Identifying Multicultural Managerial Competencies: Informing the Content of a Master’s Program in International Management

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Abstract

The fabric of the workforce is changing. Indeed, domestic managers are working with an increasingly multicultural workforce at home while managers who travel abroad often work with people from multiple cultures. Concurrently, managers are often required to work with people in organizations that span across geographic boundaries, located in various time zones, relying mainly on information technology. However, empirical guidelines to train managers facing these challenges are scant as management typologies fall short when it comes to identifying the skills needed for simultaneously working with people from multiple cultural backgrounds. The goal of this study was to identify a repertoire of multicultural managerial competencies for work at home and abroad, in face-to-face contexts and via the use of technology. Using competency modeling as a conceptual framework, we enlisted the help of 20 mid- to upper-level managers who were invited to participate in individual behavioral event interviews to discuss positive and negative critical incidents and to answer questions grounded in job analysis. Data was analyzed using thematic (content) analysis based on a mixed method, a process that mostly illustrated the emergence of new competencies. ATLAS.ti was then used to code transcripts and to cross-reference behaviors according to emerging competency categories. Managers were then invited to validate the relevance of the initial version of the typology and to confirm that no competencies or related behaviors were missing. The resulting Multicultural Managerial Competency (MMC) typology, outlining five competence categories that combine 12 competencies along with their 71 corresponding behavioral indicators, makes both theoretical and practical contributions while offering flexibility for application. Indeed, the MMC typology illustrates an overlap between management and intercultural/cross-cultural literature, confirming that managers in multicultural contexts are called upon to invest in the management of trusting relationships, in distance management, as well as in expatriate management. Multicultural elements also permeate classic business and team functions thereby giving management requirements a new form. In terms of practical applications, the MMC typology provides
concrete behavioral indicators for managers to use as guidelines for competence and serves to inform the creation of university curricula in international management.

Key terms: Multicultural Management, International Management Education, Multicultural Managerial Competence, Management Competencies, Global and Cross-cultural Management
L’identification des compétences managériales multiculturelles servant à informer le contenu d’un programme de deuxième cycle en gestion internationale

Résumé

L’une des conséquences de la mondialisation est la création de nouvelles exigences de gestion. D’une part, la main-d’œuvre locale devient de plus en plus multiculturelle. D’autre part, les gestionnaires sont davantage appelés à voyager à l’international pour travailler avec des gens de plusieurs cultures. De plus, la mondialisation induit une utilisation accrue des TIC augmentant par le fait même le travail en contextes multiculturels. Par contre, on note des lacunes quant aux connaissances nécessaires pour la formation de gestionnaires leur permettant de faire face à ces exigences organisationnelles. Donc afin d’outiller les gestionnaires pour le travail en contextes multiculturels, il est nécessaire d’identifier le contenu de programmes de formation. Ainsi, à l’aide d’un cadre conceptuel ancré dans l’approche par compétence, l’objectif de cette étude était l’identification de compétences managériales multiculturelles. À cette fin, 20 gestionnaires de niveau intermédiaire ou supérieur ont participé à des entrevues individuelles de type comportemental basées sur les incidents critiques et sur l’analyse de l’emploi. Une analyse thématique a servi à l’analyse des données de façon à laisser émerger une typologie combinant des catégories homogènes et mutuellement exclusives de compétences en gestion multiculturelle. La typologie finale comprend cinq regroupements de compétences, 12 compétences ainsi que les 71 indicateurs comportementaux qui les définissent. Sur le plan théorique, les résultats serviront à combler des lacunes au niveau des connaissances en gestion multiculturelle, notamment en mettant l’accent sur la gestion de relations de confiance ainsi que sur la gestion à distance et sur la gestion des expatriés. De plus, les compétences et indicateurs comportementaux offrent des pratiques concrètes qui serviront à guider les gestionnaires en leur permettant de faire des choix judicieux. Finalement, la typologie supporte l’élaboration du contenu d’un curriculum universitaire en gestion internationale respectant les critères d’organismes d’accréditation pour des programmes de formation en gestion internationale.

Mots clés : gestion multiculturelle, compétences managériales multiculturelles, Formation en gestion internationale, gestion par compétences, gestion interculturelle
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SYNOPSIS

The fabric of the workforce is becoming increasingly multicultural. The Université de Sherbrooke, wishing to remain at the forefront of managerial education, plans to prepare managers to face this exigency. However, empirical guidelines to train this type of manager are scant. Indeed, management typologies fall short when it comes to identifying the skills needed for simultaneously working with people of multiple cultural backgrounds. As well, studies on multiculturalism emphasize culture-specificity, knowledge deemed insufficient given the complexity of current organizational structures.

The goal of this study was to identify a repertoire of managerial competencies that enable the management of a workforce combining people of multiple cultures, both at home and abroad, in face-to-face contexts and via the use of technology. In order to do so, we enlisted the help of 20 mid- to upper-level managers working with a multicultural workforce either in Canada or abroad, in person or via the use of IT. Representing a total of eight industries, these people manage a workforce cumulatively combining people of 50 different cultures.

Using competency modeling as a conceptual framework, managers were first invited to participate in individual behavioral event interviews, each lasting about 60 minutes in length, where they were asked to discuss positive and negative critical incidents. As well, in order to do justice to the ensemble of competencies needed for this type of management, the research questionnaire included questions related to job analysis.

Data was analyzed using thematic (content) analysis based on a mixed method, a process that mostly illustrated the emergence of new competencies. Since large amounts of data were created from the interviews, ATLAS.ti was used to code transcripts and then to cross-reference behaviors according to competency categories. Once an initial version of the typology was completed, researchers and participants
validated the relevance of its contents and confirmed that no competencies or related behaviors were missing, comments later integrated into the final version of the typology. The goal was the creation of a repertoire of homogeneous but mutually exclusive competencies that reflect the multicultural realities of organizations.

The resulting Multicultural Managerial Competency (MMC) typology, outlining five competence categories that combine 12 competencies along with their 71 corresponding behavioral indicators, makes both theoretical and practical contributions thus expanding requirements for multicultural management. Serving as a starting point to multicultural competence, it also highlights the need for managers to gauge their use of MMC competencies depending on the cultural make-up of the workforce. As such, the typology offers flexibility for application.

On the one hand, two of the five MMC competence categories confirm an overlap between management and intercultural/cross-cultural literature. In addition to expanding beyond classic management functions, this typology integrates key components such as cultural self-knowledge, cultural sensitivity, and cultural adaptation thereby confirming these requirements for domestic and international managers. More specifically, results show that managers in multicultural contexts are called upon to go beyond traditional management functions and invest in a closer interplay between social and task dimensions. Indeed, an investment aimed at managing trusting relationships, both formally and informally, will enable managers to carry out business objectives. Similarly, adaptation when living abroad continues to be a requirement for expatriate management. These MMC competencies are outlined according to their corresponding behaviors offering detailed descriptions that had mostly been lacking in management literature.

Multicultural elements have also permeated business, team, as well as distance management functions thereby giving management requirements a new form. For example, the MMC typology illustrates that negotiation, planning, and
monitoring activities are now grounded in mutual cultural understanding. As well, in addition to coordinating both the social and task dimensions of their teams, team managers are required to display multicultural leadership characteristics while facilitating cultural understanding among team members. Those who work with geographically dispersed teams must also constantly be cognizant of optimizing work schedules while insuring the compatibility of technological tools and processes.

Findings also illustrate a need to display openness to other ways or working and to focus on ends rather than on means, sometimes relinquishing control regarding how work is carried out. One example is the pervasive use of cultural mediators where key members of the workforce are asked to communicate messages in their native language to facilitate understanding with colleagues who share similar linguistic backgrounds. Moreover, managers often harness the power of cultural mediators by giving them the authority to delegate work. Overall, it was reported that managers stand to learn a great deal from cultural mediators regarding required motivation and reward practices. Overall, MMC competencies offer new theoretical knowledge that will prove essential given current global work structures.

On the other hand, the MMC typology also provides practical applications regarding the creation of university curricula and emphasizes the central role of relational skills in management education. Contents point to new competencies for working with people who are culturally diverse and often geographically dispersed, at home or abroad, often using technology as a main communication tool. Given the increasingly widespread use of competencies for educational purposes along with the increasingly global nature of business, such knowledge is timely for universities aiming to internationalize the curriculum. Indeed, by outlining multicultural requirements for managers in current business contexts, the MMC typology offers guidelines for the creation of a Master’s program in international management, knowledge that should prove helpful to the Université de Sherbrooke.
LE RÉSUMÉ

L'une des conséquences de la mondialisation pour les organisations est la création de nouvelles exigences de gestion. Au nombre de celles-ci la nécessité pour le gestionnaire d’être capable de gérer dans un contexte multiculturel. En effet, en raison de la mondialisation on constate d’une part que la main-d’œuvre devient de plus en plus multiculturelle et d’autre part que les gestionnaires sont davantage appelés à voyager à l’international pour gérer des subordonnés de plusieurs cultures et ce dans différents pays. La mondialisation induit également une utilisation de plus en plus accrue des technologies de l’information et de la communication (TIC) afin d’éliminer les barrières temporelles, géographiques et organisationnelles. Fort de tout cela, on comprend que les organisations font face à de nouveaux défis et conséquemment présentent de nouvelles demandes aux universités ne serait-ce qu’en ce qui a trait à la formation des gestionnaires.

Dans cette perspective, la Faculté d’administration de l’Université de Sherbrooke, souhaitant conserver sa position de leader, explore la possibilité de peaufiner la formation de 2ème cycle en gestion internationale. Ceci présente une problématique de taille en matière de contenu de programme car la connaissance sur les compétences de gestion en contexte multiculturel est actuellement limitée. Or, l’identification de ces compétences est nécessaire au développement de formations pertinentes à la gestion internationale.

Cette mise en perspective illustre en peu de mots la problématique managériale qui a guidé cette étude, soit l’identification des compétences managériales multiculturelles. Ultimement, celles-ci devaient pouvoir informer le contenu d’un programme de 2ème cycle en gestion internationale à la Faculté d’administration de l’Université de Sherbrooke, soit en identifiant les nouvelles compétences à inclure dans ce programme.

Les objectifs de recherche

L’objectif principal était l’identification d’un ensemble de compétences de gestion multiculturelle reflétant la réalité organisationnelle à laquelle font face nos gestionnaires. Le constat précédent nous a amenés à décliner cet objectif principal suivant les trois orientations qui suivent.

Le taux de dénatalité présentement observé au Québec en plus de l’importance accrue de l’immigration au Canada, nous autorise à croire que la diversité culturelle observée au niveau de la main-d’œuvre n’est pas un phénomène passager. Ce fait renforce la nécessité de générer des connaissances au sujet des compétences servant à la gestion d’une main-d’œuvre multiculturelle en pays d’origine.
De plus, nous cherchions aussi à connaître les compétences nécessaires pour le gestionnaire international, soit celui qui est appelé à œuvrer à l’étranger, parfois dans plusieurs pays dans le cadre d’un même voyage. Malgré le nombre important d’études ciblant les expatriés offrant de l’information spécifique à l’interface entre certaines cultures précises, on retrouve peu de données empiriques traitant la gestion d’une main-d’œuvre combinant simultanément des gens de cultures multiples.

Finalement, les tendances de globalisation ayant accéléré les besoins de collaboration entre des gens dispersés géographiquement, travaillant dans différents fuseaux horaires et reliés par le biais des TIC, nous recherchions des compétences pour le travail complété grâce à une interface technologique. Pour ce type de gestionnaire, la réalité est ancrée dans le travail à distance, soit en pays d’origine ou à l’international. La littérature ayant identifié ce type de structure de travail comme étant des équipes virtuelles, nous identifions ici les gestionnaires de telles structures comme étant des gestionnaires à distance. Étant donné la nature théorique ou anecdotique de l’information disponible dans la littérature en lien avec la gestion d’équipes virtuelles multiculturelles, il était aussi nécessaire de découvrir les compétences reliées à ce profil de gestionnaire.

La méthodologie de recherche

En ce qui concerne le cadre théorique, il a été convenu de s’inscrire dans l’approche par compétence, celle-ci offrant une méthodologie scientifique rigoureuse permettant la réalisation des objectifs de cette étude (Schippmann, Ash, Carr, Hesketh, Pearlman, Battista, Eyde, Kehoe et Prien, 2000; Spencer et Spencer, 1993). Compte tenu de l’aplatissement des structures organisationnelles ainsi que la nature de plus en plus fluide de différents postes en entreprise, des spécialistes de la gestion des ressources humaines affirment que les compétences deviendront une unité d’analyse mieux adaptée menant à de nouvelles descriptions de tâches ainsi qu’aux habiletés qui y sont reliées (Slivinski et Miles, 1997).

Pour cette étude, nous définissons la compétence comme étant une capacité démontrée à travers un ensemble de comportements observables et attribuables à un individu qui contribue à la performance de l’entreprise.

Cette définition a été opérationnalisée selon trois critères. Plus précisément, les compétences devaient a) être centrées sur des aspects modifiables de l’exercice du rôle de gestionnaire, b) être à la fois spécifiques à la fonction de gestion tout en étant suffisamment génériques pour être applicables à plusieurs réalités de gestion, c) être exhaustives (Pettersen, 2006). Bref, il était important de chercher à identifier tous les comportements pertinents pour la gestion multiculturelle.

Pour la collecte de données, la stratégie d’échantillonnage a consisté à sélectionner de façon délibérée des gestionnaires possédant une expérience pertinente en gestion multiculturelle.
Les gestionnaires devaient

a) s’inscrire dans au moins un des 4 profils managériaux illustrés dans le tableau 1 (voir p. 38);

b) avoir de l’autorité sur des gens d’au moins 2 cultures différentes de la leur, soit des gens nés dans d’autres pays ou pour qui la langue maternelle est différente;

c) avoir accumulé l’équivalent d’au moins une année de travail à temps plein avec des gens de cultures différentes;

d) travailler dans le secteur privé.

Un total de 20 gestionnaires de niveau intermédiaire ou supérieur travaillant dans huit industries différentes ont participé à cette étude. Cette taille d’échantillon a été retenue une fois la saturation théorique observée suite à l’analyse des entrevues exploratoires semi structurées. Au total, des gens provenant de 50 pays sont représentés dans la main-d’œuvre des répondants.

La collecte de données a eu lieu par le biais d’entrevues individuelles de type comportemental basées sur les incidents critiques (Spencer et Spencer, 1993). Ces entrevues ont eu lieu soit en face-à-face dans le lieu de travail ou par le biais d’entrevues téléphoniques. Plus précisément, chacun des gestionnaires ayant accepté de participer à l’étude a été invité à partager, en détail, trois incidents positifs jugés critiques au succès de son travail en gestion multiculturelle. Ensuite, les répondants ont été invités à partager trois incidents négatifs.

Afin d’éviter que les incidents critiques passent sous silence des aspects importants de l’exercice du rôle du gestionnaire, il a été décidé d’ajouter quelques questions en lien avec les tâches que doit accomplir le gestionnaire en contexte multiculturel. Étant donné qu’il serait probablement impossible de développer un programme de formation sans connaître les aspects essentiels du poste, cet ajout semblait nécessaire.

L’instrument de mesure incluant les questions d’entrevue se retrouve dans l’Annexe H. Ces questions étaient envoyées à l’avance permettant aux répondants de se préparer avant l’entrevue. L’objectif visé avec les entrevues était la prise de connaissance de comportements nécessaires pour bien accomplir le travail de gestionnaire. Les comportements identifiés ont servi de preuves empiriques. Ceux-ci ont ensuite été regroupés selon une typologie de compétences qui servira d’outils à la formation. Ultimement, la typologie des compétences managériales multiculturelles issue de cette recherche représente un regroupement de comportements synthétisant le résultat de l’ensemble des récits des répondants et non de certains en particulier.
L’analyse des données

Une analyse thématique (ou analyse de contenu) a servi à l’analyse des données des entrevues comportementales et des questions reliées à la tâche. Les typologies existantes étant limitées en fonction de l’objectif de recherche visé, la typologie de Pettersen et Durivage (2006) a été sélectionnée afin de fournir des pistes quant à formulation initiale des catégories de compétences initiales. Ce choix fut basé sur les similarités identifiées entre les regroupements de compétences détaillés qu’on y retrouve et le langage utilisé par les répondants de cette étude.

Initialement, un premier groupe de comportements ont été inscrits à l’intérieur des compétences déjà identifiées. Par contre, étant donné que la majorité des comportements recensés représentaient des exceptions, ceux-ci ont été regroupés selon de nouvelles compétences ayant émergé au cours de l’interrogation des données recueillies.

Le logiciel d’interprétation de texte ATLAS.ti a servi à la codification et ensuite à la catégorisation des compétences. L’objectif était de les combiner selon des catégories homogènes et mutuellement exclusives, ce qui a nécessité plusieurs itérations. Ainsi, la typologie finale comprend cinq catégories de compétences, 12 compétences ainsi que les 71 indicateurs comportementaux qui les définissent (voir page 84-86).

Les retombées théoriques et pratiques

Nous estimons que cette étude aura des retombées au double plan théorique et pratique. Au plan théorique, les résultats de cette étude serviront à combler des lacunes au niveau des connaissances en gestion multiculturelle. En effet, la typologie de compétences managériales multiculturelles constitue un enrichissement certain des connaissances du domaine. De plus, elle met en relief la nécessité de faire des choix éclairés quant aux compétences à prioriser selon différents contextes multiculturels tout en offrant un niveau de flexibilité en lien avec son application.

En regardant de plus près le contenu de la typologie, on note en premier lieu que deux des cinq catégories de compétences qui s’y inscrivent entretiennent un lien étroit avec la littérature sur les pratiques interculturelles. Quoiqu’axée sur l’ensemble de l’expérience à l’étranger plutôt que sur la gestion comme telle, la littérature traitant des pratiques interculturelles offre des preuves empiriques sur le besoin de connaissance de soi et de sa culture, de démontrer une sensibilité culturelle et des habiletés interpersonnelles, en plus de démontrer une capacité d’adaptation à une culture différente.

Tout en mettant l’accent sur les fonctions traditionnelles de gestion, la typologie des compétences managériales multiculturelles intègre aussi ces compétences interculturelles tout en offrant une liste d’indicateurs comportementaux.
qui en décrivent la nature étant donné le contexte de gestion. Ainsi, la typologie proposée donne une nouvelle couleur aux compétences pour les gestionnaires et met en lumière le besoin d’identifier celles qui sont jugées pertinentes selon la composition culturelle de la main-d’œuvre.

Plus précisément, les résultats indiquent qu’en contexte multiculturel, les gestionnaires sont appelés à aller au-delà des exigences classiques du management et de tisser des liens sociaux serrés tout en se concentrant sur les dimensions reliées à la tâche. Ainsi, la gestion des relations de confiance, en contextes formels et informels, permettra aux gestionnaires d’atteindre des objectifs d’affaires. De plus, l’adaptation culturelle lors d’un séjour à l’étranger demeure toujours une exigence pour le gestionnaire expatrié. Présentés en détail, les compétences et les indicateurs comportementaux inclus dans les cinq regroupements de compétences offrent un degré élevé de précision relativement au multiculturalisme, une faiblesse que l’on a pu observer dans la littérature en gestion.

On retrouve aussi des aspects multiculturels à l’intérieur des regroupements traditionnels de gestion tels la gestion des affaires, des équipes, et des équipes virtuelles. Par exemple, à l’intérieur de notre typologie, la gestion des affaires traite les efforts de négociation, de planification et de contrôle, en les ancrant dans une compréhension culturelle partagée entre les parties. De plus, au-delà de coordonner les aspects sociaux et ceux en lien avec l’accomplissement de la tâche, le gestionnaire d’équipe doit démontrer des qualités personnelles favorisant le multiculturalisme tout en facilitant la compréhension culturelle chez les membres de l’équipe. Enfin, ceux qui travaillent avec des équipes dispersées géographiquement sont appelés à optimiser les horaires de travail en s’assurant de la compatibilité des outils technologiques et des processus utilisés.

Une conclusion importante qui découle de cette étude est la nécessité de démontrer une ouverture d’esprit face aux méthodes de travail préconisées par les collègues de différentes cultures, ce qui demande parfois de mettre l’accent sur les résultats plutôt que sur les moyens pour les atteindre. À titre d’exemple, un aspect particulier qui ressort de cette étude est l’utilisation accrue de médiateurs culturels. Plus précisément, nous avons découvert que les gestionnaires invitent des membres crédibles à communiquer de l’information à leurs collègues parlant la même langue maternelle. De cette façon, on s’assure d’une meilleure compréhension des messages. Parfois, on délègue même l’autorité aux médiateurs jouant un rôle clé auprès des membres de leurs équipes afin de s’assurer que le travail soit accompli suivant les spécifications ou consignes et à l’intérieur des échéanciers. En général, les gestionnaires peuvent apprendre beaucoup de ces médiateurs culturels au sujet des approches de motivation efficaces auprès des collègues et de leurs attentes quant aux récompenses méritées. En somme, les compétences managériales multiculturelles émergeant de cette étude contribuent à la production de nouvelles connaissances rendues nécessaires étant donné les contextes actuels de gestion.
Au plan des contributions pratiques, cette recherche aura également des retombées. La mise à jour des compétences de la typologie offre des pistes en lien avec les pratiques de gestion. Puisqu'elle identifie de nouvelles compétences selon des indicateurs comportementaux concrets pour la gestion multiculturelle en terrain d'origine et à l'international, soit en contexte face-à-face ou par le biais d'une interface technologique, elle servira de guide pour les gestionnaires.

De plus, la présente typologie contribuera à supporter l’élaboration du contenu d’un curriculum universitaire tout en mettant l’accent sur la pertinence des outils relationnels pour la formation en gestion, cette typologie pourra servir à l’élaboration d’un programme de formation de deuxième cycle en gestion internationale. Étant donné l’importance grandissante de l’approche par compétence, en plus de sa capacité de s’inscrire à l’intérieur des normes en formation multiculturelle, notre typologie pourra servir à l’identification des compétences à intégrer dans un tel programme. Ultimement, elle pourra contribuer à l’atteinte des objectifs visés par la Faculté d’administration de l’Université de Sherbrooke.
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LISTE OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACSB  The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
APA    American Psychological Association
BEI    Behavioral Event Interviewing
CM     Competency modeling
CQ     Cultural Quotient
D.B.A.  Doctorate in Business Administration
GDWT   Globally distributed work teams
GVT    Global Virtual Teams
IEP    Interculturally Effective Person
IM     International Management
I/O    Industrial and Organizational
IT     Information Technology
I.Q.   Intelligence Quotient
KSAO   Knowledge, Skills, Abilities, and Others
M.B.A.  Master's in Business Administration
MMC    Multicultural Managerial Competencies
MNT    Multinational teams
SME    subject-matter experts
VT     Virtual teams
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INTRODUCTION

The nature of the workforce is changing to reflect a much more multicultural flavor. Indeed, when we take a closer look at the current fabric of organizations, we discover that managers are now working with people from a wide variety of cultural backgrounds. Clearly, this situation is not only true for international managers working abroad, often in multiple countries, but is also a reality for domestic managers working at home. Furthermore, given that organizational structures are becoming increasingly complex, managers must also accomplish organizational goals while working not only with employees with whom they interact face-to-face, but also with those who are geographically dispersed and with whom they interact mainly via the use of technology.

