more capable of performing well on the Thailand cross-cultural training program knowledge checks than I am.

5. I don't feel that I am as capable of performing as well on the Thailand cross-cultural training program knowledge checks as other people.

6. I am a fast learner for material such as that presented in the Thailand cross-cultural training program, in comparison to other people.

7. I doubt that I will perform very adequately on the Thailand cross-cultural training program knowledge checks.

8. I am not sure I can ever learn all of the material presented in the Thailand cross-cultural training program, no matter how much practice and instruction I get.
9. I feel confident in my ability to perform well on the knowledge checks which are part of the Thailand cross-cultural training program.
APPENDIX F

MOTIVATION TO LEARN SCALE


Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. I am motivated to learn the skills emphasized in the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

2. I will try and learn as much as I can while attending the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

3. I want to perform well during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

4. I am going to put forth a lot of effort during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

5. I am going to blow off the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

6. I don’t expect to pay much attention to the material presented during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

7. I am very unmotivated to learn anything during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

8. I have no desire to increase my performance during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.

9. I really could care less about learning anything during the Thailand cross-cultural training program.
10. If I can't understand some part of the material in the Thailand cross-cultural training program, I will try harder.
APPENDIX G

OUTLINE OF CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING PROGRAM

I. Handout Outlining Training Program

TODAY’S TRAINING SESSION

I. Introduction
   - Introduction to training agenda
   - Thailand knowledge check #1

II. PART #1-General Information about Thailand
   - Lecture and Handout: Basic information about Thailand
   - Video about Thailand
   - 5 minute study period
   - Thailand knowledge check #2

III. PART #2-Information about Thai personality and way of life
   - Thailand cultural training manual
   - Thailand Knowledge check #3
II. Outline of Cognitive Training Program-Handout

Information on Thailand

I. General Information

Population: 58,851,357
Language: Thai
Monetary Unit: Baht-1 dollar is 25 Baht
Flag: 5 horizontal stripes middle is blue for the king, next two white for Buddhism, outer are red for the people
Population: 80% rural-20% urban
Capital: Bangkok-population 6 million
Climate: tropical rainy
Religion: 95% Buddhism, 4% Muslim

II. Geography

Thailand covers an area of 198,000 Sq. Miles and is roughly the size of Texas
It is located in the middle of Southeast Asia

It is bordered:
on the North by Laos
on the South by Cambodia and Malaysia
on the East by Burma

It consists of four major regions:
the CENTRAL PLAIN-Major agricultural area
the SOUTHERN PENINSULA-Many resorts and beaches
the NORTHERN MOUNTAINS-wildlife and lumber industry
the KOH RAT PLATEAU-arid land but most densely populated region

270
Thailand’s Rivers

Thailand’s major river is the Chao Prya. It is the country’s major transportation route. It is connected to a system of canals called Khlongs. These canals serve as a place where people live in floating homes and shop in floating markets.

III. Government:

Thailand is a constitutional Monarchy. This means it has a King and Queen as well as an elected government. The current King is King Phumiphon. The king is head of the religion in the country and is treated with extreme reverence. The government is actually run by the Prime Minister: The current Prime Minister is Banhan Sinlapa. He presides over the National Assembly which has 2 houses, a senate and a house of representatives.

IV. Economy

Thailand is undergoing a major shift in its economy from agricultural to more manufacturing. Thailand used to have to import almost all of its manufactured goods but now it imports very little. Recently there has been a huge increase in electronics manufacturing in Thailand. Tourism is also a major part of the economy. Even though Thailand has one of the most rapidly growing economies in the world, 80% of workers are still involved in agriculture. Thailand’s major problem for the future is pollution from manufacturing.

Important Products:

Manufacturing: automobiles, electronic equipment, textiles
Agricultural: rice, corn, cotton, sugar cane
Natural Resources: rubber, tin, aluminum ore, lead, natural gas, teak, and bamboo
V. Religion

Religion in Thailand has changed little throughout the centuries. Almost all Thais are Buddhists. Buddhism is based upon doing good deeds and reincarnation. All Thai boys are expected to spend at least three months as monks when they are in their early twenties. Buddhist temples are known as Wats. There are over 22 thousand of them in Thailand.
III. Culture Assimilator Instructions and Sample Episode

About the Thailand Cultural Training Manual

This manual uses a technique called "programmed learning" in order to help you learn important information about the Thai people and their culture. The manual covers three major topics. These include:

1. Thai values
2. The Thai personality
3. The Thai family system.

The programmed learning technique used by this manual is very easy to use once you understand it. Your trainer will read through the following instructions on the use of this manual with you and guide you through one practice episode. After this you are free to complete the training provided in the manual at your own pace.