In chapter one, we begin by exploring the depth of this managerial problem by surveying the literature on international management education. Accordingly, we show that though many universities grapple with similar questions, we find no specific empirical guidelines telling us what managers should learn about working with a multicultural workforce. Concurrently, we briefly explore the situation for the Université de Sherbrooke.

Chapter two begins by addressing certain issues related to the concept of culture and provides several definitions along with a discussion on a debate associated to the study of culture. The reader is then introduced to some of the most relevant studies either dealing with management competencies or with intercultural/cross-cultural skills. In other words, we turn our attention to studies that might enlighten our knowledge of multicultural management. We show that, despite some interesting empirical intercultural/cross-cultural and management studies, mostly dealing with expatriates, there remains a void when comes time to adapting to current management applications.
Ultimately, once the profiles of managers to be included in this study have been indentified, we explain why competence modeling is chosen as a methodological framework. This scientific method is both well suited to fit current organizational structures and offers many advantages for training purposes. The goal is to discover the competencies required for multicultural management at home and abroad, in face-to-face contexts and via the use of technology. In the end, this knowledge should inform program content for a Master's level program in international management.

Chapter three outlines the methodological framework upon which the study is to be carried out. As mentioned earlier, this study is grounded in competency modeling where 20 mid- to upper-level managers engage in behavioral event interviews as well as in task analysis. Participants represent a total of 11 industries, their workforce cumulatively combine people of 50 different cultures. Furthermore, we discuss how thematic (or content) analysis is used to analyze data. Based on a mixed method, this process mostly illustrates the emergence of new competencies. ATLAS.ti is subsequently used to code transcripts and then to cross-reference behaviors according to competency categories. Finally, competencies and corresponding behavioral indicators are validated with study participants to insure their relevance while confirming that none are missing from the list. The goal is the creation of a repertoire of homogeneous but mutually exclusive competencies reflecting the multicultural realities organizations.

Study results are outlined in chapter four according to the MMC typology. The reader is introduced to 5 competence categories combining 12 competencies and their corresponding 71 behavioral indicators. Given the ultimate training application of this typology, this section of the essay provides a good deal of detail.

Finally, chapter five provides a discussion regarding the MMC typology's main contributions, namely regarding theoretical and practical applications, while
outlining some limitations associated with this study. We conclude that multicultural managerial exigencies place additional demands on managers. Indeed, not only are they called upon to display new sets of competencies, but even when engaging in more traditional activities managers are expected to do so while displaying cultural competence. Finally, by outlining the required competencies for managing a multicultural workforce in great detail and by respecting AACSB (2002) and APA (2003) guidelines for management education, the MMC typology can inform the content of university curricula and serve as graduation standards for international management programs.
CHAPTER ONE

IDENTIFYING THE MANAGERIAL PROBLEM

The goal of this chapter is to introduce the managerial problem that guided my D.B.A. study along with the relevance of my research parameters. Accordingly, my objective will be attained via a twofold approach. Firstly, I will begin with a brief summary of the issues related to the goals of the business school at l'Université de Sherbrooke along with those of the university's upper management. Secondly, I will present some of the research that guided my analysis and served as evidence for the importance and complexity of the stated managerial problem, namely the identification of multicultural managerial competencies (MMC) to be taught to university graduate students for a successful career in international management.

Indeed, the literature confirms that many universities are grappling with unanswered questions regarding what should be taught within international management programs (Ancilli, Bettá, Dinelli, Hougaz, & Mascitelli, 2004; Avery & Thomas, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008; Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002; Rollier & Nielsen, 2004; Søndergarrd, Calás, & Donnelly, 2004; Takagi & Cerdin, 2004). Consequently, a review of the literature, as will be outlined in chapter two, establishes both the timeliness and the relevance of the identification of competencies that contribute to managerial success for those working with a multicultural workforce. Thus as a result of careful consideration and in-depth reflection, it was agreed that my D.B.A. project was focused on identifying MMC to be acquired by students upon graduation from a Master’s program in international management.

Accordingly, it was observed that several issues related to the actual content of such a program remain unclear and are of primary concern. In short, it is believed that the ability to design a university Master’s program that caters directly to the needs of managers seeking a successful career in international management, be it at
home, abroad, in face-to-face or in virtual settings, is contingent, in part, upon uncovering key content regarding MMC.

1. MANAGERIAL PROBLEM AT L'UNIVERSITÉ DE SHERBROOKE

In a continual quest for innovation, l'Université de Sherbrooke aims to meet the pedagogical standards of the 21st century. Already offering a wide repertoire of Master's programs, the business school seeks to integrate the most recent educational content along with cutting-edge technologies within a layout that facilitates teamwork.

Grounded in novel pedagogical approaches, the business school seeks to offer graduate students the skills required to successfully integrate within the workforce. The stated managerial problem deals with the internationalization of the curriculum in order to adapt to market demands created by globalization.

1.1 The international vision

Following many discussions with members of the school's executive, it is clear that the future of l'Université de Sherbrooke entails a high level of growth in internationalization efforts. Already many such efforts are flourishing, namely the international exchange programs and the international cooperation activities. However, there is still a great deal of work to be done in order to situate the university at the cutting edge of international training and to prepare students to face a multicultural world. In short, given the rate and scope of the globalization transformation we are currently witnessing, the business school wants to position itself as a leader in preparing students for successful careers in international management, a field of study directly related to issues of multiculturalism.
In addition to the topics already discussed, the concerns of the university’s administration were added to the discussion. These were subsequently summarized as a desire to tap into the international potential of information technology (IT), both for use in virtual teamwork as well as within distance-learning applications. In short, besides the necessity for knowledge about multicultural management, there is an obvious need at l’Université de Sherbrooke for an understanding of the cultural stakes involved with the use of IT, another reality in a globalized world.

Clearly, a major enabling factor of internationalization has been information technology (IT), as computerized telecommunications enable firms to control operations at dispersed sites and break down time and location barriers (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). Should geographically dispersed people from different cultures need to engage in collaborative performance, they are likely to be brought together by information technology (Søndergaard et al., 2004). IT is evidently acknowledged as omnipresent in the global movement:

“The reality is that globalization cannot happen without people collaborating via technology” (Osland, Bird, Scholtz, Maznevski, McNett, Mendenhall, Stein, & Weyer, 2004, p. 117).

In sum, it was concluded that issues of management education, culture, and information technology needed to be further investigated within a multicultural managerial context. Though the transformation to becoming better prepared to meet the inevitable challenge of internationalization has already begun at l’Université de Sherbrooke, we find very little empirical information that specifically informs the content of international management programs.

In the end, it was agreed by that the goal of this study should be placed at the graduate level, however not on the creation of programs themselves. Instead, the focus will be placed on understanding what makes managers effective in a multicultural context, where issues of geographically dispersed management via the use of technology remain prevalent.
1.2 Management education and the internationalization of curricula

“One primary objective of graduate management education is to prepare people to be outstanding managers and leaders.” (Boyatzis, Stubbs, & Taylor, 2002)

Clearly, the managerial problem presented by l’Université de Sherbrooke is warranted. Indeed, the question remains as to what it really means to be an outstanding manager when working with a workforce comprised of people from various cultures. Given that managers are now called upon to work with multicultural colleagues and subordinates, whether they work at home or abroad, both in face-to-face settings or with the use of technology, we have yet to identify how to best prepare management students to face this multi-pronged challenge (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Gardner, 2005; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kealey, Protheroe, MacDonald, & Vulpe, 2003, 2006; Wankel, & DeFillippi, 2004).

Before getting to the crux of the research question, it might behoove us to look at some of the general problems associated with management education for upper-level managers as they are outlined in the literature. This will offer a more macroscopic outlook on the state of education today and lead the way to more specific areas to be studied. Overall, the reader will notice that current concerns associated to management education also permeate the discourse on management in a multicultural world.

1.2.1 Analytic data versus soft skills

One of the main criticisms regarding management education addresses a problem area dealing with an over-emphasis on analysis, on technique, and on hard data, along with a lack of teachings on soft skills (AACSB, 2002; Armstrong, 2005; Feldman, 2005; Lewicki, R. 2005; Mintzberg, 2004; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Porter & McKibbin, 1988; Wankel & DeFillippi, 2002).
Upon reviewing the literature, one finds that flags were initially raised by Porter & McKibbin's (1988) large-scale study based on primary and secondary data gathered from over 60 academic institutions and 50 companies. These scholars discovered that when it comes to M.B.A. education, weaknesses surface regarding several issues, a main one pointing to a lack of soft-skill development. Moreover, there is an increasing need for business education providers to differentiate themselves by teaching communication, interpersonal skills, multicultural skills, negotiations, leadership development, and change management (AACSB, 2002). In short, we must prepare managers for global adaptability by providing them with skills that go beyond traditional functional areas (AACSB, 2002).

Other scholars reached similar conclusions about M.B.A. education. In fact, given that Mintzberg (2004) perceives management as being fundamentally soft and relying on experience, intuition, judgment, as well as wisdom, this lack of soft skill development appears to be paradoxical.

Moreover, many scholars doubt whether we need students to reduce analysis to the application of a kit bag of techniques and to become risk averse, numbers-oriented, and obsessed with facts. (Armstrong, 2005; Feldman, 2005; Lewicki, 2005; Mintzberg, 2004). As we will see in the following chapter, this study subscribes to a similar view and therefore will seek to uncover soft skills for managing a multicultural workforce.

1.2.2 Preparing managers for a multicultural world

As we look at multicultural training for managers, we notice that questions related to general management education tend to resurface. Indeed, many universities acknowledge the necessity to update their graduate programs and have created a variety of international master's programs. However, research indicates that there remain many unknowns regarding program content as many issues are still under debate when internationalizing the curriculum (Ancilli et al., 2004).
Clearly, many argue for the study of languages along with an understanding of culture as obvious requirements for international business schools graduates (Ancilli *et al.*, 2004). After all, given the scope of globalization, managers will increasingly have to be able to function in various linguistic and cultural contexts. Thus basic knowledge of these topics within a management education program would likely serve them well.

Currently, most international training programs focus on culture-specific information aimed at decreasing uncertainty for managers working in foreign cultures (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008). For instance, a popular topic these days would be Americans doing business in China, where American students learn culture-specific skills meant to enable them to deal with the complexities of the Chinese culture.

Though important, knowledge of such culture-specific topics is deemed insufficient because it does not prepare managers to adapt to multiple novel multicultural situations (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987). Some go further and argue that culture-specific knowledge is in fact inaccurate. It over-simplifies complex national-level cultural dimensions and claims to predict individual-level behavior (Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008). Consequently, key questions remain unanswered such as what subjects should be taught to improve students’ overall international and global skills as well as what methods should be applied to integrate these subjects into the curriculum (Avery & Thomas, 2004; Earley, 1987; Fowler & Blohm, 2004; Mendenhall, Stahl, Ehnert, Oddou, Osland, & Kühlmann, 2004; Paige, 2004; Thomas, 2001). As mentioned earlier in this paper, this study will focus on the former issue, namely the identification of content to be included in the curriculum rather than concentrating on the classroom methodologies or instruments to be used.
Some scholars go so far as to question whether we can do justice to this field of knowledge at all. To be sure, it is overwhelming to consider what students need to know given the numbers of different countries, cultures, languages as well as economic and political systems that comprise the global market, leading one to wonder whether mutual understanding may be possible at all (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004; Søndergarrd et al., 2004). While acknowledging the scope of such a challenge, it remains that we need empirical data to guide curriculum development.

In short, the literature confirmed what members of l'Université de Sherbrooke believe about the need for research on multiculturalism. Thus the decision was made with the approval of the members of the business school along with the representative of the university's administration that this D.B.A. study was designed to bridge an existing gap and uncover competencies required for multicultural management.

1.2.3 Understanding the stakes of multicultural management

Some researchers contend that the managerial recipes found in conventional management strategies can only lead to failure in what is now a disorderly world (Parker & Stacey, 1994; Stacey, 1992). Furthermore, conventional methods have emphasized country-specific knowledge that focus on dyadic interactions, thereby failing to do justice to the complexity of multinational teams and work environments (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008). Consequently, it remains difficult for managers to know where to turn for helpful guidelines as to what practices work best in multicultural settings. Consequently, managers are often puzzled or frustrated because they simply don't feel in-tuned with their workforce, often made up of people from other countries, cultures, or ethnic groups (Thomas & Inkson, 2005). In fact, examples of managers committing cultural 'faux-pas' abound in the literature; seemingly, having good intentions in not sufficient for managerial success (Earley & Ang, 2003).
When taking a closer look at the failure rates of companies doing business abroad, we can agree that the challenge of preparing managers for success on the international arena is tremendous. Indeed, though international projects have been multiplying, their success records remain spotty. Since it is difficult to get such data from multinational corporations, the exact numbers of aborted overseas assignments vary. However, with regards to expatriates, some estimates of failures range between 20% to 50% (Mendenhall et al., 1987). Others paint a dimmer picture with estimated success rates ranging between 6% (for instance, in recent projects in China), to only about 50% for foreign assignments in general (Kealey et al., 2006).

If those numbers don't give us enough reason to rethink the content of multicultural training programs, then perhaps the estimated financial and personal costs associated with failure rates of international projects will warrant further research. In fact, Mendenhall et al. (1987) argue that such costs range between $55,000 to $150,000, while Earley and Ang (2003) evaluate them at somewhere between $50,000 and $200,000, with losses of up to a million dollars per expatriate failure. Furthermore, scholars mention the significant personal or emotional costs involved for the poorly adjusted expatriates, illustrating the depth and complexity of the stakes involved with issues of internationalization (Earley & Ang, 2003).

In fact, there seems to be an acknowledgement in the literature that the general topic of culture is much more complex, pluralistic, diverse, contradictory, or inherently paradoxical than previously assumed, conceptualized, or acknowledged. (Sackmann, 1997). In many cases, the high level of complexity associated with issues of culture has negatively affected researchers’ willingness to study this concept.

However, the fact that this construct is not easily measurable does not justify the lack of studies in international and cross-cultural management settings (Sackmann, 1997; Usunier, 1998). Indeed, one can accept that the forces of complexity and uncertainty act as serious challenges faced by managers in
multinational organizations and by researchers alike (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). Clearly, it remains that university programs in IM will require credible empirical data to guide the creation of successful graduate-level programs, data currently limited in scope (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). It is therefore armed with this ultimate goal that this study was conducted.

1.2.4 Lack of clear curriculum content for multicultural management

Turning our attention to a narrower focus related to international management, namely to the issue of multicultural effectiveness, does not simplify matters. In fact, this leads us to discover that the field has never precisely clarified what it means to be effective in settings involving people of different cultures (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kealey et al., 2003).

Evidently, simply elucidating the differences amongst the various fields of cultural study- a situation due in part to the lack of cross-disciplinary integration between research findings- is itself a complex matter, (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Bennett, Bennett, and Landis (2004) offer a useful summary of this interdisciplinary field. They explain that research began in the field of anthropology where definitions of culture were generated. Subsequently, cross-cultural psychology applied the rigor of the social scientific method in order to compare and contrast various cultures. Concurrently, the field of intercultural communication focused on theory and research related to interpersonal interaction across cultures thereby formalizing theory of intercultural relations. Meanwhile, the field of multicultural education demonstrated the development of cultural identities. Finally, the field of international management emphasized the applicability of intercultural theory and research given the demands of culturally diverse organizations.

For the sake of this study, unless otherwise specified due to the nature of the research, the terms cross-cultural, intercultural, and multicultural shall be used as synonymous as they all point to the existence of more than a single culture. While it
appears warranted to tap into the uniqueness of these parallel interdisciplinary fields of study, we will focus on the elements that unite them. The reason for combining these areas of research is simple. Multiculturalism is a qualifier encompassing both cross-cultural encounters- where cultural *comparisons* are often provided given the multiplicity of cultural identities to be represented- as well as intercultural ones- where *intercultural encounters* will be the norm amongst people of multiple cultures. Upon reflection, these labels are all intertwined within the goal of international management training. In short, I believe that the use of the multicultural label, which points to the existence of more than one culture, best encapsulates all these dimensions. Should important delineations be necessary between the terminologies given my research agenda, they shall be outlined accordingly.

With regards to multicultural skills and effectiveness, we are still questioning whether a universal set of competencies actually exists. Currently, the only available knowledge is normative in nature and is grounded in mostly theoretical or anecdotal information (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). This problem is perhaps due to the lack of a grand unifying theory, or using a Kuhnian concept, due to the absence of agreed-upon paradigmatic guidelines (Bennett *et al.* 2004; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). Consequently, it is argued that training programs for multicultural effectiveness- often focused on the skills for expatriates- are not only inconsistent in content, but also display incoherence in purpose while they remain non-evaluative of results (Kealey *et al*., 2003). Indeed, few scholars have turned their attention to the evaluation of program effectiveness (Mendenhall *et al*., 2004).

As a result of the scope and breadth of this challenge, courses in business schools having internationalized their curriculum are still not producing high-quality global managers, thus falling short of expectations (Ancilli *et al*.; 2004). Indeed it is said that a wide border exists between the process of educating and the actual practice of managing (Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002). Perhaps the chasm is even wider when we add issues of multiculturalism to the equation.
The review of the literature found in chapter two confirms the existence of a good deal of credible research preparing managers for expatriate settings. However, other multicultural contexts have been ignored, such as the domestic manager, the international manager, and the distance manager. This reality perhaps explains the negative evaluation of many international management programs. As we will see in chapter three, this research project included participants from all of these management contexts in order to do justice to the realities facing multicultural management.

1.2.5 Training objectives for graduate programs in international management

One way to possibly circumvent the problem of identifying program content, or to at least find appropriate solutions for the creation of new programs, could be to go back to the basics and outline the objectives sought by administrators of international management programs. One credible entity in terms of university program accreditation is the The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), one that has long emphasized internationalization as a prime accreditation factor. Indeed, the AACSB’s current standards explicitly state that an accredited business curriculum must include coverage of global issues (AACSB, 2002). However, upon reviewing AACSB guidelines it is found that there is no specific content to be included in an international business curriculum, beyond general categories such as cultural self-awareness, cultural consciousness, and multicultural leadership (Egan & Bendick, Jr., 2008; Wankel & DeFillippi, 2004).

Some scholars equate the challenge of internationalization with diversity training, both in terms of issues of academic content and of academic structure (Avery & Thomas, 2004; Egan & Bendick, Jr., 2008). With regards to guiding the preparation of content for academic programs, Avery & Thomas (2004) point to the American Psychological Association’s (APA, 2003) six main goals of diversity content. More specifically, it is agreed that diversity content should serve to a) heighten sensitivity and awareness, b) broaden understanding of human conditions, c)
increase tolerance, d) enhance psychological mindedness, e) expose to personal perspectives and to f) increase students’ political action.

When we add issues of management to the theme of diversity or multiculturalism, we find that we might in fact exacerbate the challenge of creating training programs adapted to managers' needs. Indeed, diversity training must be approached differently than other management techniques where mainstream management approaches that don't prioritize individual differences should be questioned (Avery & Thomas, 2004).

In short, it is believed that diversity-rich curricula can enable students to develop competency and decrease the ethnocentrism associated with “right or wrong” dichotomies (Avery & Thomas, 2004). In order to promote a more harmonious society, university courses on diversity can heighten sensitivity and awareness, and thus pay worthy dividends. This approach to diversity appears compatible with the APA guidelines, yet it offers very little specific information as to what subjects should be taught or what competencies should be acquired for diversity management.

1.2.6 Choosing an angle for international management

Given the nature of the managerial problem identified above, namely the internationalization of a graduate university program in management, we must determine from which angle to tackle the problem. It is therefore with this goal in mind that we turn our attention to the corresponding literature.

1.2.6.1 Global Awareness. In order to fill a gap in our understanding of international management training, Rollier and Nielsen (2004) have classified international management curriculum in three broad categories, namely a) global awareness, b) global understanding, and c) global competence.
Global awareness can be increased through infusing international content into existing courses. Often identified as a main objective, awareness seems fundamental to success (APA, 2003; Avery & Thomas, 2004; Earley, 1987; Kumar, van Fenema, & Von Glinow, 2005; Marquardt & Horvath, 2001; Takagi and Cerdin, 2004; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Indeed, multicultural training is best achieved by increasing awareness of one’s own culture along with how it relates to other cultures at both general and specific levels (Earley, 1987).

Interestingly, for the internationalization of curriculum of French business schools, it was found that increasing awareness, though essential, is a goal at the bachelor level (Takagi & Cerdin, 2004). What is more important for the master’s and doctoral levels is a form of training emphasizing understanding and expertise.

1.2.6.2 Global Understanding. A focus on global understanding entails a significantly higher order of learning (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). As such, the management education classroom should enable students to become more collaborative, more ‘wordly’, and wiser (Mintzberg & Gosling, 2002). This goal is compatible with the vision of the effective transnational managers who require the ability to acquire a worldwide perspective on international management and to integrate worldwide diversity in multinational organizations (Adler & Barthollomew, 1992).

1.2.6.3 Global Competence. Global competence points to knowledge about the required skills to function in a foreign environment. In fact, it is argued that competencies serve as better predictors of superior performance (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). Moreover, multicultural competence has become a key requirement, so much so that it has become part of an organization’s due diligence, where organizations are now investing a good deal in selection tools, courses, in-field support, and on-line resources (Vulpe, 2004).
While reflecting upon the relevance of competency-based training at the graduate level, Boyatzis et al., (2002) wondered whether M.B.A. students and participants in executive education could in fact develop the required competencies for outstanding management and leadership performance. Ultimately, the results of their multimethod, multitrait, and multicohort study supported the hypothesis that competencies can indeed be developed in M.B.A. students.

2. CONCLUSION: THE RESEARCH TOPIC

It was agreed that before moving ahead with the actual development of new graduate programs in international management, we should begin by exploring the potential content of such programs. More specifically, it has been shown that many unanswered questions remain regarding managerial competence in multicultural contexts. As such, there was a need for identifying new knowledge that extends beyond culture-specific managerial competencies to a set that converges toward more transferable competencies for managing in the global environment.

Hence, based on the managerial problem outlined earlier, this D.B.A. study centered on identifying multicultural managerial competencies (MMC) to be acquired within a graduate program in international management.

On the one hand, we know that many managers will be called upon to work in foreign countries, either as expatriates or as international managers who are constantly required to travel abroad (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). It stands to reason that such a management challenge will require a set of competencies to enable managers to anticipate problems that are unique to overseas employees and which will allow them to manage projects with a worldwide scope (Mendenhall et al., 1987; Kealey, 2001, Kealey, et al., 2003; 2006).
On the other hand, given the constantly decreasing birthrates in Québec and in Canada, immigration is called upon to represent the majority of the workforce. It is clear that managers will require proper training in order to be prepared to deal with the changing nature of their workforce. Consequently, understanding how to best manage a multicultural workforce at home is a necessity.

Finally, we had to respond to a current managerial reality that brings together people of different cultures to engage in collaborative efforts through the use of technology (Earley & Gardner, 2005; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Søndergaard et al., 2004). Indeed, managers are increasingly called upon to manage interactions that span across different geographic boundaries and time zones, and that rely on online media as their main means of communication (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Wankel & DeFillippi, 2004). Evidently, they require specific competencies to successfully operate within various cultural, social, and technological settings. It is expected that multicultural challenges will only be exacerbated by such a reality.

Ultimately, as we will see in the results section, it is interesting to discover that while a set of MMC does justice to all four managerial profiles, namely at home or abroad, either in face-to-face contexts or in virtual teams, other competencies emerged as specific requirements for two management profiles. Accordingly, MMC seek to provide insights regarding the creation of a Master’s program geared toward preparing managers for success in international management. Clearly, training for such careers requires competency programs that cover a broad understanding of global business issues along with specialized functional skills (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). Identifying an empirically-based comprehensive typology of such competencies was this study’s research goal.
CHAPTER TWO

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Many scholars acknowledge the increasing demand for working with people from other cultures (Avery & Thomas, 2004; Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kealey et al., 2003; 2006; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996; Yukl, 1998). Indeed, the need for empathy, for diplomacy, and for cultural sensitivity—among others—have all been mentioned as key requirements for success in a globalized world. Moreover, it is believed that an awareness of the values, beliefs, and attitudes of people from other cultures is important not only for managers on foreign assignments, but also for those managing a local workforce—one that is fast becoming much more diverse—and for connecting with employees via the help of information technology (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Yukl, 1998).

As we have demonstrated in the first chapter, more research is needed in order to understand multicultural management. In short, for us to understand how to best prepare students to become skilled managers within a Master’s program in international management, we require further empirical knowledge.

This chapter covers a review the literature on two main topics that guided my study, the first dealing with issues of multiculturalism for managers and the second providing an introduction to available research guidelines on competence modeling.

Accordingly, we begin the section on multiculturalism with a review of the concept of culture. It will be shown that its inherently complex nature has created many challenges for researchers. Interestingly, new evidence confirms the existence of new hybrid cultural forms emerging in multicultural encounters. The skills used in
such hybrid contexts sometimes reveal valuable insights regarding managerial competence in multicultural settings.

The literature on multicultural competence will then be covered to see if some conclusions can be drawn regarding the required content of graduate university programs. In short, it is assumed that the ability to design an international management program is contingent upon identifying required competencies for this type of manager. Management requirements are expected to span four global contexts, namely at home, abroad, in face-to-face settings or with the use of technology, each illustrating different manager profiles. The typology found in Table 1 was created here to illustrate the four contexts comprised in international management and their corresponding manager profiles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Face-to-face Settings</th>
<th>At Home</th>
<th>Abroad</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Profile #1: Domestic Manager</td>
<td>Profile #2: International Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the use of technology</td>
<td>Profile #3: Domestic Virtual Manager</td>
<td>Profile #4: Distance Virtual Manager</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next main section of this literature review introduces competency modeling (CM) as a methodological framework. The reader will soon discover that, despite a wide spectrum of available choices for competence research foci- ranging from person-centered competencies to general areas of competence- the methodological choice for this study was guided by the exigency of the management education context. In sum, this section introduces the CM literature that informs the research design used for the creation of a typology of MMC, a design revolving around the general areas of competence required by managers working with a multicultural workforce.
1. MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE

Let's look at a variety of cultural issues that affect the study of multicultural managerial competence and that render its identification highly complex, resulting in syntheses of empirical studies that are inconsistent in their interpretation (Sackmann, 1997).

1.1 Understanding the complexity of culture

Indeed, part of the problem with the lack of specific multicultural management tools might stem from fundamentally diverse definitions of culture, where several definitions covering a wide spectrum of elements are available. For instance, Hofstede (1985), a highly-respected pioneer, defined culture as the prevalent value systems transferred to children from their parents, values that direct people's feelings about good and evil, and inform their opinions about how things should be. Similarly, culture is sometimes seen as a set of components such as truth, basic beliefs, basic values, the logic employed, and the resulting decision rules (Aharoni & Burton, 1994). Culture can also be defined as the way a group of people solves problems and how they reconcile dilemmas (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). The latter definition adds a dynamic component to the notion of culture thereby hinting at the complex and potentially adaptive nature of multicultural interactions. Perhaps the reality of what culture really is combines both a stable component comprising permanent content along with a dynamic layer identified as an adaptive process, one presumably capable of developing hybrid forms.

The chosen definition for this study is Hofstede's (1997) more holistic definition, namely that culture is a form of mental programming or a "software of the mind" grounded in such sources as traits, layers, and symbols. Accordingly, we each look at the world from our own perspective, namely from the "windows of our cultural home" (Hofstede, 1997).
1.2 The culture-specific versus culture-general debate

Within multicultural research, we note an ensuing debate over whether the world is comprised of a mosaic of different cultures- grounded in different fundamental values and dimensions- or instead converging towards a more universal *melting pot* of cultural values and norms. Hence, the divergence–convergence dialectic.

1.2.1 Cultural specificity

Proponents of cultural divergence, who believe that cultures are fundamentally unique, gravitate towards the first camp, namely the *emic* view, where constructs *endemic* to a given culture gain meaning from the context in which they are found. These constructs cannot be fully understood when removed from their contextual interpretations (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Consequently, many argue for cultural specificity in research as they seek to understand dimensions they consider fairly unique to some cultures (Bollinger & Hofstede, 1987; Hall, 1976; Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000; Hofstede, 1985, 1994; 1997; Søndergarrd *et al.*, 2004; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Indeed, understanding national-level cultural norms and values is important as it enables people to determine what features of the social environment to attend to (Earley & Gardner, 2005). Crucial information is gained from an in-depth understanding of- and adaptation to- these dimensions. Of course, memorizing extensive laundry lists of cultural norms might prove to be an overwhelming challenge (Thomas & Inkson, 2005).

Given that studies related to culture-specific dimensions aim at decreasing uncertainty for the manager working in multicultural settings, the question remains as to whether this type of knowledge is sufficient, appropriate, or even useful to managers. Are such dimensions truly generalizable to all- or even to most-
individuals of a given culture? Indeed, social interaction models associated with national culture have been criticized as they do not necessarily predict individual behavior (Bailey, 2004; Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008; Joly, 1990; Thomas & Inkson, 2005). Others argue that such dimensions are merely stereotypes potentially hiding important within-country variations. In sum, they can prove harmful for individual-level management (Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Dalton, Ernst, Deal, & Leslie, 2002; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008).

The aim here is not to discredit the role of culture-specific dimensions as they remain a strong basis for cultural knowledge and provide a starting point for anticipating behaviour (Thomas & Inkson, 2005). Instead, if managers are to be successful in different settings combining people from many cultures at once, it stands to reason that they require a wider ensemble of generic transferable competencies applicable to various cultural mixes.

1.2.2 In search of universal rules

Some believe in a convergent reality where some universal rules are likely to apply. They tend to side with the etic view. It is possible that truly universal rules are very few, yet that some models and approaches can be adapted and applied internationally (Aharoni & Burton, 1994). Part of the problem is that there has been less intercultural research from this perspective. In fact, fallacies inherent in many so-called ‘universal’ American management theories pretending to be applicable on a global scale have been outlined (Bollinger & Hofstede, 1987). Perhaps the conclusion is that even though existing management theories do not apply everywhere, this does not mean that there are no universal managerial competencies.

It is believed that effective intercultural training needs to converge towards more homogeneous global cultural skills (Søndergaard et al., 2004). In fact, it is an illusion to believe that other cultures will converge their values, attitudes, and ways of doing business toward a single country’s national patterns. Instead, organizational
cultures must be created to focus on inclusiveness of all members (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). This might be best achieved via a set of skills that apply to multiple contexts with the potential for generalizability across cultures (Usunier, 1998).

1.2.3 The hybrid process

In the end, the above-mentioned debate might in fact be moot as some empirical studies instead uncover evidence of hybrid cultures, where increased levels of contact between members of different societies create new common cultural identities. This process results in the emergence of new cultural formations that are common to the parties involved in the interaction (Earley & Singh, 2000; Søndergarrd et al., 2004). Accordingly, hybridization is seen as an active component of cultural change, one that should be closely attended to, where members of different cultures can find something in common, something that is emerging and constantly becoming as a result of their interaction (Søndergarrd et al., 2004).

To summarize, despite the plethora of empirical data identifying culture-specific dimensions, there is a call for transferable multicultural competence. In the end, it was interesting to discover how the hybrid approach explains part of the current multicultural reality.

2. PROFILES OF MULTICULTURAL MANAGERIAL COMPETENCE

Many angles needed to be covered in order to identify a comprehensive list of MMC to be integrated into a Master’s program in international management. Indeed, the reality of the globalized world of business combines different manager profiles. Accordingly, the competency approach guiding this study integrated 4 manager profiles illustrated here in Table 1. More specifically, the MMC sampling grid is two-dimensional, where one axis identifies managerial competencies for a) managers working with a multicultural workforce at home, and/or b) managers working in
various cultures abroad. The other axis identifies competencies for c) managers interacting with a multicultural workforce in face-to-face settings, and d) managers interacting with a multicultural workforce via the use of IT.

At this stage, it was expected that some competencies would be common to more than one management profile while others might be specific to each one. By conceptualizing the study this way, the researcher was able to put together an initial table summarizing the literature for each profile (see Appendix A), literature to be discussed in this upcoming section.

The reader will note that some competency profiles found in the literature are indeed better adapted to specific manager contexts, while others claim to be more general in their ability to cater to managers working in all types of multicultural contexts. It will be shown that, despite their richness in a variety of interpersonal skills, there are very few specific empirical examples of managerial competencies in a multicultural world.

In order to verify whether a preliminary list of competencies can be found, a review of typologies and taxonomies outlining managerial competencies will be carried out. Indeed, there is a wealth of empirical knowledge dealing with management performance so it was deemed essential to verify whether these can provide the required information. However, upon close examination, we discover that existing management literature only briefly acknowledges either the multicultural component of the workforce or the technology imperative.

As well, the literature covering multicultural and global themes will be reviewed. Due to the mostly theoretical and anecdotal nature of this literature, conclusions proved limited in terms of external validity and applicability to the four international management contexts (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004).
Therefore, competency guidelines for dealing with cross-cultural and intercultural interactions, for overall global effectiveness, and finally for working with technology are also reviewed. The reader should note that the latter topic has mostly been researched in terms of virtual teams (VT), sometimes known as global virtual teams (GVT), multinational teams (MNT), or globally distributed work teams (GDWT).

Throughout the multicultural literature, we discover the centrality of relational issues that are continually situated as a main challenge within the larger context of multiculturalism. For instance, based on interviews with 101 global executives about the main lessons learned in global business (see Appendix B), communication and language were named as the biggest challenges regarding the development of global executives (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Indeed, relational issues directly or indirectly permeate most of the lessons mentioned by executives. In this coming section, we will see that many other scholars have reached similar conclusions.

Simultaneously, we pay attention to the actual content of what scholars refer to as a competence in multicultural relations. In fact, we notice that communication activities cover a wide range in scope and breadth. While some scholars merely mention communication as an essential tool to intercultural competence (Alder & Bartholomew, 1992; Mendenhal et al., 1987; Kealey et al., 2006), others go into much more detail regarding the scope of its content (Thomas & Osland, 2004; Vulpe, Kealey, Protheroe, & Macdonald, 2001; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004).

2.1 Managerial Competence

Many studies have dealt with issues of management and leadership competence (Mintzberg, 1975; Mintzberg, 1990; Pettersen & Durivage, 2006; Quinn, 1990; Tett, Gutteman, Bleier & Murphy, 2000; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992; Yukl, 1998). Indeed, empirical research has yielded insightful knowledge on what managers
actually do in the workplace, some having earned the distinction of becoming seminal studies in their field. However, despite the pertinence of the roles and skills identified in this research, few even allude to the multicultural fabric of the workforce and the corresponding exigencies.

Without directly identifying issues of multiculturalism, Quinn's (1990) competing values framework highlights aspects of management competence that might prove valuable for our purposes. Indeed, the complex and paradoxical nature of managers' roles, along with their corresponding key competencies, provide general categories that illustrate some of the opposing forces likely to be at play in a multicultural workplace. In other words, we learn that managers are called upon to display a high level of behavioral complexity calling for a wide repertoire of skills, sometimes situated at opposite end of the spectrum (Quinn, 1990). Such paradoxical management situations are likely to occur when working with people of different cultures as well. Having already learned that managers, under continuous pressure to act, are not the careful planners that we expected them to be, we now see that the ability to deal with these pressures requires a repertoire of competing skills (Mintzberg, 1975; Quinn, 1990).

Similar conclusions could be reached about Pettersen and Durivage's (2006) selection criteria for positions in management. Indeed, the 23 criteria outlining ten areas of competence might prove relevant to the management of a multicultural workforce. In fact, one would expect that this detailed typology combining operational management activities along with decision-making, team management and interpersonal relations and influence likely applies to a variety of managerial contexts. However, the typology was not designed with a multicultural workforce in mind and so does not directly integrate issues of culture.

In sum, a criticism of general management typologies is that, despite offering detailed descriptions of the manager's job, roles and required skills, they do not take
under consideration the reality of the multicultural workforce. Consequently, actual skills or behaviors for multicultural management remain unidentified. Perhaps the fact that data collection for many seminal studies took place before the business world had been globally transformed explains this apparent lack of interest in multiculturalism. In short, results are usually North American centric and need to be expanded to a wider spectrum.

Some studies have noted the transformational nature of organizations. For instance, Yukl (1998) argues that globalization will increase the need for working with a multicultural workforce. Thus the need for additional empathy, diplomacy, and cultural sensitivity, skills grounded in understanding others’ values, beliefs, and attitudes. Such elements will likely prove to be requirements for us but will probably not be sufficient for the creation of a program in international management.

In their hyperdimensional taxonomy of managerial competencies, derived from 12 taxonomies, Tett et al. (2000) do in fact acknowledge the cultural dimension of the organization. More specifically, their proposed taxonomy includes an attitude labeled ‘Open Mindedness’, a competency composed of tolerance, adaptability, creative thinking, and cultural appreciation. Again, though limited in its scope, and in its ability to point to specific managerial behaviors, it hints at a component of management that had previously been ignored in the literature.

It is safe to say that the managerial problem outlined in the previous chapter, the one pointing to a lack of knowledge about international management curricula, derives from an area of the research that still needs to be further explored. We will therefore turn our attention to literature dealing specifically with issues of multiculturalism to investigate whether we know more about the needed managerial competencies.
2.2 Competence for multicultural management at home

A key manager profile is the domestic manager who works at home and who is called upon to possess the requisite competencies for managing a local multicultural workforce (Avery & Thomas, 2004). Due to the impact of immigration, even managers who remain in one country throughout their careers will need to be aware of cultural differences (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004).

There is a paucity of research for this managerial context, perhaps because managing a multicultural workforce at home is believed to be less of a challenge than doing so abroad. The more familiar situation of domestic workplace diversity, as often seen in the US, is expected to provide a common culture and offer a shared point of reference for both majority and minority groups (Kealey, et al., 2006).

Another reason for the lack of emphasis on domestic management might be that those working with a local workforce are not perceived as being privy to experiences fostering multicultural competence. Considering the transformational nature of the emotional and intellectual competencies required for cultural adaptability, perhaps multicultural lessons cannot be learned without expatriation (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Clearly, whether these lessons can be learned at home or not is extraneous to our main argument that they should be used in this context. Indeed, although global and domestic assignments remain different, some argue that they are becoming more and more similar, thus concluding that we are all global (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002).

2.2.1 Managing diversity

In order to learn about multiculturalism at home, one might begin by looking at studies on diversity, a wider concept that also includes observable attributes such as race, age, or gender, as well as underlying attributes such as education, technical abilities, and socioeconomic background. It appears warranted to study research on
diversity since study findings indicate that a significant factor linking diversity to performance seems to be employees’ competence in dealing with diversity-related issues (Avery & Thomas, 2004). In sum, it stands to reason that for effective multicultural management, racial and cultural diversity should be well managed.

When looking at guidelines for managing diversity, we find general criteria that inform our ultimate list of competencies. As such, being skilled means to understand without judging, to see people as individuals and not necessarily as members of a group, to understand our own use of stereotypes, and to make a personal and professional case for diversity (Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996). Even though these guidelines are likely limited given the scope of the management challenge, they offer a valid starting point.

2.2.2 Cultural intelligence

Another framework that could be applicable to the domestic manager is the concept of cultural intelligence, also known as the CQ approach (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Thomas & Inkson, 2005). Indeed, CQ appears to respond directly to a current international management exigency where global managers must display the flexibility to adapt to novel cultural situations (Thomas & Inkson, 2005).

For our purposes, CQ’s focus on cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational facets points to personal qualities that have yet to be empirically outlined. However, the aspect of CQ that is most useful for our purposes is the facet focusing on behavior. Indeed, it is argued that it is not sufficient simply to know how to do something (cognition and metacognition), nor is it enough to have the perseverance to invest the required level of effort (motivation). High CQ individuals must also possess competent responses in their behavioral repertoire (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Peterson, 2004). Identifying a comprehensive repertoire of these specific behaviors is the goal of this study.
In sum, the literature offers conceptual guidelines for displaying multicultural competence while managing a multicultural workforce at home. However, despite the relevance of this manager profile, there is very little empirical evidence dealing with specific multicultural competencies required for domestic managers.

2.3 Competence for multicultural management abroad

Extant literature argues for managers to possess abilities enabling them to display competence in global business contexts abroad (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Avery & Thomas, 2004; Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Petersen, 2004; Finger & Katheoefer, 2005; Graf & Harland, 2005; Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kealey, 2001; Kealey et al. 2003; 2006; Rollier & Nielsen, 2004; Vulpe et al., 2001; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Thus, in order to outline a comprehensive list of multicultural competencies, it behooved us to look more closely at studies identifying competencies for expatriates, for displaying intercultural sensitivity, intercultural competence, and skills for cross-cultural adaptation. Again, the centrality of relational skills will be emphasized.

2.3.1 Expatriate competency

In terms of intercultural success for expatriates, most research has been aimed at increasing control and decreasing uncertainty thereby yielding lists of culture-specific skills (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Given that many managers will be called upon to work in foreign countries as expatriates, knowledge of such skills must be available in order to enable expatriates to anticipate problems that are unique to overseas employees (Mendenhall et al., 1987; Rollier & Nielsen, 2004).

Nevertheless, although knowledge about these issues is certainly most valuable, it is likely insufficient for managing a multicultural international workforce. Indeed, many scholars admonish such lists or recipes because these often provide only one solution that purports to resolve situations fairly easily. Instead, caution should be used
with the application of culture-specific tools that remain societal-level stereotypes as such skills may either prove helpful or perhaps even disastrous for the global manager (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Dalton et al., 2002). In the end, international managers who are called upon to travel to many different countries should be skilled at working with many cultures simultaneously (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992).

Kealey et al. (2006) claim that this challenge is manageable as there is no need for global supermanagers. Instead, organizations have to focus on two imperatives, namely readying the people and readying the organization. Even though this essay focuses mainly on the former category, it is worth noting that poorly managed organizational issues cannot be compensated by excellence in individual competencies. Clearly, success in international projects is contingent upon a combination of both individual and organizational requirements (Kealey et al., 2006). The question remains as to what ensemble of competencies ready the people for multicultural managerial effectiveness.

McClelland, a pioneer in competence research, identified cross-cultural interpersonal sensitivity as a competency that differentiates superior information officers in the Foreign Service (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In this case, the competency is defined as a) hearing what people from a foreign culture are really saying, b) knowing what they really mean, and c) having the ability to predict how they will react. One could expect that such relational abilities will play a central role in managerial contexts as well.

Other authors provide further insights regarding the centrality of relation skills and global competence for management expatriate, namely issues of mindful communication and of competence for successful expatriate adaptation (Bird & Osland, 2004; Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett, 2004; Thomas & Osland, 2004; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). In their handbook of global management, Lane et al. (2004) explored international management questions in terms of portraying the
complexity of managing globally in a nonlinear, systemic form. This lead them to outline a core set of competencies organized in a hierarchy according to building blocks of global competencies.

The hierarchical level that is of interest to us is labeled interpersonal skills, one that combines issues of mindful communication as well as those related to creating and building trust (Thomas & Osland, 2004). For mindful communication to occur, which they refer to as grounding or common understanding, two components are crucial, namely ‘knowledge of the culture’ and ‘communication skills’. Here, knowledge of the culture doesn’t call for a memorization of cultural patterns but instead points to the importance of cultural knowledge and sensitivity required by managers in order to understand the habitual verbal, nonverbal messages, and interaction styles they observe. Thus what is emphasized is an understanding of the communication process itself.

In short, some of the available models for expatriate training provide useful information as to the nature of the process leading to multicultural competence, both in terms of desired outcomes as well as regarding the interpersonal and identity skills that lead to such outcomes. For our research purposes, Kealey’s (2001) model is the most comprehensive for cross-cultural effectiveness. Despite having resulted from research on expatriates only, as well as in contexts not necessarily linked to management, one expects that many of these skills will resurface in the four contexts included in multicultural managerial competence.

2.3.2 Intercultural competencies

Responding to the exigency of establishing the profile of the interculturally effective person, Vulpe et al., (2001) identify an inventory of key behavior-based indicators, a model they subsequently revised and fine-tuned to broaden the knowledge of competencies for those involved in international projects (Kealey et al., 2006). Indeed, these authors present a macroscopic ensemble of competencies by
outlining a comprehensive list of knowledge, skills, and attitudes according to nine major competencies (see Appendix C).

Accordingly, their work is meant to represent an inventory of competencies that make a person effective in an intercultural context, in other words, someone who lives contentedly and works successfully in another culture. In this case, the focus is placed on observable behaviors that are deemed interculturally effective. The authors warn that the resulting inventory is inevitably idealistic, where any one person who would possess all qualities would likely be super-human. As well, while their list covers a broad scope of issues regarding intercultural effectiveness, it is worth noting that of the nine components, only one deals with culture-specific knowledge. The profile of the interculturally effective person is therefore likely to cover various multicultural settings.

Regarding the preparation of top managers for international projects, international management skills are emphasized. These are defined as the willingness to contribute to meeting the organizational and environmental managerial challenges (Kealey et al., 2006). Here, these authors acknowledge the importance of management competence, albeit very succinctly, by addressing issues of goal accomplishment and public relations.

Furthermore, Kealey et al.’s (2006) extensive work with expatriates enables them to identify the most frequent causes of failures in international projects. It is perhaps no surprise to discover that many of such failures are directly associated with the lack of communication, or at least the lack of competent communication in terms of negotiation and consensus building with international partners. It is argued that when prioritizing interpersonal skills, all subsequent international problems become easier to solve.
The conclusion to be reached from our review of the literature on intercultural competence is that Kealey et al.’s (2006) profile of the interculturally effective person provides the most comprehensive list of management-related interpersonal competencies as well as general multicultural-related issues. However, shortcomings regarding the variety of contexts in which the data was collected simply confirm the need for further empirical data.

2.3.3 Competencies for cross-cultural adaptation

Though necessary skills for cross-cultural success have been identified in the literature, some argue that the result is a series of lists that fail to provide conceptual classifications or theoretical frameworks (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Having engaged in thematic clustering according to Kolb’s experiential learning model before empirically validating their typology with managers, these authors claim that their clusters increase the validity of their typology (see Appendix D).