Instructions for Using the Thailand Cultural Training Manual

In order to use this manual correctly just follow the 5 steps outlined below

Step 1: Read the episode.
Each episode describes an incident or event which has taken place. You are to read this episode and turn to the next page when you are finished.

Step 2: Read the Question and Choose an answer.
When you turn the page after reading the episode you will see a question followed by four answer choices. Please read the question and each of the choices and decide which choice is the correct answer to the question.

Step 3: Turn to the page indicated by the answer.
After each of the four choices there will be instructions telling you which page to turn to if you have chosen that
particular answer. When you turn to the page which corresponds to the answer you have chosen you will find the following:

If you have chosen the correct answer:
-You will find information explaining WHY this answer is correct.

If you have chosen an incorrect answer:
-You will be presented with information which explains WHY the answer you have chosen is wrong and asking you to return to the page on which the four answer choices are found and make another choice.

Step 4: Continue choosing answers until you have chosen the correct answer.

Repeat the answer choosing process outlined above until you have chosen the correct response and have read the explanation for that response.

Step 5: Move on to the next episode

Once you have chosen the correct response you are free to turn to the next episode and begin the process over again.
One of the most important aspects of any culture is the way they view the passage of time.

A typical incident occurring during an international meeting often goes as follows:

"The time is 12:30, and it is time for lunch, so we will adjourn for an hour," said the chairperson in accordance with her belief that having three meals a day at regular hours is the proper way for humans to exist.

One member of the meeting reacts negatively and says, "But why? We haven't finished what we are doing." In his country, people eat when they feel like it, and every family follows its own individual timetable. Where he was from, life and time were seen as flowing together in a continuous stream. Meetings, concerns, and other gatherings might go on for hours. During such meetings, individuals are free to come and go quietly without any stress or strain.

In spite of the slight protests of the member, the group adjourned for lunch. However, when the group met at 2:00 that afternoon, the session was not as fruitful as the morning session was.

Please turn the page
Which of the following nationalities fit the characteristics of the representative in the episode who said, "But why? We haven't finished what we are doing"

1. American
   If you feel this answer is correct go to Page 2-3

2. Eastern European
   If you feel this answer is correct go to Page 2-4

3. African
   If you feel this answer is correct go to Page 2-5

4. Far Eastern
   If you feel this answer is correct go to Page 2-6
You selected 1: American

This choice is incorrect.

As you know, the typical American does not answer that way in the present situation. Please go back and reread the episode and make another choice.

Please go back to Page 2-2 and make another choice.
You selected 2: Eastern European.

This choice is incorrect.

Think carefully while you read the passage and try to match the characteristics of the person with foreigners and their nationalities. Are Eastern Europeans relaxed and patient?

Please go back to Page 2-2 and make another choice.
You selected 3: African

This choice is incorrect.

Africans are more relaxed than Americans, but they do not perceive a constant flow and exchange between time and action.

Please go back to Page 2-2 and make another choice.
You selected 4: Far Eastern

Correct.

It is important that you realize that in Thailand, as with most cultures from the Far East, time is seen as a continuous flowing event. This means that meetings have no set time for ending and people who attend can leave and come back if they feel they need to. Therefore, in the present situation the Thai person at the meeting had trouble understanding why the meeting had to be adjourned for lunch.

In Thai meetings, if someone were hungry they would just leave the meeting and return when they were finished eating. In the Thai culture this is seen as a perfectly natural behavior.

Please turn to the next page.
APPENDIX H

REACTION MEASURES

I. Reactions to Training Program Design

Responses were rated using the following scale.
(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

* = Item which was also a part of the scale used to investigate the perceived realism of the experimental manipulation.

1. I think the training material in the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was very well presented.

2. I feel the trainer conducting the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was very effective.

3. I felt that the amount of time that the trainer spent with the participants during the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was about right.

4. The material presented in the first part of the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program (video and lecture) was too complicated for me.

5. The material presented in the second part of the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program (self-paced learning program) was too difficult for me.

*6. I felt like the benefits presented in the lecture would influence a person's decision regarding whether or not to participate in the Thailand Teaching Program.

7. I felt like the purpose of the Thailand Teaching Program was clearly explained to me.
*8. The Thailand Teaching Program described in today's session seemed realistic to me.