What stands out with this typology is the significant role assigned to interpersonal and communication issues. In other words, the competency clusters demonstrates that cross-cultural adaptation is mainly a relational challenge, with all five main learning skill dimensions displaying a link to this concept.

In sum, both the profile of the interculturally effective person as well as the model for cross-cultural adaptation for expatriates provide a useful repertoire of skills likely to resurface as components of MMC. In fact, upon close examination, it appears that both of these models overlap, thus showing equivalencies, a reality that makes sense since Yamazaki & Kayes (2004) reviewed some of Kealey’s earlier studies in their exhaustive literature review. Still, there is very little knowledge directly related to management purposes.
2.4 Competence for multicultural management via the use of technology

A major enabling factor of internationalization has been information technology (IT), as computerized telecommunications enable firms to control operations at dispersed sites and break down time and location barriers (Rollier & Nielsen, 2004). Technology is acknowledged as omnipresent in the global movement, where globalization cannot happen without people collaborating through the use of IT (Osland, et al., 2004). Consequently, we know that managers will increasingly be called upon to work with a multicultural workforce via various technological tools and will need to develop competencies enabling them to do so successfully.

Accordingly, a great deal of research related to the use of IT has taken place within virtual teams, sometimes referred to global virtual teams, multinational teams, or globally distributed work teams. From the outset, the different labels appear to differ much more in terms of semantics than in terms of actual meaning—save perhaps for the issue of the multicultural nature of group members not necessarily integrated in the definition of virtual teams.

Therefore let’s begin with a few definitions:

1. VT: a group of people who work independently with a shared purpose across space, time, and organization boundaries using technology (Lipnack & Stamps, 1997, p. 18).

2. MNT: teams composed of members from multiple nationalities, who are interdependent of one another and thus who are accountable to each other for the accomplishment of tasks and goals (Earley & Gardner, 2005).

3. GVT: work teams that are internationally distributed, culturally diverse, and geographically dispersed (Shachaf, 2005).

4. GDWT: a team whose members are distributed across global distances (Kumar et al., 2005).

For the sake of this paper, unless otherwise indicated due to the distinct nature of a particular study, the global virtual team label will be used as it is inclusive of all
other concepts. Moreover, it will be shown that this new form of team has warranted the publication of many practitioner-oriented literature on team management and leadership, literature that so far lacks cohesiveness and remains mostly theoretical, anecdotal, or based on domestic samples (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005). As well, given the fact that most studies are contextualized within teamwork, which adds a different imperative due to the team factor, little empirical knowledge is available regarding what makes managers competent when using technology with a multicultural workforce. Nonetheless, it appears warranted to look at how cultural diversity has been studied in global virtual teams (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999).

As with international projects in general, it appears that success rates for such teams are low. Many reasons have been offered to explain these disappointing results, issues of culture and technology being hailed as potentially central to the challenge. More specifically, some consider the possible influence of cultural differences on team members' communication behaviors by seeking to determine whether cultural diversity is in fact diluted, unaffected, or amplified in a virtual context versus a face-to-face one (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). For instance, it was found that nonnative language speakers are likely to participate less in technology-mediated interaction as well as to do so using different verbal and nonverbal styles, a reality that is likely to affect the quality of the communication process (Shachaf, 2005).

All the same, rather than adding a chronic problem, some believe that global virtual teams structures offer an opportunity to embrace cultural diversity via competent communication. Thus competence might better enable group members to profit from the many different cultural qualities that characterize this type of work structure (O’Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994; Grimshaw & Kwok, 1998). Accordingly, it is argued that well-managed cultural diversity in a virtual team can be a definite competitive advantage (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001). Indeed, cultural diversity has been shown to improve group performance due to its ability to increase creativity, to improve both the quantity and quality of ideas, and to decrease
groupthink (Shachaf, 2005). In short, the increased effort required for multicultural members to understand each other's arguments—along with their heterogeneous nature—may lead to better ideas, solutions, and decisions, and consequently to a higher productivity level. Consequently, it seems warranted to include global virtual teams in an organizational structure.

A review of the literature highlights some multicultural issues related to the use of technology in global virtual teams, including communication, trust, group structure, the impact of technology, and leadership. Since most studies are conceptual in nature—with only a handful having been tested empirically—many of these arguments have yet to be proven.

2.4.1 Communication in global virtual teams

It is argued that extensive use of computer-mediated communication increases the importance of the relational process. Indeed, communication becomes key to social interactions between team members, a topic which ranks the highest in terms of "hot" areas in virtual teams research (Schiller & Mandviwalla, 2007). To be sure, communicating with people from other cultures can be a highly daunting task, and doing so can be even more challenging when using online media (Wankel & DeFillippi, 2004). In other words, potentially problematic issues related to language and culture are likely to be exacerbated by the use of technology (Søndergaard, et al., 2004). However, there appears to be a lag effect in the application of theory on issues of globalization, of multiculturalism, and of multi-linguistics, especially as they apply to the reality of the business environment (Schiller & Mandviwalla, 2007).

Given the reality that different cultural groups are often represented within virtual teams, many believe that understanding the relational and behavioral patterns guiding people from different cultures becomes all the more crucial. In fact, the potential consequences of ignoring culture-specific norms in global virtual teams are highly problematic (O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994). The impact of four
communication issues, namely language, context, equality and power, and finally media richness and rate of information flow. Let's examine these issues one by one.

When looking at language use in virtual teams, we need to reflect on the agreed-upon structure, vocabulary, and meaning of written and oral communication, including the specialized dialects and jargon used in the group (O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994). The lean nature of many modes of asynchronous communication—due to the absence of the nonverbal component—dictates that global virtual team members place more emphasis on the words themselves (Cramton, 2001). Being well versed in the language of choice, including understanding the subtleties therein, is a fundamental skill that only native speakers possess thus putting non-native speakers at a disadvantage.

When discussing context, there are elements that surround and give meaning to a communication event (O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994). For example, a low-context culture assigns meaning based on the specific words while a high-context culture attributes meaning based on a more subjective interpretation of the entire context of communication therefore making context one of the more important cultural variables for virtual teams (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001; Hall, 1976). Indeed, people from high-context cultures prefer sharing more historical information and subjective opinions such as members' backgrounds along with the history of the relationship. Seemingly, this is in clear opposition to the preference of people from low-context cultures who seem more comfortable with "fact-based" information.

In her empirical study in a low-context culture, Cramton (2001) observed that the lack of contextual information surfaces as an importance constraint in global virtual teams, where members find it difficult to guess which of the many features of their own contexts differed from those of remote partners. Ultimately, this lack of "mental maps" sometimes hinders information sharing and the establishment of mutual knowledge. In the end, future research might show that members from low-
context cultures are better able to function with the use of lean asynchronous technology, though they might still experience a certain level of discomfort. Conversely, people from high-context cultures may prove to be more at ease using rich synchronous modes of communication (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001).

In their quest to identify "best practices" with relation to self-efficacy, Staples and Webster (2007) found that, since communication is more important in global virtual teams, members must work hard to keep communication lines open. Their data suggests that this is accomplished by using electronic communication tools that make up for the lack of face-to-face interaction and enable informal interactions.

Based on Hofstede's (1985) concept of power distance, or the degree of members' acceptability with regards to power differences, it is believed that varying expectations about leadership styles and team leader participation might occur (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001). Whereas managers from low power-distance cultures are likely to seek input from their group members, those from high power-distance countries are expected to make decisions with little or no consultation with their staff members. Furthermore, issues such as whether members should be encouraged to openly challenge team leaders are likely to become all the more sensitive. In other words, understanding when and what to communicate might be as relevant as knowing how to do so.

It is important to look at how messages flow between the people at all levels of the organization (O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994). Getting straight to the point, for instance, is a uniquely Western characteristic. Thus the path and flow of communication can be a great stumbling block. Again, media richness is likely to affect members' satisfaction levels given the technology used by the team. In other words, leaner media might force users to get straight to the point and to share information that would not otherwise have been conveyed (Sproull & Kiesler, 1986).
Finally, regarding information exchange rate, it is said that members must be responsive, quickly responding to electronic or phone messages pointing to expectations of an increased rate of responses with computer-mediated technology (Staples & Webster, 2007).

2.4.2 Trust in global virtual teams

Trust in has received a good deal of attention by researchers because “trust is pivotal in a global virtual team to reduce the high levels of uncertainty endemic to the global and technological based environment” (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999).

In an attempt to measure trust in global virtual teams, Jarvenpaa and Leidner (1999) compared individuals from collectivistic cultures to those from individualistic cultures expecting diversity in cultural and geographic backgrounds to challenge the existence of trust. However, they were surprised to observe the lack of cultural effects. Indeed culture was not seen as significant in predicting trust levels, perhaps because participants were the same age and from similar social and educational backgrounds.

Moreover, the results of this study yielded information on communication behaviors that facilitate trust, namely the use of 1) social communication, 2) communication conveying enthusiasm, 3) coping with technical and task uncertainty, 4) individual initiative, 5) predictable communication, 6) substantive and timely response, and 7) effective leadership.

2.4.3 Team structure

As mentioned earlier, despite the paucity of empirical research on the impact of cultural differences on virtual teams, some scholars look at teams’ global and thus inherent multicultural nature along with its impact on team structure (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Accordingly, some focus on an examination of the potential complexity associated with combining members from different functional and
organizational cultures as well as from different national cultures, while others focus on issues involved with the team’s structure itself (Duarte & Tennant Snyder, 2001; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Osland et al., 2004). Seemingly, there appears to be an agreement that the very nature of this work structure implies that group members will have to learn multicultural skills in order to perform effectively (O’Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994). However, the lack of empirical data makes this conclusion ambiguous at best in terms of the type of multicultural training needed.

In terms of structure, an empirical study observed whether team heterogeneity had an impact on team functioning and performance (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). It was found that the relationship between heterogeneity and team performance is in fact curvilinear, where highly homogeneous as well as highly heterogeneous teams perform effectively, with the performance of the latter continuing to improve over time. Moreover, while the results for the former group were arguably to be expected, the ones related to the latter group were probably related to the creation of a common or hybrid identity in the heterogeneous teams (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). Thus it is likely that the competent use of skills in a multicultural setting facilitates a hybrid culture and favors high levels of performance. Søndergarrd et al. (2004) also reached similar conclusions by observing that technology might in fact contribute to a culture of hybridization where playful and informal use of IT results in the emergence of new common identities.

2.4.4 Impact of technology on mediating culture

Other researchers have turned their attention to the impact of technology itself in terms of its ability to mediate group effectiveness in multicultural settings (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999, Shachaf, 2005; Søndergarrd et al., 2004). For instance, Søndergarrd et al. (2004) believe that the use of synchronous technology may have put second language speakers at a disadvantage, leading them to wonder about what gets lost if English is a given as a common language on the Internet.
Similarly, Shachaf (2005) sought to discover members’ perception of the influence of email on intercultural communication and to understand how the use of email mitigates or amplifies the impact of cultural differences on team effectiveness. She discovered that the lack of nonverbal and social cues might potentially result in a reduction of miscommunication in intercultural settings.

Similarly, it is believe that the increased amount of time available with asynchronous technology enables users to process messages and to respond at a rate decreasing language errors (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Others go a bit farther and argue that it is important to combine a synchronous and asynchronous collaboration rhythm, where synchronous exchanges favor confidence building, while asynchronous ones allows diverse members to have their own rhythm for processing others’ comments and for their own idea generation (Malhotra, Majchrzak & Rosen, 2007).

In sum, asynchronous electronically facilitated communication might decrease the importance of culture by diminishing the saliency of cultural differences or of time differences. As such, the use of email can help overcome some of the challenges of in-group diversity and thus might prove to be a very useful medium for cross-cultural communication. As well, the combination of synchronous and asynchronous technology might serve to build confidence in team members and foster the development of new common cultural identities.

2.4.5 Leadership in global virtual teams

Compared to research on management where leadership studies abound, there remain very few empirical studies on leadership in global virtual teams. In this essay, we introduce two empirical studies that have focused on such leaders and highlight the centrality of relational competence, one that looks at leadership competencies and another that offers effective practices for leaders.
Firstly, Joshi and Lazarova's (2005) empirical study of leadership competencies in multinational teams tested for overlap between leader and follower perspectives. Accordingly, they provide a list of competency factors for leaders that cover a comprehensive array of management functions along with specific action points describing these competencies (see Appendix E).

On the one hand, their findings point to a moderate degree of overlap between members and leaders with regards to perception of effective leadership. Chief among them is the competency labeled ‘Direction and goal setting’. As well, ‘Communication’ was confirmed as playing a central role for both groups. ‘Motivating and Inspiring’ also shows similar results, with ‘Facilitating Teamwork’ coming in with slightly weaker but still compatible results.

On the other hand, discrepancies were observed with regards to several competencies. For instance, an interesting difference is the perception of the importance of ‘Managing Cultural Diversity’, which 65% of leaders saw as important while only 5% of members agreed. Due to the crucial debate regarding the need for cultural-specificity in training, one wonders how to explain this discrepancy.

One could argue that when cultural diversity is well managed, members would be less likely to notice anything out of the ordinary as the management style used would be perceived as ‘normal’ according to their culture. Conversely, perhaps only a lack of cultural adaptation might receive much more attention from group members.

Secondly, a leadership study found that leader challenges with global virtual teams are twofold, having to deal with the geographic dispersion on the one hand, and the innovative problem solving on the other (Malhotra, et al., 2007). Geographic dispersion being related to our main focus, it appears warranted to take a look at this study. Indeed, while virtual team leaders share the same responsibilities as those in
collocated teams, they are also face with additional challenges (Malhotra et al., 2007). Indeed, successful leaders also display mentoring skills, enforce norms, and reward members as well as the team. However, they do not possess the power of physical observation and thus need to be creative in setting up structures and processes when motivation is required or when team direction needs to be realigned.

What stands out from an analysis of the practices identified in this study is that they are fundamentally relational in nature. Whether we are looking at the need to communicate group norms regarding the use of communication technology to 1) maintain trust, 2) share information about group diversity by creating a team matrix, or 3) hold virtual all-team get-togethers to keep members engaged and excited, we are mainly addressing relational activities. Even monitoring is based on relational skills, requiring leaders to scrutinize members’ synchronous and asynchronous communication patterns and to make the needed adjustments.

This review of the literature on multiculturalism in global virtual teams confirms that relational issues are not only pervasive, they also intertwined with main areas of research, namely those related to leadership, trust, team structure, and effective use of technology. In the end, some of the tools required might in fact serve an additional purpose beyond enabling teams to communicate, they might even serve to decrease the perception of cultural differences while maintaining the strengths of combining members from diverse backgrounds.

In closing, we have reviewed some of the literature addressing relational components of multicultural competence in managerial contexts. We have shown that, despite a wide variety of depth and scope with regards to the content and applications of relational skills, many studies point to its centrality in effective multicultural work settings. Clearly, one of the gaps to be filled within the scientific literature is the knowledge of MMC from a scientific perspective, using rigorous
methodology to identify specific competencies that make managers effective in the four contexts outlined at the beginning of the paper.

My research question is therefore the following: What are the MMC that enable managers to work with a multicultural workforce at home, abroad, either in face-to-face or in virtual settings?

Ultimately, it was decided that none of the existing theoretical frameworks could serve as a starting point for this study as they don’t cover all the required angles for informing the contents of a program in international management. In other words, this literature cannot do justice to the scope of research purposes outlined here. However, we will later discover many similarities between the MMC typology and the profile of the interculturally effective person (Kealey et al., 2001). Indeed, despite the fact that it was designed for different purposes, namely expatriate applications, it appears there are overlapping behaviors deemed effective to this profile that also apply to various MMC contexts.

In sum, given that available typologies are not comprehensive of the four managerial contexts that have been presented as illustrating the reality of international business, my goal will be to go beyond the knowledge generated by these studies and explore the competencies that will emerge in the four contexts.

In order to proceed with this research, a sound and rigorous scientific methodology was required. Thus in the following section, the reader will be introduced to competence modeling which provided the foundation for conducting this research.
3. COMPETENCE MODELING

3.1 An overview of competency modeling parameters

The use of competence modeling (CM) is becoming widespread and is accepted as a viable research tool due to its capacity to offer a scientifically sound framework for research. Indeed, it is believed that as organizational structures become flatter and more fluid, they will further revolve around individuals instead of focusing on rigid job descriptions (Kierstead, 1998). Competencies will therefore become a more appropriate unit of analysis and a more valuable way to describe work (Schippmann, Ash, Carr, Hesketh, Pearlman, Battista, Eyde, Kehoe & Prien, 2000; Slivinski & Miles, 1997). Accordingly, it is argued that competency-based approaches might even indicate a turning point resulting in a more integrated and more coherent human resource management system (Kierstead, 1998).

Evidently, while some argue that the assumptions of competency models are problematic and have negative consequences, including a perception of the “great person” view of leadership instead of an emphasis on “great results”, others believe that the use of competency models is not only justified, but that it has benefited individuals and organizations alike (Hollenbeck, McCall & Silzer, 2006).

3.1.1 Defining competence

Despite the recent popularity of the competency movement, there remains a lack of a uniform definition for the concept of competence (Cooper, Lawrence, Kierstead, Lynch, & Luce, 1998; Gilbert, 2006; Kierstead, 1998; Slivinski & Miles, 1997; Tardif, 2003). Ultimately, the chosen definition must make sense, meet the organization’s needs, and be used consistently (Kierstead, 1998; Slivinski & Miles, 1997).
Several definitions are found in the literature and serve to guide different research approaches to CM. Some scholars define competence according to underlying personal characteristics (Boyatzis, 1982; Lévy-Leboyer, 1996; Slivinski & Miles, 1997; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). As we will see in the following section, given that our goal of identifying a typology for training applications, such definitions are deemed inappropriate.

Instead of conceptualizing competencies as abstract psychological constructs, other scholars argue that competencies must be a combination of observable behaviors that can be identified without inferences (Pettersen, 2006; Tett, Guterman, Bleier, & Murphy, 2000). These behaviors are then grouped along a central theme, namely the competency category. Thus given the purposes of this study, the definition that will be used is the following: A competency is an ability demonstrated through an ensemble of observable behaviors attributable to the individual that contribute to organizational performance.

3.1.2 Competence Modeling

The choice between extant competence modeling methodologies is also riddled with complexity. Indeed, due to the differences in their underlying objectives, either on identifying underlying personal characteristics or on behavioral aspects, different perspectives have been used in the elaboration of competence typologies.

Indeed, available typologies are either more person-centered, focusing on aptitudes, skills, personality traits, interests and style, while others deal with more general areas of competence. In the following section, we will see how the research question for this study directs our choice to the second option, namely an approach grounded in general areas of competence.

3.1.2.1 Industrial and Organizational (I/O) Psychologists. A review of the different research approaches in CM indicates that the focus for I/O Psychologists has been
placed mainly on person-related characteristics. This research focuses on a) people's individual differences (in other words on their intellect along with their sensory and psychomotor abilities underlying intellectual functioning), and b) individuals' knowledge and skills (KS), and abilities and others (AO's). Harvey (1991) claims that while KS are defined as observable job behaviors, AO requirements are often explained in terms of abstract hypothetical constructs (e.g., cognitive ability, dominance, introversion, leadership). As such, the I/O approach encompasses a wide spectrum of person-related characteristics, some that can be learned and some that are more stable and enduring.

McClelland opened the discussion on how to test for competency by identifying variables that predict performance not related to intelligence, nor biased by race, gender, or socioeconomic factors (Boyatzis, 1982; Felice, 1998; Kierstead, 1998; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). His goal was to identify specific thoughts and behaviors causally related to successful outcomes by comparing superior performers to less successful ones. Subsequently, Boyatzis (1982) expanded McClelland's work and popularized the term "competency" by contextualizing it within managerial work (Felice, 1998). Moreover, Spencer and Spencer (1993) built upon Boyatzis' (1982) study to identify five types of competencies, namely motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge, skill, all of which include intent and action and predict job performance outcomes.

Despite a focus on many personality related aspects, some conclude that organizations tend to select on the basis of visible characteristics (i.e. KS), characteristics that are best secured through training. "Competencies such as interpersonal and political skills distinguish top performers from the rest" (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Consequently, given its ultimate emphasis on training, a focus on visible characteristics (KS) seems to be the best option for my research.
Rather than focusing on competence, some scholars have instead prioritized a different level of analysis, namely on the components of jobs themselves instead of person-related competence (Harvey, 1991). Some of the goals with job analysis are to infer knowledge, skills, aptitudes or abilities, and others (KSAO's) prerequisite to satisfactory job performance independent of the personal characteristics of the individual performing this job (Harvey, 1991).

The problem with KSAO's is that they cause semantic confusion in job analysis because of fundamental differences between KS and AO's (Harvey, 1991; Pettersen, 2000). Furthermore, Harvey (1991) argues that knowledge (K) is specified directly in terms of observable job behaviors while job skills (S) apply to a present, observable ability to perform a psychomotor act. Conversely, AO's are much more abstract and represent a more stable part of the individual (thus differ in the degree to which they can be altered). This means that while behavior is common to all (KSAO's), the kind of behavior referenced differs sharply. Inferences between KS and job analysis data are of the strong type while those between AO's and job analysis make a larger inferential leap. Hence the reason for decreasing the type of inference by describing job content analysis and focusing on KS (Pettersen, 2000).

Indeed, Pettersen (2000) explains that job analysis is the basis for the content validation process in the development of a research instrument. The process therefore requires that a job be analyzed and described, but only according to observable and verifiable aspects.

In terms of the relevance of my research, it is said that compared to job analysis, competence modeling is more closely linked to business goals and strategies and thus focus better on core competencies. In short, they exhibit greater organizational fit and are more likely to serve as a platform for training and development (Shippmann et al., 2000). However, in order to create a typology that is comprehensive of multicultural management, my goal will be to combine both
approaches, 1) to describe the knowledge and skills related to MMC and 2) to find out what job tasks are required in the four management contexts.

3.1.2.2 Areas of Competence. Despite the industrial and organizational psychologists' widespread focus on person-centered competencies (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993), a review of the literature on management competencies uncovers extant typologies focusing not on individual or person-focused competencies per se, but instead focusing on more general areas of competence. Resulting from knowledge generated by assessment centers—where it is assumed that a great deal of similarity exists in management functions and across organizations and levels of management—this general approach has become the norm for many management and leadership studies. Instead of being focused on person-related characteristics, the resulting dimension categories are broad and generic and reflect clusters of attributes, characteristics, and qualities critical to managerial activities.

This reality has given rise to a generality-specificity debate in the management competence literature. In fact, competencies have to be both specific to the position and generic to a wide ensemble of managers (Tett et al., 2000). Indeed, given the complexity of a manager's role, more detail is required in order to outline managerial competencies. As such, these scholars place a good deal of emphasis on specificity in their “hyperdimensional” taxonomy of managerial competence, a taxonomy aimed at dealing with the complexity of a manager's role. Indeed, they claim that specificity precedes generality in understanding managerial performance, which in turn results in a better measurement strategy (Tett et al., 2000). There are many situations where the distinctions between similar managerial behaviors can be obscured with the generalist approach. Being able to understand unique and specific features of managerial behavior should serve to further training objectives.

All the same, emphasizing specificity does not diminish the importance of using general constructs. Accordingly, the generalist approach possesses the
following strengths, 1) it provides a convenient frame of reference as they serve to organize disparate constructs, 2) it makes the study of behavior seem easy as general constructs are fewer in numbers, 3) it proves important to construct validation and can lead to identification of clusters (Tett et al., 2000).

Conversely, more specificity takes longer to complete, is costlier, and doesn’t allow for the generalization of results. It is thus a more restrictive approach in terms of comparing information across jobs or with regards to the possible range of acceptable performance (Mirabile, 1997). In the end, the level of specificity required depends on usage and must match that which is required for use by the organization (Mirabile, 1997; Shippmann et al., 2000).

Some of the critics against competency typologies centered on general areas of competence claim that this approach results in operational definitions that are too broad and generic. Moreover, Kierstead (1998) explains that the assessment center movement has resulted in a good deal of confusion associated with the difficulty in distinguishing between “areas of competence” and “person-related competencies”, confusion that has fueled the problem of finding an agreed-upon definition for competency. However, Shippmann et al. (2000) argue that the study of areas of competence is “portent of things to come in the realm of competency modeling” (p. 709). The challenge with this study was therefore to insure that MMC highlight general areas of competence (focusing on behaviors and job tasks) while offering enough specificity to be useful for training purposes.

4. CONCLUSION

In order to update the content of a master’s programs in international management, further empirical knowledge on competencies for managing a multicultural workforce was required. Despite extant literature dealing with expatriate issues, little empirical data points to specific areas of competence in multicultural
settings, both at home and abroad, in face-to-face settings as well as with the use of technology.

Most of the literature dealing with multicultural issues has focused on cultural differences thereby offering in-depth knowledge about specific patterns found in various countries. This enlightens our understanding of several key intercultural and cross-cultural dimensions and enhances our ability to interact with people from specific areas of the world. However, little data is available regarding the generic competencies enabling us to simultaneously interact with people from many cultures at once, a current exigency in this age of globalization. Management literature has tackled similar issues from the perspective of diversity, of expatriates, or of virtual teams. Consequently, several relational abilities have been identified as requisites for managing within these contexts.

We argued for the identification of empirical knowledge on managerial competence comprehensive applicable to four current multicultural contexts. Given the complex nature of international business, it is believed that this knowledge will provide valuable insights regarding training for multicultural management.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research strategy for this study falls under the tenets of constructivism, a worldview that seeks to develop subjective meanings (Creswell, 2003). In terms of ontology, this means a relativist stance was favored, where social and experiential constructions depended on the form and content of competence and of their corresponding behavioral indicators as provided by participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Accordingly, I subscribe to an epistemological perspective that is transactional and subjectivist in nature, with findings being continually created during the course of the investigation.

The reader will discover that knowledge was thus created in interaction with participants, where individual reconstructions coalesced around the behaviors that lead to managerial competence in multicultural settings. Knowledge creation continued through the many iterations performed by the researcher. These iterations were required to combine behaviors according to specific competencies. The latter were then grouped together under the banner of the competence categories that add up to the final MMC typology.

Various methodological issues were considered during the elaboration of this study. For instance, since subject-matter experts (SME) from different work contexts in different organizations were involved in the research, it is argued that MMC are not limited to a single skill set of competencies. Due to the variety of managerial profiles included, and of the cultural backgrounds of the people represented in the workforce, the resulting typology reflects many different combinations of competence in multicultural settings. Just as with Mintzberg’s (1975) managerial roles, we don’t seek to argue that each manager should emphasize the same ones. Indeed, the goal was to create a typology as an inclusive inventory of competencies.
for training managers to work in the multicultural contexts outlined earlier in this paper.

1. PHASE ONE: DATA COLLECTION

1.1 Sampling

For this study, a purposeful sampling strategy was used where there was no notion of random sampling to achieve statistical generalizability. Indeed, the sample was built up to enable the researcher to satisfy the needs of the study. By using professional contacts, the researcher sought to recruit potential participants who had worked in multicultural settings.

In order to participate in this study, it was required that managers meet the following sampling criteria. They had to
a) fit at least one of the profiles outlined in Table 1;
b) have authority over people of at least two cultures different from their own, meaning people who either were born in a different country or whose native language is different from the manager’s;
c) have accumulated the equivalent of at least one year of full-time management experience with a multicultural workforce;
d) be of Canadian origin or have worked in a Canadian organization;
e) work in the private sector.

Participants involved a total of 20 mid- to upper-level managers who met the sampling criteria, including Chiefs of Services, Consultants, Directors, an Associate Vice-President, Vice-Presidents, a Chief Information officer and company Presidents (see Appendix F for further participant information). The managers come from 11 organizations representing a total of eight different industries. Managers reported having worked with a cumulative workforce made up of people from up to 50
countries (see Appendix G), with every continent being represented the sample workforce.

Five managers self reported having worked in only one MMC context thus belonging to only one manager profile (e.g international manager). Nine said they worked in two contexts (in different combinations of manager profiles), while six worked in three different MMC contexts. The fact that 15 managers out of 20 reported belonging to more than one profile serves to confirm the complexity of international management and the corresponding need for transferable skills between domestic and international settings, both in person and via the use of technology. In other words, many managers will be expected to work in multiple multicultural contexts.

The only managerial context that was underrepresented in this study is context #3, namely the domestic virtual manager. Perhaps this can be explained by the emphasis placed on face-to-face interactions when located in the same country. Indeed it appears that, whenever possible, managers seek opportunities to work in the same geographic space and interact with members of their workforce in person.

In total, 39 managers profiles were represented in the sample (see Table 2), where only profile #2 and profile #4 yielded additional competencies, specific to their work context.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Number of Multicultural Managerial Competence Profiles</th>
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<tr>
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<td>At Home</td>
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<tr>
<td>Face-to-face settings</td>
<td>Context #1: Domestic Managers (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the use of technology</td>
<td>Context #3: Domestic Virtual Managers (2)</td>
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managerial reality close to that of Université de Sherbrooke's Master's level students. The manager sample included only one woman and 19 men, with a majority having between ten and 20 years of work experience. Moreover, competencies were not expected to simply reflect the traditions of a single organization or industry but were meant to illustrate generic multicultural managerial competence. Given the goal of this study, multiple points of view were required for results to be transferable to a wider spectrum of managerial experiences (see further participant details in Appendix F).

1.2 Data collection

Phase one of the research process involved the participation of 20 managers in individual Behavioral Event Interviews (BEI) and task analysis, each lasting about 60 minutes in length. Five interviews were carried out in person while 15 were done over the telephone. Beyond including questions used to categorize manager profile(s) as well as to record the make-up of the multicultural workforce, the research questionnaire first asked managers to present three critical incidents that have had a positive impact on their work, and three critical incidents that have had a negative impact on their work (see interview questions in Appendix H). Accordingly, the goal was to get managers to provide detailed, blow-by-blow accounts of what they do in their jobs' most critical situations (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

There are many advantages to using the BEI method. Mainly, it offers empirical identification of competencies beyond- or different from- those generated by other data collection methods (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). More specifically, data provides precision about “how” competencies are expressed, offering data showing exactly how performers use competencies to handle tasks or problems. As well, BEI has been found to generate data that is useful for training purposes.
Furthermore, since relevant job skills might take a backseat to critical job incidents, managers were also asked to identify crucial job-related tasks or competencies required for work with a multicultural workforce. Given that behaviors were the only concrete aspects to be discussed, the goal was to define and understand crucial tasks so they could be grouped as areas of competence (Pettersen, 2000).

The research instrument was first pre-tested with a manager who fit the sample profile outlined above so that adjustments to the research questions could be made. For instance, it was suggested that my definition of multicultural be added to the formulation of question #1 so that participants would understand how this term was used here. As well, the order of sub-questions in section #1 was changed (C became E and vice-versa). Finally, guidelines for question #2 were specified to try to eliminate potential confusion for managers who belonged to more than one manager profile.

Subsequently, once participants accepted to participate and consent forms were signed, questions were sent by email and participants were asked to read them in advance so they may prepare answers before the actual interview. Given the nature of MMC, participants were informed that the critical situations and job-related tasks they discussed needed to relate specifically to managerial behaviors required for working with a multicultural workforce. The interviews continued until theoretical saturation was reached. More specifically, we felt that saturation was reached when interviews with the last three participants yielded no new information.

The BEI and tasks were recorded and then transcribed by the researcher. A first version of the transcripts was prepared upon an initial listening of the interview recordings and was finalized after a second listening of the recordings. Both versions of the transcripts were transcribed by the main researcher.
2. PHASE TWO: DATA ANALYSIS

2.1 Thematic or content analysis

As mentioned above, two types of data were collected, namely 1) those resulting from the BEI component of the interviews, and 2) those dealing with crucial tasks and competencies required by managers. Since both sets of data were intertwined in participants' answers (given that they had looked at the questions in advance), these data were combined in the analysis.

In the pre-analysis phase, individual behaviors and tasks were identified as the unit of analysis. These had to be operationalized regarding what indicators to look for when making categorizations (Robson, 2002). Accordingly, Pettersen’s (2006) three-pronged operational definition was used to make the data analysis process more precise. First, competencies needed to be grounded in modifiable aspects of individuals or of their behavior. As mentioned earlier, it would not be judicious to target individuals’ stable characteristics such as personality traits or mental aptitudes. As well, competencies had to be relevant to a managerial role, thus specific to the managerial function under study but generalizable enough to represent the larger population of managers for whom the study is intended. Finally, competencies had to be comprehensive of the ensemble of behaviors that make up the managers’ roles. Therefore all behaviors that are key to a manager’s role in a multicultural context were included.

Data that resulted from phase one of this study were recorded, coded and then analyzed based on the guidelines of thematic or content analysis. Essentially a pattern-recognition tool, content analysis refers to a qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meaning (Patton, 2002).
Given the nature of interviews, three different types of behaviors were shared by managers and thus coded from the transcripts. The first type were behaviors participants outlined while presenting critical incidents (e.g. "I left it up to my team members to decide which technological tools they wanted to use or they were comfortable using, while providing certain parameters.").

The second type were behaviors participants outlined as essential tasks for managing a multicultural workforce (e.g. "When there's a conflict, you deal with it immediately").

Finally, the third type of behaviors were those participants actually displayed during the interview, such as explaining other cultures (e.g. "The other thing you know is the social aspect too, for them it's very big. They like to have dinners, with a lot to drink by the way. For them it's really part of their culture"). This type of behavior was coded from notes taken systematically throughout interviews and from common themes found in the transcripts.

Round one of data coding combined two types of codes, namely descriptive codes and interpretive codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Descriptive codes entail little interpretation, where a class of phenomena is attributed to a segment of text. These codes were attributed to the first two types of above-mentioned behaviors. "Delegates message transmission to cultural mediators" is an example of this type of code.

Interpretive codes, however, require that inferences be made via an interpretation of the content of the text. Such types of codes were attributed to the third category of behaviors, namely those displayed in interaction with the researcher. For example, though participants rarely mentioned the importance of cultural knowledge and for displaying positive regard, they continually illustrated their own
cultural knowledge and positive regard toward foreign cultures, hence the decision to include this type of code in the analysis.

Since large amounts of data were created from the interviews, ATLAS.ti, a text interpretation software package, was used to code transcripts and then cross-reference behaviors according to new competency categories. This yielded a total of 230 pages of quotations illustrating the three types of behaviors outlined above and coded according to new competence labels. ATLAS.ti’s output therefore enabled a comparison of behaviors and guided the creation of new competency categories.

Initially, analytical categories were defined according to a mixed formula, where some existing categories were loosely derived from an existing typology and others emerged from the data (Landry, 1997). Though it was believed that initial competence categories would be derived from Kealey et al.’s (2006) typology, given that it contains the most extensive repertoire of multicultural competencies and behavioral indicators, transcript content ended up deviating too far from its contents, likely due to the lack of management competencies.

It was then decided that another typology had to be used to offer categories that facilitated initial data organization and interpretation. Consequently, by laying out the data and looking for a match with existing typologies, it was discovered that Pettersen and Durivage’s (2006) ‘Inventory and definitions of selection criteria for management positions’ offered the most similarities with study data. Indeed, this typology offered initial categories that most reflected the language used by participants as they outlined competence during the interviews. Therefore, selection criteria from this typology were loosely applied as a starting point for data analysis. The goal was to begin the analysis with these existing categories as a guide, exploring whether they would stand the test in MMC contexts or instead fade into the background and allow some new competencies to emerge. Consequently, competency
themes not found in the typology were noted as exceptions so that new competencies could be identified and labeled.

At last, despite existing overlap between the competencies and behaviors found in Pettersen and Durivage’s (2006) typology and those included in MMC data, it was discovered that though the language used by participants was grounded in the same competencies, actual content proved to be different. One might guess that participants subscribed to more traditional management archetypes but in fact described these in multicultural terms instead.

In the end, given that most behaviors emerging from this study proved to be exceptions to existing managerial competency categories, new ones constantly needed to be created while existing ones were transformed or deleted altogether. In short, had the process begun with a blank slate, the creation of initial analytical categories would have been most complex. Instead, Pettersen and Durivage’s (2006) typology offered a useful canvas for comparison even though their typology was ultimately put aside. The fact that MMC data was grounded in multicultural applications in four different management contexts probably explains the discrepancy with their findings.

Throughout the analysis, several iterations were required yielding categories of competencies that were constantly refined. In the end, after multiple observations of how behaviors were carried out by many managers, pattern codes emerged. Indeed, the MMC typology ended up grouping together new combinations of competencies and corresponding behavioral indicators that emerged from the data itself, distancing themselves from the content of existing typologies.
2.2 Preliminary MMC typology

Categories of competence were then labeled in terms of the competencies it regroups. In turn, these were outlined according to the behavioral indicators that indicate efficient ways in which a competency is manifested (Slivinski & Miles, 1997). Thus in the development of a competency profile, the creation of behavioral indicators in relation to each competency is a critical element. In order to guide the process of creating behavioral indicators, the following guidelines were followed (Slivinski & Miles, 1997):

1. There must be at least four behavioral indicators per competency;
2. Behavioral indicators must describe observable behaviors;
3. Behavioral indicators must be as distinct from each other and as precise as possible;
4. By definition, each behavioral indicator should contain a verb;
5. When possible, both positive and negative indicators were included;
6. Behavioral indicators must cover the entire definition of the competency;
7. There should not be any overlap between behavioral indicators for a competency or between competencies;
8. When defining competencies from a broader perspective, it can be more useful to describe behavioral indicators in more detail from the point of view of the results.

3. PHASE THREE: TYPOLOGY VALIDATION

3.1 Validation

Phase three of this study was first carried out with the help of two management researchers who worked with the main researcher, one of whom specializes in the study of competence for recruitment and selection purposes. Construct validation was the goal of this phase and required an in-depth evaluation of
each of the competence categories, of the competencies themselves, and of their related behavioral indicators. After careful consideration of the description, relevance, and classification of each component of the MMC typology, a consensus was reached amongst all three researchers regarding the content and structure its final version.

Finally, phase three also entailed a content validation exercise. This last phase was carried out with participants who were part of the original study sample. In essence, in addition to receiving a formal ‘thank you’ for having participated in the study, managers were asked to look at the initial MMC typology and indicate 1) whether they felt the behaviors were relevant, and 2) whether they believed some important behaviors were missing from the lists (see Appendix I for Typology Validation document).

In all, eight managers responded with their comments and suggestions for improvement. Though no major changes were mentioned, the wording for one competency was adjusted and further examples of behavioral indicators were added to the final MMC typology. These will be outlined in detail in the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this section, we introduce the MMC typology by outlining five overall MMC competence categories, the corresponding competencies belonging to each category, and the 71 behavioral indicators that make up each of the 12 competencies (see below).

An important criticism outlined in the competency literature is the overly general nature of most management typologies, a reality that is perhaps related to the goal of parsimony (Tett et al., 2000). Accordingly, since the study of managerial behavior is likely to benefit from a greater emphasis on unique features rather than by simply focusing on broad similarities, MMC results are presented here in great detail. By offering specific examples of behaviors corresponding to each competency, this typology can be expected to serve a greater training purpose.

However, the MMC typology serves a guide to be adapted to given situations. As such, it is meant to highlight that it is better to err on the side of caution than to make mistakes one cannot recover from. In other words, the reader will discover that with many MMC competencies, the exact nature or intensity of corresponding behaviors will depend on the situation at hand as well on the cultural make-up of participants, something managers must be able to assess.

For instance, one management aspect participants were emphatic about is the need to invest time in relationship development, both formally and informally, in order to build interpersonal relationships. As a training tool, the MMC typology highlights this need and instructs managers to gauge expectations according to the given situation. Clearly, the actual time requirement will vary by situation, evidently ranging between a few months to a few years, illustrating drastically different
expectations. Moreover, the nature of interactions, either formal or informal, will vary based on the cultural mix of the people involved.

In sum, the typology is a starting point for managing in a multicultural world. How it is applied, which competencies will take center stage, will vary by situation. It remains that managers must be able to display the ensemble of MMC competencies to simultaneously work with people of multiple cultures.

1. **THE MMC TYPOLOGY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPETENCY CATEGORIES</th>
<th>COMPETENCIES</th>
<th>BEHAVIORAL INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| **Trusting Relationships Management** | 1) Demonstrates self-awareness and control | - Displays the capacity and will to explain one’s own culture  
- Demonstrates an understanding of one’s strengths and weaknesses  
- Recognizes one’s mistakes, apologizes, and adapts promptly  
- Acts with modesty, does not take self too seriously  
- Acts with confidence when facing challenges |
| | 2) Displays cultural sensitivity | - Prioritizes listening, observing, and understanding  
- Displays positive regard towards other cultures  
- Avoids generalizations by adapting to individual, situational, and contextual expectations  
- Respects linguistic and nonverbal norms  
- Expects the unexpected |
| | 3) Builds interpersonal relationships | - Demonstrates trust, honesty, transparency, avoids using hidden agendas  
- Invests time in relationship development, both formally and informally  
- Creates an open, collaborative, and respectful climate  
- Builds alliances by focusing on common cultural and linguistic identity  
- Shares one’s work experiences and credentials |
| **Business Management** | 4) Negotiates win/win agreements for joint business projects | - Selects international partners carefully  
- Shows goodwill towards international partners  
- Displays political astuteness when interacting with foreign partners, respects hierarchy  
- Favours the use of logical arguments  
- Brings partners to see they have something to learn  
- Confronts others tactfully, enabling them to maintain face |
| | 5) Plans and organizes overall business projects | - Learns foreign partners’ business practices  
- Explains own organization’s work practices  
- Adapts organizational recruitment practices  
- Selects people judiciously for domestic or foreign assignments  
- Insures mutual understanding of organizational objectives and agendas  
- Provides concrete organizational work plans and deadlines  
- Builds contingency into organizational work plans |
The MMC Typology (continued)

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<tr>
<th>Business Management (continued)</th>
<th>Competencies</th>
<th>Behavioral Indicators</th>
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<tr>
<td>Team Management</td>
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<td>6) Monitors the accomplishment of overall business projects</td>
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<td>- Invests in detailed problem analysis initially to save time later</td>
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<td>- Shows examples of successful practices and solutions</td>
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<td>- Focuses more on results rather than on means, remains open to other ways of doing things</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>- Sets up mutually acceptable control mechanisms for common business projects</td>
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<td>7) Displays multicultural team leadership characteristics</td>
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<td>- Demonstrates acceptance of the global nature of teams</td>
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<td>- Displays enjoyment when working with a multicultural workforce</td>
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<td>- DOES NOT blame problems on multicultural nature of the workforce</td>
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<td>- Engages in tasks that are asked of team members</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Adopts new work methods and roles</td>
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<td>8) Builds relationships within multicultural teams</td>
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<td>- Creates teams by judiciously combining members of different cultures</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Facilitates multicultural understanding and integration among team members</td>
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<td>- Instills a climate of family, includes everyone as members of one's own culture</td>
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<td>- Fosters an enjoyable and respectful team climate</td>
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<td>- Instills a zero-tolerance policy toward lack of multicultural respect within teams</td>
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<td>- Engages the help of cultural mediators within teams</td>
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<td>- Mediates between team members to clarify cultural expectations</td>
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<td>- Manages team conflict promptly</td>
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<td>- Dismisses problem group members</td>
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<td>9) Fosters accomplishment of team tasks</td>
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<td>- Holds regular team communication events, information meetings, and project reviews</td>
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<td>- Articulates a common goal for team members along with clear requisites and deadlines</td>
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<td>- Adopts procedures to facilitate member participation</td>
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<td>- Asks questions to insure clarity, comprehension, and acceptance of ideas by team members</td>
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<td>- Offers coaching and follow-up for team members</td>
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<td>- Establishes guidelines about teams' language use</td>
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<td>- Obtains team consensus by evaluating ideas against organizational requirements</td>
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<td>- Validates and rewards team members' output</td>
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<td>- Celebrates successes with team members</td>
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The MMC Typology (continued)

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<tr>
<th>COMPETENCY CATEGORIES</th>
<th>COMPETENCIES</th>
<th>BEHAVIORAL INDICATORS</th>
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</table>
| Distance Management   | 10) Coordinates geographically dispersed team members | - Brings team members together face-to-face when warranted  
- Optimizes scheduling between geographically dispersed members  
- Engages people at remote sites in all phases of challenging projects  
- Brings cultural mediators to host site  
- Aligns work processes between remote and host sites  
- Evaluates geographically dispersed teams’ output together  
- Taps into the strengths of IT tools when geographically separated from team  
- Accepts team members’ input about their preferred IT tools  
- Ensures compatibility of IT processes and objectives  
- Establishes chain of command for distant communication  
- Adapts to differences in e-message content |
|                       | 11) Coordinates the use of IT tools | |
| Expatriate Management | 12) Adapts when living abroad | - Displays enjoyment when engaging in novel experiences  
- Maintains one’s identity while adopting new cultural norms  
- DOES NOT try to change the local culture  
- Gets involved in foreign community while respecting boundaries  
- Turns things around when faced with unsettling and profound challenges |

1.1 Trusting Relationships Management

There are three competencies found within the first competency category. Together, these competencies illustrate an unequivocal reality, namely that multicultural managerial exigencies not only require that people build trusting relationships, but that these be continually sustained in interaction, albeit at different rates and with varying levels of intensity.

We discover that this category calls for three different competencies: the first mainly related to the self, the second related to views about other cultures, and the third related to the self in interaction with people of other cultures.
1.1.1 *Demonstrating self-awareness and control*

This first competence primarily focuses on the self and highlights the need for managers to carry out five distinct and somewhat paradoxical behaviors. The first one is the ability to *Display the capacity and will to explain one’s own culture*. What this tells us is that not only must they understand their own culture, managers should be willing to explain them.