*9. It is realistic to think that the benefits listed in today's lecture would influence a person's decision about participating in the teaching exchange program.

*10. It is realistic to think that a student would want to participate in an overseas teaching program such as the one discussed today.

*11. The benefits described in today's lecture seemed realistic to me.
II. Reactions to Training Program Relevance

Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. My interest in the Thai culture increased greatly as a result of the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program.

2. I feel that the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program will greatly help me improve my skills in dealing with Thai individuals.

3. I would definitely recommend the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program for training students going to Thailand to teach.

4. I learned about Thailand because I attended The Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program

5. I think that the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program would be a great help if I were planning on traveling to Thailand.

6. I think that the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was a waste of time.

7. I think that programs such as the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training program are a realistic way to prepare students to teach overseas.

8. I learned important information about Thailand and its people by participating in the Thailand Cross Training program.
III. Manipulation Check Items

Responses were rated using the following scale.

(1) Positively disagree
(2) Disagree
(3) Neither disagree nor agree
(4) Agree
(5) Positively agree

1. I feel that the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was well organized.

2. I think the goals of the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program were fully met.

3. I think the training material in the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was very well presented.

4. I feel the trainer conducting the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was very effective.

5. The Thailand Cross Cultural Training Program was interesting.

6. I think that the Thailand Cross-Cultural Training Program was a waste of time.

7. I clearly understood the purpose of today's session.

8. I felt like the purpose of the Thailand Teaching Program was clearly explained to me.

9. I filled out all of the questionnaires which I received today as if I were really interested in participating in the Thailand Teaching Program and going to Thailand for a year.
APPENDIX I

PRE/POST-TRAINING KNOWLEDGE TEST

The following questions deal with factual information about Thailand

Please circle the letter next to the answer which you feel is most appropriate

1. The country of Thailand is roughly the size of:

a. Alaska
b. Maine
c. Texas
d. Florida

2. If a young inexperienced Thai teacher wanted to introduce a new method of teaching:

a. they could introduce the method without asking anyone's permission
b. they would be expected to obtain permission from the parents of their students
c. they would be expected to ask the students how they felt about the method first
d. they would be expected to ask permission from the older teachers first

3. The way in which Thais view time is different than the way in which Americans view time because:

a. the Thai concept of time is more informal and relaxed than ours is
b. the Thai concept of time is more structured and formal than ours is
c. Thailand is in a different time zone than the US is
d. the Thais must stop what they are doing and pray 5 times a day
4. The capitol of Thailand is:

a. Kuala Lumpur
b. Bangkok
c. Chiang Mai
d. Singapore

5. If a Thai person were kept waiting for an hour and a half by their boss, they would be likely to:

a. ask the boss why he/she was late
b. wait until the boss showed up and say nothing about his/her lateness
c. get angry and confront the boss
d. become tired of waiting and leave a note

6. Thailand is divided into ____ major geographical regions

a. 6
b. 3
c. 7
d. 4

7. The major religion in Thailand is:

a. Hinduism
b. Buddhism
c. Muslim
d. Catholicism

8. Which of the following is most true of a Thai meeting?

a. It is likely that persons would be coming in and going out throughout the meeting.
b. Everyone in attendance would remain at the meeting for the whole time.
c. There would be a lunch hour during which the meeting would adjourn.
d. The persons attending the meeting would feel free to voice their opinions at any time during the meeting.

286
9. In Thailand correcting a mistake made by your teacher or your superior would be seen as:

a. helpful  
b. very disrespectful  
c. a sign of intelligence  
d. something only a person of high social status could get away with

10. Thailand is governed by:

a. a king  
b. a prime minister  
c. a dictator  
d. both a king and a prime minister

11. In Thailand a critical discussion of your superiors would be most likely to occur:

a. in public in the presence of these superiors  
b. only in private when the superiors were present  
c. during a relaxed social situation where the superiors are present  
d. in Thailand this type of discussion would probably not occur at all

12. Thailand's major agricultural product is:

a. grain  
b. rice  
c. pineapples  
d. sugar cane

13. The monetary unit used in Thailand is called:

a. the riel  
b. the baht  
c. the kip  
d. the dinar
14. In Thailand, if someone is upset with you they are likely to:
   a. confront you in a very polite manner
   b. wait awhile and try to calm down; then confront you
   c. ignore you and avoid any face to face conflict with you
   d. yell at you