Displaying the capacity to explain one’s own culture requires that managers understand the foundations and biases that make up the fabric of their own culture, including norms they often perceive as ‘normal’ rather than as cultural choices. Moreover, managers should also be willing to explain various cultural aspects deemed relevant in given business contexts. Essentially, by demonstrating awareness of their own culture, along with its corresponding impact on members of other cultures, managers are in a better position to adjust their own behaviors. For example, one participant who considers his own culture to be fundamentally relaxed and friendly in its approach to management explains that he must be careful not to appear naïve in front of those who see this cultural dimension as a sign of weakness.

As well, cultural knowledge puts managers in a better position to explain similarities or differences whenever relevant in order to facilitate the management of trusting relationships. For instance, during business meetings, most Québécois managers will allow any invited member to speak up or ask questions, a norm in our egalitarian society. As well, to answer a question, our managers will look directly at the person, without consideration of this employee’s title or hierarchical level. Conversely, in many hierarchical cultures, managers will answer questions by addressing only the most senior member in the room. Looking at lower-level employees is simply not done.

Therefore, in order to avoid misunderstandings during a meeting combining members of these cultures, managers will benefit from explaining how things are
done in their own culture so as not to offend others or impede relationship development. In the end, the agreed-upon ‘hybrid’ norms will be negotiated between parties, a process grounded in a more solid mutual understanding of other’s preferences. This fosters understanding between parties and allows for a climate of respect to be established between them.

The second required behavior linked to demonstrating self-awareness and control is the ability to demonstrate an understanding of one’s strengths and weaknesses. Not only does this knowledge enable managers to focus on strengths in relationships with others but perhaps also try and improve their weaknesses.

In other words, when working with people of other cultures, it is important for managers to really know themselves and their impact on others. What are they like when they are happy or when they are uncomfortable or angry? How do they behave when giving out a mandate, when wanting to improve on what someone said, or when wanting to correct them instead? How do they act when they are tired or frustrated? Are these reactions perceived as strengths or weaknesses by others? In the end, the ability to make an honest assessment of self is something that serves to build long-term trusting relationships with others.

With regards to self-awareness and control, the third behavior calls for managers to recognize mistakes, apologize, and adapt promptly. People make mistakes, that’s a reality. Given the wide variety of cultures currently represented in the workplace, given the differences in how individuals subscribe to their home country’s overall cultural norms, and given that managers are merely human, emphasis is placed on learning from mistakes.

In most cases, it is said that people will give you credit for making an effort, even if you do make a mistake. Their ultimate judgement will be based on what you do to recover, to adapt, and to be respectful the next time. It is not uncommon that,
by apologizing and adapting to others’ cultural norms, managers will even improve trusting relationships.

Of course, when members of different cultures are trying to adapt to each other, results are reportedly sometimes highly humorous and can deflate some potential tensions.

“I think most cultures that we have dealt with, most people allow you to make a mistake at least once. It’s what you do to try to recover, to try and adapt, and try and be respectful the next time.”

At the same time, people of other cultures don’t expect a foreign manager to share their exact same cultural experiences, nor do they wish for it. Such fundamental differences are often at the root of choosing to work together on joint projects. One participant emphasized the need not to appear too apologetic about making mistakes, but to be yourself, albeit in a tactful and respectful manner. This is especially true in cultures where managers are expected to be the boss and to act accordingly. However, as a rule, it is best to apologize, adapt, and move on.

To act with modesty and not to take oneself too seriously is the fourth behavioural indicator included in this first competence. In order to build trusting relationships, being unassuming of one’s abilities and remaining humble is a far better approach. Indeed, more than one participant reported having learned this lesson the hard way, namely by appointing a manager who did not act with modesty and who consequently got nowhere fast in a multicultural context. Again, just how modest one should be depends on cultural expectations.

Though it might seem paradoxical, the last behavioural indicator calls for managers to act with confidence when facing challenges, illustrating a certain behavioral complexity required in international management. On the one hand, managers are expected to act with modesty so people are not put off by them. On the other hand, they are expected to display confidence so that we believe in them and
their ability to achieve organizational goals, especially in hierarchical cultures where acting with authority is crucial to getting things done. Though multicultural management is by its very nature riddled with uncertainty, participants are in agreement that there is a fine line between confidence and arrogance, one that they must not cross.

1.1.2 

Displays cultural sensitivity

The second competency outlines the need to display cultural sensitivity toward others, something that has been previously mentioned both in the management as well as in the cross-cultural competence literature (Joshi & Lazarova, 2005; Kealey et al., 2006; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Vulpe et al., 2001; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). This study sheds light on the various requirements to display this competency and offers a list of five corresponding behavioral indicators.

First, managers viewed as culturally sensitive are those who go into a situation and initially prioritize listening, observing, and understanding the other before judging, especially before offering their own views. In other words, they try to make sense of a situation by being courteous and gracious, and by asking questions, even about aspects they find shocking. The goal is to try to get a grasp of the situation before directly getting involved in it.

Clearly, cultural differences can sometimes be surprising or even disturbing. Culturally sensitive people are those who first try to make sense of such differences rather than be disturbed by them and who genuinely try to understand others.

"Not only does it provide you with a certain sensitivity, it gives you a horizon, a context. At the same time, when it shows, and it shows easily, it brings you closer to the person because this person realizes that you are interested in him."

The manager who has listened, observed, and understood is thus in a better position to display positive regard towards other cultures, the second behavioral
indicator illustrating cultural sensitivity. In this case, managers are not only open to differences, they not only accept that things are not the same as they are in their own culture, but they can navigate within multiculturalism by finding advantages to these cultural differences.

During the course of the interviews, participants often emphatically defended differences found in other cultures by offering historical, geographic, or political justifications for them. Transcripts abound with justifications for other cultures’ relational and organizational choices based on historical or geopolitical aspects. Ultimately, managers confessed to really enjoying some cultural norms once they have acculturated them, something that can be manifested in their willingness to participate in less formal cultural events, usually centered on sharing traditional food. In the end, the goal is not to assimilate or disappear into other cultures but to be able to see their positive aspects and to display appreciation for them.

The MCC typology indicates that managers must not only combine cultural understanding with a positive outlook towards other cultures, but they must also avoid generalizations and adapt to individual, situational, and contextual expectations. Indeed, critical incidents include several examples of employees who did not fit cultural molds and whose idiosyncratic work practices managers had to adapt to. The same applies when specific situations and contexts require adaptation, often through ‘trial and error’, as there are no generalized recipes for working with people of other cultures.

A fourth behavioral indicator illustrating cultural sensitivity is the ability to respect linguistic and nonverbal norms in order to establish shared meaning. Indeed, given that managers must be able to function in various linguistic contexts, they should demonstrate an understanding of foreign languages, albeit perhaps at least at a basic level.
This aspect is crucial on many levels. The first one being the most obvious: speaking the same language enables people to understand messages and allows communication between parties. Luckily, since one cannot master all languages, it was also explained that in many cases, simply displaying the willingness to meet others half way may be sufficient, even if it is simply by saying a few words in the other person’s language. Ultimately, as languages often say a lot about cultures in general, learning a foreign language can also enhance overall cultural awareness.

Furthermore, attention should also be paid to the nonverbal behavior component of communication. Since nonverbal norms are not universal, a great deal of attention should be paid to their meaning and interpretation. Clearly, understanding nonverbal communication also becomes all the more crucial in situations when managers’ knowledge of the language is limited. In such cases, picking up on the nonverbal cues can become a crucial alternative.

Though it is impossible for managers to memorize every possible nonverbal alternative or change their own nonverbal norms, multicultural management requires that one make an effort, showing awareness and respect of differences.

“I've been to the Philippines, to Indonesia, to Malaysia, you see the [...] guy in the full wool suit and the buttoned-down shirt and you pick them out as an encyclopedia as a stereotypical businessman. As opposed to those that try to make an effort, short sleeve shirts for example in Singapore or Indonesia”.

Finally, given the complexity of multicultural contexts, managers should expect the unexpected rather than be shocked by it. What this means is that by expecting things to be entirely different, managers are not likely to lose their composure and thus better able to stay calm in the face of adversity, a key element in trusting relationships management.
1.1.3 *Builds interpersonal relationships*

The third competency involves the self in interaction with others. This entails that managers begin by *demonstrating trust, honesty, transparency, and by avoiding hidden agendas*. Since the goal is to manage trusting relationships, managers often have to demonstrate trust first, thereby making an overture inviting others to follow suit. As well, a trusting relationship can only be built on honesty, especially given the long-term nature of many such relationships. Since honesty is assigned to someone based on demonstrated behavior, only a transparent approach can accomplish this goal. One thing is certain, there must not be hidden agendas or trust will not be developed or sustained.

The MMC typology puts the onus on a second behavior, one that calls for *investing time in relationship development, both formally and informally*. Indeed, data confirms that multicultural managers are often called upon to invest a great deal of time in order to build interpersonal relationships with international partners.

One V-P currently working with a partner from China indicated that it has taken them two years to build the interpersonal relationship they required in order to work together. For a North American manager, this can seem like an eternity. However, when competently done, it can lead to highly beneficial long-term relationships.

Furthermore, this requirement can range from time spent in formal business meetings with international partners, to time spent in less formal contexts where, depending on the cultural mix, a great deal of time is often devoted to developing and sustaining informal social relationships. Time spent in long drawn-out informal situations, in many cases over shared meals, can be fairly unusual for Canadian managers:

"With the dinners, it might not seem like working for us but [international partners] need to feel comfortable."
Clearly, depending on the cultural mix, the required amount of time required will vary. It remains up to manager to gauge expectations and adapt to the situation at hand.

The ability to create an open, collaborative, and respectful climate is the third behavioral indicator required to build interpersonal relationships, one that is akin to a basic ability to show respect for people in general. Obviously, people of most cultures appreciate when managers are open to understanding them, to considering their point of view, to joining efforts with them, and to show respect. Indeed, interviews include many examples of managers being open to other ways of doing things, to honestly trying to hear others’ views and to give them credit when they deserve it. Such behaviors set the tone for cooperative climates.

What is perhaps a novelty is the fourth behavioral indicator, namely the need to build alliances by focusing on common cultural and linguistic identity for relationship building. In fact, many managers reported on the importance of building on the similarities in cultural backgrounds and therefore on the compatibility of shared cultural identity. One bilingual (French-English) Quebecker confessed to either making the most of his European ancestry where applicable, of emphasizing his French background when dealing with the French, of building on his membership within the Commonwealth, or even of presenting himself as a North American manager, depending on the international partners’ cultural preferences. In short, emphasizing commonality facilitates the process of building alliances.

Finally, a fifth behavior that varies in importance depending on the national or organizational culture’s level of hierarchy, is the need for sharing one’s work experiences and credentials. In many cases, building interpersonal relationships in a multicultural context is contingent upon opening up and sharing one’s expertise and establishing credibility based on business- and sometimes family- accomplishments. The ability to do so in a way that responds to others’ expectations can make the
difference between managing trusting relationships or not having the opportunity to do so.

1.2 Business Management

The second competency category specifically deals with business management per se. It combines three competencies that cover the negotiation, planning and organizing, and monitoring of business projects often jointly carried out with international partners.

1.2.1 Negotiates win/win agreements for joint business projects

Business management begins with the need to negotiate win/win agreements for joint business projects, either at home or abroad. As one manager explained:

“It’s a long-term relationship [...] we need to make sure that both parties are in a win/win situation that is beneficial for both.”

The first behavioral indicator points to the importance of selecting international partners carefully, which might entail meeting with important local community leaders. Indeed, managers reported the need to look for international partners based on geopolitical context, skill sets, cost-effectiveness and technical capability.

In reality, contractual agreements must respect international partners’ culture. More specifically, negotiations and final agreements have to take under consideration local practices, sometimes at the expense of home office practices. Additionally, since the root cause of failures with international management projects is often grounded in the others’ inability to adapt, selecting partners should also be based on their willingness to adapt to the home office culture.

Once international partners have been selected, then comes time to show goodwill towards international partners in order to be accepted as potential partners.
In order to agree to win/win contracts, managers must gauge the requirements of each multicultural context and often demonstrate their desire to show good faith by being helpful and cooperative. Once joint projects have begun, showing goodwill is often linked to investing more time and expertise into negotiations, thus enabling parties to save time later on. Here is how one participant explained their display of this business management requirement:

“The agreement [...] took well over two years. And in the meantime, some of the things we did for example, to show good faith was, we helped them on other programs that they are developing [...] to really show the goodwill.”

The need to display political astuteness when interacting with foreign partners is also nothing new to management competence. It becomes all the more crucial in international management depending on the political games being played as well as on the significance attributed to organizational hierarchy.

Being politically astute and respecting hierarchical structure ranges from identifying who is in a better position to answer questions to who has the authority to negotiate and make decisions. This even extends to knowing whom to sit next to in a meeting or over supper, and how to interact with them given the context. Timing is another issue. Knowing when to ask questions and when to refrain from doing so becomes a key component in negotiation (e.g. doing so during a public meeting or afterwards in a private setting).

Respecting hierarchy in a technological world also means knowing whom to send e-messages to and whether to include others on the list of carbon copied messages. Not all cultures accept that messages be sent to everyone in the organization, political astuteness enables managers to make judicious choices when using technology as well.
Managers explained that they are often called upon to favor the use of logical arguments, the fourth behavioral indicator on the list. Indeed, logic and factual claims appear to travel well between different cultural mindsets. When managers favor logical arguments, it is easier to find common ground and reach agreements. Here is an example of a persuasive approach:

“We persuaded them but in a logical way. We left them some of the decision. To be honest, given enough time, we were able to get to where it was a kind of logical outcome.”

Rather than going into the negotiation process with international partners by using a persuasive approach as the default, the MMC typology also outlines the need for less forceful tactics. In such cases, managers often favor a more informative tone in order to bring partners to see they have something to learn, thereby letting others make the decision to engage in projects. In other words, it is often more appropriate to frame arguments as questions while specifying the nature of work involved rather than saying ‘we know more than you do so we’ll do it our way’. As well, providing examples of success stories can help others understand what needs to be done and therefore serves to facilitate negotiations.

The last behavioural indicator for this competence is the ability to confront others tactfully enabling them to maintain face. There are many scenarios where this behavior is relevant in negotiation with international partners. Others’ goals are sometimes not realistic, their promises impossible to deliver. They might even try to force their way into business practices deemed unacceptable. The ability to tactfully confront others can range from asking questions to verifying the accuracy of information, to highlighting the problems associated to current plans, to offering far more realistic solutions. Members of certain cultures are big on appearances and on the need to maintain face, yet competent managers willingly, though skilfully, confront them in order to negotiate win/win projects. Clearly, being tactful is a valuable behavior when working with a multicultural workforce.
1.2.2 Plans and organizes overall business projects

Once agreements have been established, managers must go ahead with business projects and begin to plan and organize them. The seven behaviors begin with a focus on understanding others’ practices and on explaining one’s own. Adaptation comes next along with a focus on the people involved and on mutual understanding in order to come up with concrete plans, including potential alternatives. Let’s look at each in more detail.

The first imperative with this competence is to learn foreign partners’ business practices. Given the stakes at hand, it is crucial that managers gain knowledge about partners and become familiar with their favored business practices. They must understand each other’s expectations and business agendas in order to appreciate the benefits and constraints of working together. Indeed, study participants reported doing a great deal of research about international partners in order to work with them. Here is an example of such a strategy:

“I asked for a coach. I asked for a local coach here, somebody to explain to me the organization how it works, with the lines of power, what the challenges were [...]. A guy from the UK has spent many hours with me telling me what works well, what doesn’t work well […], what processes they follow, how rigorous they are, etc.”

Combined with a solid understanding of culture, such knowledge greatly facilitates the planning and organization phases. As well, managers often seek help from organizations with the required expertise, meaning those already involved in joint projects with businesses located in similar cultures. Moreover, it can be valuable to tap into available resources such as trade commissions and industry information, if simply to obtain more general knowledge about specific types of organizations in given cultures.

The second behavior calls for managers to explain own organization’s work practices. Indeed, participants reported that it is important to offer international
partners a better understanding of their own work practices so they understand how our organizations work, how they are structured, how they function.

A better understanding of work practices is also required for workers who just arrived in the organization. In this case, training programs are offered to new employees to help them understand the intricacies of the organization’s work practices and avoid potential problems. In sum, a solid comprehension is deemed essential both for partners and employees.

The next behavioral indicator related to planning and organizing projects reminds managers of the need to adapt organizational recruitment practices. In certain contexts, a great deal of adaptation may be required. Depending on the culture, interview content must be often be modified and some questions must sometimes be adapted or deleted. For instance, applicants from a high-achievement culture cannot be asked how they react when they cannot reach their goals at work. This is a type of question they will not be able to answer because, given their cultural mindsets, they are not allowed not to reach their goals and likely cannot fathom such a concept (or would never admit to it).

Adapting recruitment practices can even go a bit further. For instance, it is not unusual to inform applicants in advance as to what they should include in their resumes. Otherwise, some will turn in 15 page resumes including information not necessarily presented in a logical order, thereby not respecting a North American imperative. Gauging recruitment practices therefore becomes a must.

Investing time and effort in order to select people judiciously for domestic or foreign assignments is also crucial and can prevent problems later on. Sometimes candidates are intelligent and hard working but are simply not suitable given the cultural make-up or expectations of the organizations. In all cases, care must be taken with the selection process especially when comes time to send people abroad where
the stakes can be even higher. Qualified candidates must be selected based on their technical skills, on their social skills, and often on their linguistic skills, all requirements in multicultural contexts.

Chances are, managers won’t necessarily do business only on North American terms or even strictly according to international partners’ terms, hence the importance of the fifth behavior, *insuring mutual understanding of organizational objectives and agendas*. Since managers are in the planning and organization phase, it is crucial that they insure mutual understanding of agreed upon goals along with how these will be carried out. As well, expectations for all partners must be clearly laid out so they are unequivocal.

Participants explained that, when action plans are only presumably agreed upon by everyone, it isn’t surprising to discover that partners are taking off in a completely different direction.

“And we realized very early on that we were talking the same language but we meant very different things. If X and I were going to develop […] then we’d better get on the same page, you know the two sides better be speaking, not just the same language but with the same meaning.”

Not only must mutual understanding be the goal during initial meetings, it must be sustained throughout joint projects, a process often requiring close monitoring.

Once objectives and agendas are clear, MMC typology explains that managers must *provide concrete organizational work plans and deadlines*. The idea with this sixth behavior, is to decrease the chances for misinterpretations.

“One thing that is important, given an increased quantity of multiculturalism […] it is to try and determine a concrete objective that has nothing to do with whether you are Arab, Chinese, Canadian, American, or European.”
Finally, to build contingency into organizational work plans isn’t something new to managers, however the complexity of business environments requires a greater emphasis on this behavior. Perhaps the difference with multicultural contexts is a greater range between ‘A’ plans, ‘B’ plans, and ‘C’ plans, etc., where a wider array of alternatives needs to be entertained from the beginning of business projects.

1.2.3 Monitors the accomplishment of overall business projects

The sixth competency moves us into the monitoring phase of business management to ensure projects get done. Accordingly, one of the behaviors is the necessity to invest in detailed problem analysis initially to save time later. What varies with this behavior is the extent of the time investment, again depending on the projects’ complexity, the stakes at hand, and the cultural mindsets of the people involved in the process. The goal is to take the time to really understand problems and weigh alternatives at the beginning. Put it simply, it is a matter of insuring that the best decisions are taken the first time out of the gate.

Another behavior that serves managers well in term of monitoring the accomplishment of projects is their ability to show examples of successful practices and solutions. This indicator brings to mind the less aggressive persuasive process discussed earlier, where emphasis is placed on bringing others to come to their own conclusions. Here, the rationale is to offer a variety of practices and solutions that have proven successful in order to help partners better visualize how projects can be done.

Showing successful examples is compatible with the next behavior, namely focusing more on results than on means and remaining open to others’ ways of doing things. Given that we are monitoring the accomplishment of overall business goals, emphasis should be placed on results, an aspect managers remain unwavering about when it comes to planning and organizing. However, when it comes to actually carrying out plans, they often need to allow more leeway.
Indeed, multicultural partners’ ways of doing things might prove equally good or better, even if they require additional steps to be carried out. As long as the focus is placed on results and that deadlines are respected, managers admit to benefiting from relinquishing a certain level of control with regards to how things are done. In the end, it appears that others’ methods often are not that different, they are simply conceptualized differently.

The last behavior calls for the need to set up acceptable control mechanisms for common business projects. Once agreements regarding the criteria for control are made between parties, common business projects can get done with the level of quality required by both parties. Sometimes this entails engaging in performance reviews which also must be conducted with cultural sensitivity, if they are used at all. Depending on business partners’ cultural backgrounds, there must be agreement on these elements so business projects can be correctly monitored.

1.3 Team Management

The next three competencies are directly related to the management of teams composed of members from multiple cultural backgrounds. In this case, the required competencies cover three broad areas required in multicultural settings, namely those dealing with 1) leaders themselves, 2) with the social aspects of teams, and 3) the task component of teams.

1.3.1 Displays multicultural team leadership characteristics

This first behavior starts with the need for managers to demonstrate acceptance of the global nature of teams. Indeed, it is well understood that the world of business is fundamentally global, meaning there are specialists in various fields everywhere. Most managers can no longer live strictly in their own backyards, they now work with people from various cultures and do business with the world. One participant explained it in these terms:
"Everything I do, every time I communicate, everything that I govern, every objective that I set, every strategy that I work on, is dealing with a multicultural workforce now."

Managers therefore have to display acceptance of this reality and make the most of what a global talent pool can offer. During the course of this study, most participants reported they not only accepted the fact that their organizations are multicultural, they are grateful for the opportunity to work with such a variety of people.

In fact, what many participants enjoy the most in global work contexts is the people themselves. In essence, it was reported that managers who embrace the global nature of the people and their multicultural backgrounds are the ones who will really do well. This quotation sums it up nicely:

"In my current team, we have got, there's India, because I have somebody on my team who manages India. And eh, I have got obviously Quebec, French Canadian, somebody from Antigua, fairly recently I have had somebody from Maui, and Africa, and then we have got Italians. I'm an Albertan, I started in England, now in Quebec for a long time, seven years, but I was educated in Alberta. My assistant is from Marisha. If you got into my entire team I have got actually Iran, Iraq, it's really fun. It's really really fun."

Demonstrating the required leadership characteristics also means that managers must display enjoyment when working with a multicultural workforce, the second behavior associated with this competence. This calls for more than mere acceptance of the global nature of the workforce, it demands that leaders actually make their enjoyment of this workforce reality known to others.

Accordingly, participants reported using a great deal of humor in interaction with their team members, while remaining careful about not offending anyone. It was explained that as team members get to know them and accept their genuine displays of enjoyment, their manager’s sense of humor becomes contagious. Appropriate use
of humor, which varies between cultures, is therefore a welcomed display of enjoyment.

Given the nature of interview questions, namely positive and negative critical incidents, it was expected that some behaviors leading to negative outcomes would be mentioned. However, it was clear that while recalling negative situations, managers do not blame problems on the multicultural nature of the workforce. In fact, in almost all cases, without being asked to comment on it, managers were careful to point out that problems had nothing to do with the multicultural nature of the workforce, or even with one subordinate’s cultural heritage. Problems were linked to a variety of other issues, not to multiculturalism. Instead, the multicultural nature of the workforce is something hailed as a positive aspect of organizations.

Fourth on the list is to engage in tasks that are asked of team members. Though it is not new, this behavior might offer additional benefits when working with multicultural teams. Indeed, its impact on others in terms of showing commitment to the team does not go unnoticed and can serve to motivate team members to show increased commitment. By engaging in tasks themselves, managers serve as an example for others to follow, something that can be especially beneficial with members of a culture where the leader is expected to set the example. Care must be taken not to be counter-productive with carrying out tasks that are perceived as beneath managers’ levels, especially in highly hierarchical cultures.

Last on the list for this competence is the need to adopt new work methods. Clearly, it is easier for managers to excel either with methods that come more easily to them, with ways of working that they have fine-tuned over the years, or with methods already proven as successful. However, working in a multicultural world means managers sometimes have to leave their comfort zones and be expected to work differently. This can prove highly challenging.
It remains that whatever methods are chosen, these have to match situational, and contextual expectations. Therefore, a wide repertoire of work methods can be required when working with different types of teams made up of members from different cultures, either co-located at home or abroad, or perhaps even geographically dispersed. Evidently, there are times when adopting new methods is more of a stretch than others. It was reported that it is even possible to be required to go against one’s own principles and use methods one would not necessarily want to discuss with colleagues back home.

1.3.2 Builds relationships within multicultural teams

This competency deals with managers’ ability to focus on the development of the social aspect of teams. In order to do so, managers are required to create teams by judiciously combining members of different cultures. In other words, the goal is to create teams by looking at strong talent combinations both in terms of technical, social, and cultural skills. Indeed, competent managers seek to build on various strengths associated to individual and cultural backgrounds while remaining sensitive about issues of compatibility.

When teams combine people of different cultural backgrounds, managers often need to facilitate multicultural understanding and integration among team members. On the one hand, multicultural understanding can be required for minority group members to understand organizational expectations so they can be integrated within teams. Indeed, managers are often required to explain to minority group members how things are done given local and organizational expectations, either in interaction with colleagues, supervisors, suppliers, or even with customers. This way, someone belonging to a minority group can better grasp contextual intricacies and consequently function more easily with the team. On the other hand, multicultural understanding can be needed for majority group members so they better understand and accept colleagues whose cultures are different from their own. In both cases, opening the communication lines seems to work best.
Many examples were provided where understanding was enhanced for majority group members. For instance, a manager who provides one of her Muslim employees the use of a designated office space for his daily prayers emphasized that he should be discreet about carrying out this ritual, but also asked him to be open about answering questions should his colleagues wonder about this practice. This approach has yielded such positive results that when consulted about whether they want to work with members of other cultures, often in supervisory positions, her employees continually respond with a resounding yes. In conclusion, learning can foster acceptance, especially when promoted by team managers.

In turn, such explicit integration of minority team members can also be required to facilitate acceptance by the organization's customers. One such example was provided where, in a small community, employees were encouraged to share the credentials and expertise of a minority group member with their customers in order to facilitate his integration as Branch Director. The level of understanding and integration created within the team was then successfully extended to customers.

Many participants made relationship building within teams sound fairly straightforward. When explaining the need to develop the social aspect of teams, they discussed how important it is to instil a climate of family, to include everyone as members of one's own culture. Indeed, it was argued that family is almost a universal value.

Thus by creating a family climate and sustaining it within their teams, managers succeed in building strong social foundations. A variety of examples were provided for making team members feel appreciated as family members including offering support, displaying appreciation, and holding social events usually revolving around shared meals. Bottom line, people tend to respond positively to a family climate and consequently feel more valued within their teams.
A caveat must be added for certain more formal cultures where this type of approach might not yield such positive results. For them, a more formal organizational climate is more appropriate.

With the previous competency on leadership characteristics, we explained that managers must display their enjoyment when working with a multicultural workforce. In this section, we argue that the same ambiance should be extended to team members, thus the need to foster an enjoyable and respectful team climate. One manager explained the importance of showing “that we have fun here and that culture is not a problem”. Furthermore, by demonstrating respect for cultural differences, both in formal and in informal contexts, managers tend to cultivate similar behaviors among their team members. Interestingly, it was reported that this requires that managers be visible, that they make regular visits to the team members, and that they be accessible to them.

Furthermore, managers must instil a zero-tolerance policy toward lack of multicultural respect within teams. Participants mentioned that, unlike in the 1980’s when multiculturalism wasn’t as pervasive, they now encounter very few problems as their workforce becomes more experienced and more sophisticated about multiculturalism. All the same, policies must be implemented to prevent potentially problematic situations.

The sixth behavior on the list illustrates how managers complement their own linguistic ability and cultural knowledge by engaging the help of cultural mediators within teams. Indeed, by seeking the help of those in the organization who are both fluent in the language at hand as well as accepted as credible by team members—usually because they share the same cultural background—teamwork can be improved on two levels.
First, closer ties with members of different cultures can be fostered so messages can be more clearly conveyed, and better received, when communicated by someone who is a native speaker. As well, by working with cultural mediators, managers gain a deeper understanding of others’ work processes. For instance, it was explained that a manager who would have insisted that things get done by carrying out three phases in an A-B-C fashion might learn from the mediator that the team will reach the same goal by carrying out their usual process, one that instead requires five steps.

Ultimately, despite its inclusion in the social aspect of team building, integrating the help of cultural mediators has benefits linked to task accomplishment. Indeed, by delegating either information transmission or formal authority to a native speaker or to a member from the same cultural background, managers can facilitate task accomplishment. More specifically, by targeting credible team members and harnessing their relational influence on others, managers can greatly benefit from working with cultural mediators, especially—though not strictly—with geographically dispersed teams.

Even with competent managers, problems will occur thus the need to mediate between team members to clarify cultural expectations. Again, whether it is about how we communicate, how we work, or what is expected given the cultural context, it is imperative that meditation should be done to insure clarification of expectations and to prevent problem escalation. Examples were provided where a team member said something that was deemed inappropriate, or worse, perceived as offensive according to another member’s cultural filter. Making sure that those involved in such situations explain their intentions and apologize when required is a must to prevent further problems. Taking the time to mediate can do more than prevent problematic situations from negatively affecting team spirit, it can actually enhance team cohesiveness.
The same applies to team conflicts. When they occur, they must be dealt with expeditiously. Thus for managers to build relationships with teams, they must manage team conflict promptly and ensure that conflicts do not escalate beyond the point where the relationship cannot be salvaged. In some cases, there is a fine line between relational conflicts that are related to workplace issues and those that are related to people's personal lives outside of work, where the former falls within managers' responsibility and the latter does not. Situations can also get dicey when conflicts dealing with people's personal lives affect their work, especially when the problems stem from lack of cultural understanding or respect. The level of complexity with regards to team conflict often increases when members work on remote sites. Clearly, various conflict management approaches will be warranted depending on the situation, but one thing is clear, they must be carried out promptly.

In some cases, the only acceptable course of action is to dismiss problem group members from multicultural teams, whether it means assigning them to other teams, to different projects, or in some cases sending them back to their home country. Some people don't fit the team culture and cannot adjust their behavior according to norms or expectations. Though it can be difficult for managers to sacrifice one of their members, they must do so when it is required for the benefit of the entire team.

1.3.3 Fosters accomplishment of team tasks

In order to get tasks done, managers must carry out an ensemble of nine behaviors ranging from information sharing, to offering support and ensuring member participation and comprehension of ideas, to distributing rewards.

The first behavior related to this competency is to hold regular team communication events, information meetings, and project reviews. Managers must insure that team members are informed about upcoming projects, hence the need to convey information. Usually, team members are subsequently invited to present how
they intend to carry out projects during team information meetings. In other words, communication events are often complemented with interactive information meetings to insure proper understanding of projects.

Once the work has begun, it is imperative that managers hold regular project reviews. The required number of follow-up reviews, either daily, weekly, or monthly, will depend on the project at hand and on the people involved, as some people need constant reviews in order to get things done.

Secondly, managers should articulate a common goal for team members along with clear requisites and deadlines. A well-known element in teamwork, this behavior is required to unite team members behind a common purpose and to outline how tasks are to be done and when they are to be completed. Again, there is the potential for a range of differences between teams or even between members themselves.

Earlier, it was explained why emphasis was placed on results rather than on means, allowing people to work according to their preferred methods. Here we add that in order to accomplish agreed-upon tasks, managers must emphasize results in terms of clearly outlined common team goals and remain unwavering about project requisites. In other words, though there is a certain amount of freedom in terms of how people work, all must be on the same wavelength regarding final projects' evaluation criteria as well as due dates.

The third behavior required for managers to foster accomplishment of team tasks is that they adopt procedures to facilitate team members' participation. In the North American culture, team members are usually fairly comfortable when comes time to sharing their views and ideas during open discussion sessions. Getting these people to participate is rather straightforward. However, other team members might
not be used to not speaking out and sharing their views openly without being directly asked a question.

In short, facilitating member participation might mean that formal team norms are created, making participation required by all, thus building a team culture rather than trying to change members’ overall cultural norms. For example, one manager discussed using a ‘check-out’ procedure where, at the end of each team meeting, he goes around the room asking every team member to state theirs views and add whatever information they feel is missing. If managers can get people to buy into such a team norm then all members are more likely to participate during team meetings, despite the fact that some remain uncomfortable doing so.

It was also mentioned that facilitating participation in teams doesn’t only mean making some members more vocal, it also means not letting more verbose people overwhelm the others. It therefore remains up to the managers to insure a more even distribution of comments within teams.

Managers are also called upon to ask questions to insure clarity, comprehension, and acceptance of ideas by team members, the fourth behavior on the list. Asking questions might sound like a given for team management but it was highly emphasized for those working with multicultural teams. Due to potential linguistic challenges, or to the variety of acceptable ways in which to interact with a superior, it might be difficult to verify team members’ understanding or their level of acceptance. Hence the importance for managers to ask questions.

In this case, managers should favor the use of open-ended questions rather than ‘yes-no’ questions. Many team members have been raised or indoctrinated in cultures where they are required to answer ‘yes’, especially when responding to someone in a higher authority. However, ‘yes’ does not necessarily mean ‘yes’, at least not as it does in the North American vernacular. In other words, because they
are polite or respectful when asked whether they understand or agree, many team members will answer ‘yes’. It must be understood that they are not telling a lie. Instead, in this case a ‘yes’ might mean ‘yes I heard you’ rather than ‘yes I understand you’. However, as many found out the hard way, a ‘yes’ does not insure understanding or even agreement. Asking, ‘can you explain to me how you will complete the project?’ or ‘how do you intend on carrying out this project’ rather than asking ‘do you understand how to do this project?’ is a better option.

Next, it was reported that managers working with a multicultural workforce must offer coaching and follow-up for team members. It is well known that different people function better with more or less supervision with regards to getting work done. The challenge, often exacerbated in multicultural settings, is to identify who needs more or less help understanding how to do a task and how many follow-ups are required to insure it get completed.

One would expect for managers in general to be required to display different types of coaching with employees at various levels in the organization. What MCC illustrates is that coaching employees to adopt new work processes might be additionally demanding when their cultural norms are different from the manager’s.

Something that is specific to multicultural teams is the need to establish guidelines about teams’ language use. Clearly, with a multicultural workforce, teams are probably going to combine members with a variety of linguistic preferences. In order to insure effective communication and teamwork, managers will often be required to establish guidelines about to the teams’ official language (or languages), something that is usually done along with team members’ approval.

Though it was reported that a high percentage of business interactions are carried out in English, sometimes more than one language is deemed acceptable during group work or even during official meetings. To reduce self-consciousness
while accommodating team members, it was pointed out that it is acceptable for managers to share their personal fears or anxiety when asked to speak in a second or third language. This approach can decrease tensions for all members.

In order to facilitate the accomplishment of team tasks, managers need to obtain team consensus by evaluating ideas against organizational requirements. This indicator involves two components. First it means getting team members to participate and voice their opinions about idea evaluation. Again, this may require that managers create explicit team norms that facilitate- or even demand- team member participation.

Moreover, this seventh behavioral requirement focuses on monitoring the quality of ideas based on objective organizational requirements. Given that we are dealing with team members of various backgrounds, sometimes coming from different organizations located in different time zones, it stands to reason that consensual agreement be reached about task requirements to insure everyone is on the same wavelength.

Many participants discussed another behavior, namely the crucial need to validate and reward team members’ output. One the one hand, validation is crucial, especially when trying to get members to take more initiative, though it certainly also has a place with a more empowered workforce as well. In short, managers must confirm their support for the quality of the work. In this study, examples for rewards ranged from a simple email messages saying “well done”, to employee certificates displayed on the company’s wall of fame, to company pins offered in person by the Managing Director, all the way to a large-scale restaurant events. Obviously, rewards depend on the nature of the tasks themselves. Still, managers have to acknowledge that they see the quality of the work done and communicate their gratefulness. This results in group members feeling proud of themselves and injects them with renewed energy.
Finally, beyond offering validation and rewards, managers also highlighted the need to *celebrate successes with team members*, the operative term being celebrating 'with' them. Indeed, it has been found that some cultures, likely collectivistic in nature, emphasize the notion of celebrating together. Maybe this requires taking an extra half-hour for lunch, ordering pizza, and discussing teams successes together. The key is to enjoy a celebration together, often spent over meals. When outlining required behaviors for working with a multicultural workforce, one participant put it this way:

“I like people who really feel their successes with their team, you know they don’t filter all through one person. To me a manager’s job is, basically managers create teams that work in harmony and achieve an objective and I look for people who have that ability to build that team and not be sort of one-person shows.”

### 1.4 Distance Management

This competency category illustrates the changing nature of work along with some of the new organizational structures that have taken shape in the global world. Indeed, given that team members are often geographically dispersed, working in different time zones, and sometimes employed by different organizations, managers are faced with complex exigencies. Working in this ‘flat’ world, an expression coined by Thomas Freidman, calls for managers to possess the competencies outlined so far in the MMC typology along with some that cater to a specific work structure often referred to as global virtual teams.

#### 1.4.1 Coordinates geographically dispersed team members

One of the competencies, the tenth on the MMC typology, is one that deals with the coordination of geographically dispersed team members. To begin with, despite the plethora of useful technologies available enabling distance work, managers are required to *bring team members together face-to-face when warranted*. In fact, there appears to be many such situations in today’s workplace, situations that can be identified in part according to the stages of group or project development.
From the onset, there are huge benefits to bringing people together in a project’s initial phase where building social bonds is crucial to- or at least greatly enhanced by- having people meet in person. Co-locating team members from different cultures and having them sit in the same space for a given amount of time is deemed essential on many levels.

First, by having the opportunity to communicate in person, group members can get to know each other better. Indeed, face-to-face interaction can enhance understanding, especially when language is itself a challenge. Second, during a project’s design phase, especially complex ones, it is often imperative to bring people together to work side-by-side. Managers explain that in order to do so, they share the travel with partners, either bringing team members to the host site or going to remote sites themselves. It’s an additional cost that is usually warranted.

At more advanced stages, sending team members to work on remote sites, or inviting remote site members to the host site, enables them to better understand the resources available to their team members as well as the work processes they use. A beneficial by-product is that during their stay, foreign guests are often invited to take part in local social activities that serve to enhance team cohesiveness, morale, and motivation. Indeed, it was reported that instead of making this option available only to upper-level managers, team members of all levels should be allowed to travel as there are benefits to sending both. When managers go abroad, they can make the most of this opportunity to get to know people and to show support for their work. When team members go visit remote sites, they usually engage in activities that strengthen team bonds.

Another benefit from sending remote site team members to the host site-usually the head office- is often a motivational one. Though upper-level managers might be required to do more than their fair share of traveling, this type of trip can be perceived as much more rewarding by team members who otherwise don’t have as
much opportunity for travel. Offering them the opportunity to visit distant sites can be a valuable investment in employee motivation.

The next behavior is also specific to working with distant work sites, since that is the way most virtual teamwork is done. Thus managers must find ways to *optimize scheduling between geographically dispersed members*. In other words, they must schedule their own time to overlap with their team members’ schedules and insure optimization between team members themselves.

Participants show a keen awareness of time differences and admit to scheduling their work day around their geographically dispersed group members’ regular schedules. For instance, there were many examples of managers starting their work day very early or ending very later in order to have time for synchronous communication with team members at remote sites. However, this behavior goes beyond starting work early or finishing late. It extends to finding ways to coordinate projects between group members to stretch the total work day and minimize overtime. More specifically, managers are responsible for finding ways for work to begin with part of the team located in one time zone, and to continue with other team members during their work day. Given that project deadlines are often tight and that clients are in a hurry to see the final outcome, optimizing scheduling can yield positive outcomes. Here is how one manager explained it:

“We were able to […] accelerate delivery of these events by ensuring continuity, so the work got done on a 19 hour schedule instead of doing eight hour work days, or to ask our people […] to put in hours, ten twelve hours a day.”

The third behavior linked to the coordination of geographically dispersed team members is the ability to *engage people at remote sites in all phases of challenging projects*. In other words, managers must display equity within their teams. They must be careful not to send remote site members only the least interesting projects while keeping the most stimulating work for those working at the
host site. Given the goal of coordinating teamwork, work should be distributed based on members’ ability and expertise. Indeed, it was reported that managers must keep in mind that team members are stimulated by being involved in challenging work and by contributing to parts of projects they find engaging. In the end, since organizations often seek to develop and sustain long-term relationships with remote sites members, they should gain from keeping everyone involved in team projects.

Fourth on the list is the idea that managers bring cultural mediators to host sites. For similar reasons that cultural mediators are used to build relationships within multicultural teams, it is beneficial to co-locate cultural mediators with host site members for projects shared between geographically dispersed members. First, this behavior requires that only credible cultural mediators should be chosen and only for the projects that warrant it. Team members who are assigned more credibility by others, either based on hierarchy or on informal social skills, should be identified and invited to the host site. In sum, the choice as to who should be selected has to be a judicious one in order to have the desired effect on remote site members.

Second, in order to reap potential benefits, cultural mediators should be allowed to interact with remote team members either to convey messages or to delegate tasks. Again, it might require that managers relinquish a good deal of power to mediators in order to be a useful strategy. As mentioned earlier, an indirect benefit of having these people on hand can serve as a reality check to managers but it can also guide them in terms of the motivation and rewards approaches to adopt. By explaining the reality of how things are done on remote sites and thus facilitating better interface with managers’ expectations, cultural mediators can be highly insightful.

The fifth required behavior is to align work processes between remote and host sites. The need for compatibility being the driving force behind this requirement, it was explained that remote site work processes must be aligned to match the host
site's so that work can flow smoothly between team members. This requirement might sound straightforward but can prove rather challenging when resources available at either site are drastically different. However, the operative term here is to align work processes, underlying a search for compatibility rather than an exact match. Ultimately, despite offering a certain level of flexibility, the coordination of geographically dispersed team members demands that work processes be aligned so they can function together smoothly.

Finally, one way to ensure team cohesiveness and task coherence is to evaluate geographically dispersed teams' output together. Some managers set up members as duos, others unite larger numbers of remote and host site members under one team. However, all agree to the need for combining members from different sites, usually people of different cultures, and evaluating the quality of their output together. Not only does this create stronger bonds, but also makes everyone equally accountable for the final output.

1.4.2 Coordinates the use of IT tools

The next distance management competence focuses on the coordination of constantly evolving technological tools. It begins with managers being able to tap into the strengths of IT tools when geographically separated from team. This behavior points the necessity for managers to remain current and stay abreast of fast-evolving technological breakthroughs. The lightening-speed rate at which technology evolved makes this an additional challenge, but one the must meet in order to exploit the right tools.

Participants have expressed similar opinions about the benefits of available synchronous technology. First, the telephone is still used a great deal as it is a simple cost-efficient option. Indeed, managers rely a great deal on teleconferencing, either one-on-one or in groups, and continue to praise its virtues. Despite built-in synchronous limitations, making scheduling between different time zones a
challenge, as well as reduced availability of nonverbal signals, the telephone appears to be the most used distance communication tool.

Comments about videoconferencing were not as positive, with very few managers seeing any value-added quality in this technology. The problem does not seem to be strictly linked to demands in terms of infrastructure, it appears to be related to the lack of benefits from seeing people at a remote site simply looking at a screen. Instead, tools such as Instant Messaging, Web Exchange, and Live Meeting seem to have gained a great deal of acceptance as they enable people to work in real time, and in many cases to see the same screen.

In terms of asynchronous communication, the convenience aspect of email is accepted fairly unanimously, though many have complained about the sheer quantity of such messages. All the same, especially given the time differences separating team members, email is another highly pervasive IT tool.

Clearly, managers have their own ideas regarding what IT tools to favor. However, given the geographic and cultural distance that sometimes separates team members from managers, they must also accept team members' input about their preferred IT tools. Indeed, managers might have to relinquish a certain level of control regarding IT choices. Members on remote sites might have different IT tools available to them and might have different preferences as to the ones they are comfortable using. Ultimately, the final decision regarding what IT tools to use will also be contingent upon project objectives and client needs.

To insure compatibility of IT processes and objectives is the third behavior related to the coordination of IT. As discussed earlier, geographically dispersed team members often work with different resources, thus making teamwork more challenging. It is therefore a requirement for distributed teams to insure that they share compatible information technology processes and objectives making teamwork
possible. Whether we are talking about the extensive use of PowerPoint slides, as the norm in the aerospace industry, or whether instant messaging is favored, geographically dispersed members have to use the same tools so they can get work done.

Another required behavior for coordinating the use of IT tools is to establish a chain of command for distant communication. Some of the cultural differences with regards to how technology is used aren’t necessarily associated to the technology itself, but rather are related to who should be allowed access to information.

For instance, in some cultures it is common to send carbon copies of e-messages to everyone on the team. Whereas in others, only the top team member should be privy to message content, where the decision whether to forward information along to others is theirs only. Of course, while most teams find themselves somewhere in the middle of these extreme practices, it is wise to establish clear guidelines in the form of a chain of command for whom to send different types of messages to. This way, all members abide by the same guiding principles and send information to the right places. This can prevent creating unnecessary frustration in some cases, or worse, unacceptable situations in others.

Lastly, managers need to adapt to differences in e-message content. Again the idea is to make sure that the use of IT is coordinated within all team members and that information can flow smoothly. For example, one participant noted that with a BlackBerry, one of the most popular wireless handheld smartphones, the screen is so small that if there are three questions in the message, the recipient will only see the first one and therefore respond only to that one. This manager has learned that when he asks questions via his BlackBerry, he must clearly state at the beginning of the message that he is looking for answers to three questions. Otherwise, people just won’t see pay attention. He insists that he therefore adapts message content to fit various IT tools.
Another example related to cultural differences is one related to how differently time is perceived. In other words, when sending an email to someone who comes from a culture where time is more elastic and where being expedient is not necessarily expected or valued, it might be good to clearly indicate when the answer is needed. This way, senders can increase the chances that the reply respects their expectations. This sounds relatively simple until a message requiring a prompt response is sent to someone who is not used to responding to immediately. Then managers wish they had been clearer in their demands.

1.5 Expatriate Management

This last competence category in the only one in the MMC typology that is specific to managers going abroad, usually for extended amounts of time. Many study participants have worked in foreign countries and have enjoyed their experiences a great deal. However, they conclude that very few managers are cut out for this type of work. As outlined in the literature on expatriates, there are many challenges related to this type of work experience, both within and beyond the organization.