15. _____ are used in the logging industry in Northern of Thailand.
   a. elephants
   b. sawmills
   c. trucks
   d. horses

16. In Thailand, teachers and parents of young girls are expected to:
   a. help prepare the young girls to become Buddhist monks
   b. help arrange marriages for the young girls
   c. protect the young girls from moral corruption
   d. teach the young girls how to sew

17. In Thailand "showing off" in front of your superiors is:
   a. not appropriate behavior
   b. ok but only for young children
   c. appropriate only when outside of school or church
   d. seen as acceptable because it is a playful behavior

18. Which of the following countries DOES NOT share a border with Thailand:
   a. Laos
   b. Burma
   c. Korea
   d. Cambodia
24. The fundamental social system which all aspects of Thai society revolve around is:

a. the Buddhist religion  
b. the workplace  
c. the village  
d. the family

25. Southern Thailand is characterized by _____

a. mountains  
b. canals  
c. beaches and resorts  
d. desert

26. The major belief underlying the Thai culture is:

a. the importance of hard work  
b. the importance of respect for authority  
c. the importance of education  
d. the importance of reincarnation

27. Thailand has many Buddhist temples which are known as _____

a. Wats  
b. mosques  
c. Buddhas  
d. Shintos

28. In Thailand if someone unexpectedly drops by your house at a time which is very inconvenient:

a. you would have to welcome them no matter how inconvenient it was for you  
b. they would be told to please come back later  
c. they would be invited into the home but given subtle clues that they were not welcome  
d. they would be expected to realize that they were intruding and politely excuse themselves
29. If a Thai worker disagrees with what their boss says during a meeting, they would probably:

a. inform the boss during the meeting that they feel the suggestion is incorrect
b. wait until the meeting is over and then tell the boss that they do not agree
c. do nothing, in Thailand it is considered very improper to criticize your superiors
d. criticize the boss in writing after the meeting was over.
APPENDIX J

FORMULAS FOR THE COMPUTATION OF ICC(1) AND ICC(2)

From Bartko, (1976)

\[
\text{ICC}(1) = \frac{\text{MSB} - \text{MSW}}{\text{MSB} + (C-1)\text{MSW}}
\]

\[
\text{ICC}(2) = \frac{\text{MSB} - \text{MSW}}{\text{MSB}}
\]

Where: ICC = interclass correlation
        MSB = mean square within
        MSW = within-subjects variance
        C = number of participants
APPENDIX K

FORMULA FOR THE RELIABILITY OF DIFFERENCES

From Stanley, (1967)

\[ r_{\text{diff}} = \frac{(r_1 + r_2)/2 - r_{12}}{1 - r_{12}} \]

- \( r_1 \) = reliability of pretest
- \( r_2 \) = reliability of posttest
- \( r_{12} \) = correlation between pretest and posttest
APPENDIX L

FORMULAS USED TO EXAMINE GOODNESS OF FIT


\[ Q = \frac{1 - R_m^2}{1 - M} \]

Where:

\[ R_m^2 = 1 - (1 - R_1^2)(1 - R_2^2)(1 - R_3^2)(1 - R_4^2)(1 - R_5^2) \]

and

\[ M = 1 - (1 - R_1^2)(1 - R_2^2)(1 - R_3^2)(1 - R_4^2)(1 - R_5^2) \]

II. Calculation of W (used to test Q for significance)

From Pedhazur, (1982)

\[ W = -(N - d) \log_e Q \]

Where:

\( N = \) sample size

\( d = \) number of over identifying restrictions (i.e. the number of path coefficients hypothesized to be equal to 0. Also equal to df).

\( W \) can be tested vs. a \( \chi^2 \) distribution with \( df = d \)
VITA

Charles Handler is a native of Knoxville, Tennessee. He attended Davidson College in Davidson, North Carolina, and graduated with a Bachelor of Science Degree in May of 1990. He enrolled in the Industrial/Organizational Psychology doctoral program at Louisiana State University in the fall of 1991 after living in Vail, Colorado, for the 1990 ski season. Charles presently resides in New Orleans, Louisiana, and works for the City of New Orleans as a test development and validation specialist. He will receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the May, 1999, commencement.
Candidate: Charles Andrew Handler

Major Field: Psychology

Title of Dissertation: The Influence of Climate for Belief in the Overseas Mission on Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness

Approved:

[Signatures]

Major Professor and Chairman
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

[Signatures]

Date of Examination:
November 6, 1998