1.5.1 Adapts when living abroad

The first behavior necessary to expatriate management is to displays enjoyment when engaging in novel experiences. We have already discussed to the need to display enjoyment working with a multicultural workforce, but this behavior takes it a step further. Here we are talking about engaging in experiences that go beyond organizational parameters for those living in another culture.

One V-P working abroad explained that when driving to work in the morning, he must find enjoyment in the sometimes crazy- perhaps downright frightening!-driving experience he is faced with. When eating at the cafeteria at work he has to enjoy the different foods they offer, even if they are far too spicy for his taste. And at
the end of the day, when he cannot watch a hockey game or CNN on TV, he has to want to engage in novel experiences. Otherwise, he said ‘you simply won’t make it’.

Earlier we discussed the need to display cultural sensitivity, something that remains a requirement abroad. However, managers report that it’s just as important for them to maintain one’s identity while adopting new cultural norms. Indeed, participants explain that not only is it acceptable to maintain one’s identity, it is often expected by foreign hosts. Either personally and professionally, the goal is not to convert to another culture. If international partners choose to work with foreigners, they generally do so because of their expertise, they don’t expect the foreigner to behave like them.

“This doesn’t mean that you shouldn’t adapt. That you should not have abilities to relate to others. But that being said, they are fully conscious that we will arrive with solutions or ways of working that will be totally different. The idea is to present them in an inoffensive manner, knowing how to offer explanations and remain humble.”

From the onset, expatriate managers should also know that when in a foreign land, you do not try to change the local culture. Participants said that when they go abroad, they are the guests, they are the ones living in another culture, they are the ones who must learn new ways, learn new languages, and be respectful of the majority culture.

The same applies to the organization situated in other cultures. Managers sound adamant when they say ‘an entire country is not going to change for us’. A participant explained that when doing business abroad:

“You don’t try and do business on (your own country’s) terms. You do business on the terms that they are used to. They trust you for that.”

The fourth behavior outlines that expatriate managers get involved in foreign community while respecting boundaries. Indeed, it appears that respecting boundaries is another one of these behaviors that is easier to accept in theory than to put in practice, as managers sometimes go overboard with their generosity.
With great enthusiasm, participants related examples of getting involved with local communities either by donating time and money to various people or causes, by building schools and providing them with much-needed resources, even by becoming godparents to employees' family members. Clearly, getting involved is a rewarding experience for them. However, they mentioned that it is essential to know where to draw the line, something that is not always easy.

Finally, the last behavior that resulted from this study is for managers to turn things around when faced with unsettling and profound challenges. When living and working abroad, managers will likely be thrown off balance, and be faced with self doubt where they will seriously question themselves and their choices. Competent managers are the ones who find ways to get back on the right track and reach organizational goals. Something to keep in mind is that managers’ behavior abroad is perceived as the norm for their home countries. As such, they have a responsibility as ambassadors.

2. CONCLUSION

In this chapter we outlined in detail the MMC typology’s five categories of competence along with the 12 competencies that they combine. As well, given the purpose for which they were collected, namely the training of future multicultural managers, we looked extensively at the behavioral indicators that define the MMC competencies. This highlighted the features of each competency.

Consequently, it behooves us to emphasize once more the nature of the MMC typology. In other words, due to the potential variety of cultures represented in the workforce, the typology is meant to serve a guide for managers to adapt to their multicultural situations. Even tough the exact nature of each behavior might vary according to the specific cultural mix, the typology should serve as a starting point to competence.
In the next chapter we will look at the theoretical and practical contributions made by the MMC typology.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to indentify the multicultural managerial competencies to inform the content of a Master’s program in international management. Though it was shown that many general concepts were available in multicultural, intercultural, cross-cultural, diversity management as well as in managerial literature, these are limited in scope and provide very little specificity regarding the actual multicultural managerial competencies to be carried out. Moreover, given the current multicultural and multi-site realities of organizations, existing management typologies are no longer comprehensive of the ensemble of behaviors managers are called upon to display. That is why we chose to look at the MMC that apply to the four manager profiles outlined earlier in this essay.

The MMC typology’s main theoretical contribution is its ability to take management research one step forward towards working with a global workforce. First, this typology furthers our understanding of multicultural management by bridging two main fields of study, namely management and intercultural/cross-cultural literature, thereby expanding traditional management requirements. As will be discussed in this chapter, the MMC typology not only confirms the relevance of several classic management functions but it combines them with requirements for expatriates who are deemed interculturally and cross-culturally effective. Most of these competencies are found within the first competence category addressing the need for trusting relationships management and the last one dealing with the expatriate manager, though related behavioral indicators permeate the content other MMC competencies as well. As such, data points to an increased focus on relational and adaptation competencies grounded in mutual understanding for managing domestic and foreign relationships as well as for expatriate management.
Second, by outlining a total of five competency categories combining 12 competencies and 71 corresponding behavioral indicators, the MMC typology offers new knowledge requiring managers to display behaviors that span beyond traditional organizational requirements. Only two competence categories stand out as applicable to specific contexts, namely those labeled distance management and expatriate management. Otherwise, all competency categories are required for multicultural management.

Within traditional competency categories like business and team management, competencies include new behavioral indicators that directly cater to a multicultural workforce thereby expanding the scope of managerial competence. In other words, not only are managers required to become competent displaying new competencies but the range within existing areas of management, for instance between authoritarian and participative management, is now sometimes greater.

Moreover, research findings indicate a need for managers to display openness to other ways or working and to focus on ends rather than on means. In some cases, they must relinquish control regarding how things are done to those who have entirely different work methods. One such example is the pervasive use of cultural mediators where managers harness the power of credible organizational members for message transmission or for work assignments. These key people are sometimes invited to convey messages or are delegated authority to facilitate goal accomplishment with team members. Such knowledge goes beyond existing management literature and furthers our understanding of what multicultural competence entails.

The MMC typology also makes practical contributions by outlining the concrete behavioral details related to managerial competence thus illustrating MMC applications for managers. Ultimately, this knowledge is meant to inform potential university curricula content. Indeed, not only is it believed that the study of
managerial behavior will benefit from empirical knowledge based on specific behavioral features—rather than strictly emphasizing broad managerial similarities—but such knowledge is especially valuable for training purposes (Tett and al., 2000). Contents of this typology not only provide a wide repertoire of specific relational and cultural sensitivity competencies for managers and team leaders, but also points to new knowledge for working with people who are geographically dispersed, often using technology as a main communication tool. By outlining a comprehensive list of specific competencies and corresponding behaviors, the MMC typology can directly inform international management curricula content thereby offering guidelines regarding graduation requirements.

In the following section, we will look more closely at the contributions to be found within the MMC typology and bring to light some of the limitations inherent in this research.

1. THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE MMC TYPOLOGY

In this section, we will discuss how the typology adds new competencies for managers, but also how it transforms our understanding of existing classic management functions.

1.1 Management competence takes on new forms

To begin with, the MMC typology provides additional support for management requirements organized more or less according to the classic functions of planning, organizing, leading, and controlling, including managing team dynamics. Indeed, two of the five competence categories confirm agreed-upon management behavior.
More specifically, the ‘Business Management’ competence category includes competencies for negotiating, planning, organizing, and monitoring business projects. In addition, ‘Team Management’, another competence category, contains competencies that center around team maintenance and task roles. Together these closely parallel classic management and team dynamics functions already accepted in the management literature, though admittedly with varying degrees of support (Mintzberg, 1975; Pettersen, 2006; Pettersen & Durivage, 2006; Quinn, 1990; Yukl, 1998). However, specifics about how these are carried out in MMC contexts offer room to maneuver, depending on the cultural context.

Indeed, a particularity with multicultural contexts is the potential range of competency demands, depending on the cultural mix. This makes contents the MMC typology reminiscent of Yukl’s (1998) situational relevance of skills as well as Quinn’s (1990) behavioral complexity. Though situational relevance as previously outlined is contingent upon the level of leadership position rather than the cultural make-up of the workforce, it remains that MMC typology competencies also display a form of situational relevance. Managers must gauge situations in order to either behave according to cultural expectations of the members of the workforce or to help coach them to respond to new ways of doing things.

With regards to behavioral complexity, Quinn’s (1990) competing values model argues that managers are often required to use seemingly opposite approaches. In other words, managerial roles that would otherwise be perceived as opposites, for example high levels of control versus high levels of participative management, might in fact be complimentary and therefore used simultaneously. The MMC typology works in a similar vein, where managers end up having to display competencies that might appear to stand in opposition but that are a necessity given that they cater to different cultural expectations. For example, managers often need to display a more formal approach with people coming from a more hierarchical background while simultaneously displaying participative management with those who respond to an
informal approach. The difference with MMC is that, given the variety of cultural backgrounds involved in certain projects, the scope of behavioral complexity can be greater in multicultural contexts. Not only does the completion of a management project require the display of sometimes opposite competencies, but the cultural make-up of the workforce will likely exacerbated the range of behaviors to be displayed.

Many MMC typology behavioral indicators are examples of such behavioral complexity, something that holds true for all competence categories. Just within the first MMC competency *Demonstrates self-awareness and control*, we see that the extent to which each behavior is carried out depends on cultural expectations. As well, even the nature of certain indicators is sometimes paradoxical as with the last two, ‘Acts with modesty, does not take self too seriously’ and ‘Acts with confidence when facing challenges’. The uninitiated multicultural manager could well ask which one is the right one, to be modest or confident? The competent multicultural manager would answer that it depends on the individuals involved, on the situation at hand, and on the context. Consequently, due to the inherently complex nature of multiple cultures, the MMC typology extends the boundaries of previous illustrations of behavioral complexity for managers.

In fact, each of the five MMC competence categories includes competencies that boast a multicultural slant. We now take a closer look at each category to show that, grounded in current management contexts, the MMC typology illustrates new managerial imperatives, especially with three competence categories, namely Trusting Relationships Management, Team Management, and Distance Management.

This begins with a call for managers to make a greater investment in the management of trusting relationships, often with international partners with whom they collaborate on joint projects. In fact, though trust has received a good deal of attention by researchers because of its pivotal role in global virtual teams (Jarvenpaa
& Leidner, 1999; Malhotra et al., 2007), there is very little empirical evidence to be found in the literature outlining how it should be earned. The MMC typology tells us that this requirement not only demands increased levels of cultural self-knowledge but also calls for managers to spend a great deal more time both in formal and informal relationship development, building alliances based on cultural commonalities whenever possible.

Another new finding is related to managing multicultural teams. Indeed, MMC points to the importance of facilitating multicultural understanding among group members, requirements that did not offer empirical evidence in previous team management literature. Furthermore, a key finding is managers’ involvement of cultural mediators for goal accomplishment. By both fostering cultural knowledge and harnessing the power of people viewed as credible by team members—either to convey information or to delegate work—team managers are better able to reach multicultural team goals. As well, it was reported that, by engaging the help of cultural mediators, managers can learn a great deal regarding motivation and rewards requirements with people of other cultures.

Lastly, certain competencies to be displayed when working with geographically dispersed team members serve to enhance our understanding of distance management. In other words, managers are called upon to go beyond regular team management requirements and coordinate the people who are separated by physical distance along with coordinating their use of IT.

One of the findings of the MMC typology emphasizes the need to bring team members face-to-face whenever warranted, something that might appear paradoxical given the nature of virtual teams. It had already been argued that leaders of such teams do not possess the power of physical observation and thus need to be creative in setting up structures and processes when motivation is required or when team direction needs to be realigned (Malhotra et al., 2007). According to MMC, it appears
that bringing people together at different stages of a project can be required in order to offer motivation and direction. Such efforts can have positive consequences on the distance relationships that follow as well as on the quality of the work itself.

Our review illustrated the fact that each of the competencies includes an aspect that is specific to the multicultural nature of the workforce. This confirms the need for competencies that take on new forms when working in this type of business environment.

1.2 Bridging management with intercultural/cross-cultural literature

Also of great interest is the fact that many authors also mention the need for skills for working with people of different cultures, but usually do so only as minor elements of the larger more important management functions. Still, the general need for empathy, diplomacy, cultural sensitivity, appreciation, communication, and adaptation have already been confirmed as relevant (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002; Mendenhal, et al., 1987; Tett et al., 2000; Yukl, 1998). The problem with this literature is the limited knowledge regarding a comprehensive ensemble of specific competencies and corresponding behaviors.

Accordingly, it turns out that some of the answers as to what the above-mentioned concepts entail can be found in the intercultural/cross-cultural literature (Kealey et al., 2006; Thomas & Osland, 2004; Vulpe, et al., 2001; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Thus the MMC typology confirms the inclusion of many intercultural/cross-cultural concepts within management research and allocates them a role greater than merely as a subset of the classic functions, an aspect that is mainly illustrated in the first MMC competence category.

For example, competencies identified as Demonstrates self-awareness and control, Displays cultural sensitivity, and Adapts when living abroad are very similar
those assigned to the profile of the interculturally effective person (IEP). In that literature, such competency requirements are known as ‘Self-knowledge’, ‘Understanding culture’, and ‘Adaptation to host country’, competencies based on empirical evidence for “someone who is able to live contentedly and work successfully in another culture” (Vulpe et al., 2001, p. 5). Given that overall expectations for the IEP are presumably different than for multicultural managers—where expectations shift to managing a domestic, international, often geographically dispersed workforce to reach organizational objectives—overlap between the two areas of research had not been confirmed empirically.

Such overlap is now obvious. The MMC competence categories labeled ‘Trusting Relationships Management’ and ‘Expatriate Management’ together combine four competencies also found in the IEP profile. Moreover, the MMC typology emphasizes their importance by outlining them according to a comprehensive list of four competencies and their corresponding 20 behavioral indicators. Ultimately, these competence categories are situated on equal footing with the more traditional management functions. In the end, their fundamental managerial nature for various work contexts explains why they are organized differently than with the IEP.

For example, self-knowledge as outlined in Vulpe et al.’s (2001) profile is no longer only a requirement for living contentedly and working successfully abroad, it is now a requirement in order to build trusting relationships management, at home and abroad, in face-to-face contexts and via the use of technology.

As well, cultural awareness has been identified as a crucial component in multicultural training, something that is best achieved by increasing awareness of one’s own culture along with how it relates to other cultures (Earley, 1987). Not only is this concept also mentioned as essential in the MMC typology, it is actually outlined according to its five related behavioral indicators. Moreover, data indicates
that when displayed along with Displays cultural sensitivity and Builds interpersonal relationships. Demonstrating self-awareness and control serves to manage trusting relationships, a requirement in multicultural management.

Other MMC typology also includes competencies and behavioral indicators also covered in related cross-cultural research. In their typology for cross-cultural adaptation for expatriates, Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) outline five learning skill dimensions that closely parallel many aspects of the MMC typology. Tough their competence categories follow a different logic than ours, where skills dimensions are first separated into cross-cultural competency clusters, then into behavioral indicators, subsequently into knowledge or skills required, and finally according to communication abilities, it remains that there are many similarities with our typology.

In fact, what stands out in this cross-cultural literature is the significant role assigned to interpersonal and communication issues, aspects that also earn a legitimate place with MMC. Still, though overlap is noted between the two areas, discrepancies remain as compared to intercultural/cross-cultural literature due to the different stakes involved in management contexts.

In sum, the main weakness with previous typologies is that they fail to offer a combination of both multicultural and management-oriented competencies, an aspect that the MMC typology improves upon. As well, not only had domestic and distance managers been under-represented, but the studies that focused on international contexts did so in terms of a prolonged expatriate experience rather than by studying the demands linked to punctual short-term visits abroad. By including managers from various work contexts, we extended our knowledge of competencies required for multicultural management.
2. PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTIONS FOR UNIVERSITY TRAINING

Earlier in this essay, we have established that university courses in international management must provide future managers with the tools required for working with a multicultural workforce. Indeed, it is argued that business educators must "turn cultural competence into a competitive advantage" (Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008, p. 387). However, in chapter one, we have shown that little empirical data is available to guide curriculum content. Furthermore, we noted that one of the main criticisms regarding management education is a lack of training on 'soft skills', a key element in.

The MMC typology offers practical contributions on both fronts. First, it provides concrete managerial tools in the form of 12 competencies combined under 5 competence categories that should be acquired within an international management program. Second, it argues for an increased focus on soft skill development where relational aspects permeate all five competence categories.

To begin with, by outlining the specific behaviors corresponding to each competency, the typology serves as a guide for management applications and for the development of university curricula. The reader will remember that, given the goal of this study, the focus of the MMC typology is placed on behaviors to be acquired within an international management program and not on personal qualities linked to a selection and recruitment purposes. Even though it could be argued that the ability to display such behaviors is grounded in the existence of certain personal qualities, this study instead focuses on the competencies themselves.

For example, the Team Management competence labeled Displays leadership characteristics focuses on the behavior itself but takes for granted the existence of certain personal characteristics that must be demonstrated by managers when working with a multicultural workforce. In other words, it could be argued that managers who
reported experiencing positive emotions when working with a multicultural workforce are those who score highly on the Big Five personality factor labeled ‘openness to experience’ (Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006). However, we take the position that the goal of a university training program is to impart knowledge and teach students the behaviors to be integrated into their repertoire. Altering their personality isn’t the goal of a master’s program. Therefore, future managers who are fundamentally impatient, ethnocentric, and closed-minded in their views will probably not be transformed into competent multicultural managers by following a program based on the MMC typology.

It remains that the MMC typology is compatible with the APA goals for diversity content, namely to a) heighten sensitivity and awareness, b) broaden understanding of human conditions, c) increase tolerance, d) enhance psychological mindedness, e) expose to personal perspectives and to f) increase students’ political action (Avery & Thomas, 2004). Moreover, our typology respects the AACSB’s current standards regarding coverage of global issues, guidelines including cultural self-awareness, cultural consciousness, and multicultural leadership (Egan & Bendick, Jr., 2008). MMC results go even further and identify 71 specific behaviors that managers should carry out in order to display the 12 competencies that respect APA and AACSB guidelines and enable managers to accomplish organizational goals with a culturally diverse workforce.

With regards to trusting relationships, business, team, distance, and expatriate management, the MMC typology clearly outlines the need for fostering competencies contingent upon soft skill development. Indeed, we see that in order to establish and maintain trusting relationships with international partners and in an effort to plan, organize, and reach organizational goals with team members, many relational competencies are required. In their review of 12 manager models, Tett et al. (2000) note that competencies that fall under the ‘person orientation’ label have few precedents in the literature, perhaps indicating an “emerging recognition of
management as a people-related activity” (p. 231). We reach similar conclusions regarding soft skills’ central place within management activities and proceed to provide specific examples of an exhaustive list of relational competencies.

Currently, most international management courses ignore within culture heterogeneity and focus on teaching culture-specific information aimed at decreasing uncertainty for managers working in foreign cultures (Earley & Peterson, 2004; Egan & Bendick Jr., 2008). As such, it is argued that such stereotypical information fails to prepare managers for the realities of global world. One participant in this study claims that this type of cultural training is useful for managers, though in reality it only represents about 20% of the actual work done in multicultural contexts. Indeed, there is the potential for a complex mix of cultural heritages within the workforce calling for managers to display competencies that extend far beyond a culture’s national dimensions and adapt to multiple ones. Moreover, it is not unusual to have a subordinate who was born in the UK, educated in the United States who now works for a Japanese company with international offices located in Canada. One wonders which national culture, if any, this individual would subscribe to.

Accordingly, the driving force behind the MMC typology is its relevance for training managers to display a wide range of behavior indicators needed to work with people of multiple cultural backgrounds at once, even with individuals who have enculturated into more than one culture. Whether its content will be added to international management classes and thus simply provide an additional multicultural dimension or instead merge with existing content resulting in a new unified course remains unclear. One thing the MMC typology confirms is that competence in managing a multicultural workforce goes beyond the planning, organizing, leading, and controlling management functions found in the classic management class. Accordingly, it can be said to offer new imperatives to international management education by outlining competencies that serve as graduation requirements.
Ultimately, the MMC typology offers competencies that are generic to multicultural managers working in four business contexts while still outlining specific behaviors and pointing out distinctions between similarities. Given the complexity of a manager's role, such details are required in order to outline managerial competencies and to guide the creation of training programs (Shippmann et al., 2000; Tett et al., 2000).

3. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Despite the MMC typology's theoretical and practical contributions, this study also has certain built-in limitations. However, these limitations are inherent to qualitative research per say and thus not only specific to this study. This section highlights these limitations and explains the measures that were taken to minimize their impact on conclusions.

Standards used to apply and evaluate qualitative methods are not as explicit as their quantitative counterparts so interpretation remains subjective. The standards used to evaluate the quality of the MMC typology are discussed in terms of 1) reliability, 2) internal validity, and 3) external validity, generalizability and transferability.

3.1 Reliability

To begin with, using interviews offers a flexible and adaptable tool for finding out information. However, there remains a possible lack of standardization that could raise concerns about reliability (Robson, 2002). By using semi-structured interviews based on a standardized questionnaire, the researcher sought to maintain a certain level of control to insure greater standardization between participants. As well, the specific BEI and task analysis research questions used in the interviews were meant to increase reliability. However, managers sometimes emphasized different aspects of
their multicultural experiences, bifurcations that resulted in the use of different follow-up questions, a process that lacked standardization.

In this study, interviews were either carried out face-to-face or via the telephone. Consequently, since the former type of interviews may provide more nonverbal cues and thus facilitate message understanding, it could be argued that some of the nonverbal meaning might have been lost during telephone interviews (Robson, 2002). Ultimately, since data coding and analysis was done from transcripts only, all nonverbal content was lost which only exacerbates this problem.

Though specific guidelines for data coding and data analysis were established and followed, it remains that a single researcher carried out these steps thereby affecting reliability of findings. The study might have been enhanced had coding checks been applied by additional researchers. Indeed, working with a team of researchers for the coding of transcripts as well as for the analysis of quotations could enable convergence of multiple observer accounts. Conclusions regarding the contents of the typology could have been confirmed via inter-judge reliability. Indeed, we considered engaging the help of colleagues to participate in this type of coding exercise. However, it was agreed that the chosen researchers would have had to possess equally extensive knowledge of multiculturalism and its related concepts to that of the main researcher. Moreover, search for such subject-matter experts would have required a huge investment in time and extended beyond the scope of this study. Furthermore, given the large quantity of data to be coded, data would have had to be divided amongst researchers, an exercise that would have rendered convergence difficult to establish.

Ultimately, the initial version of the MMC typology reflected the main researcher's perception regarding how to regroup the competencies and behaviors shared by managers, a process that entailed a certain level of arbitrariness. In order to address this potential reliability issue, two additional management researchers participated in an in-depth evaluation of each of the competency categories, of the
competencies themselves, and of their related behavioral indicators. Accordingly, a consensus was reached amongst all three researchers regarding the final version of the MMC typology thereby increasing the reliability of the final product. In the end, it was agreed that due to the inherently arbitrary nature of such an exercise, and given that results are meant for training purposes, relevance took priority over classification where the goal was to insure that the MMC typology included all crucial competencies and corresponding behaviors.

3.2 Internal Validity

According to Maxwell (2002), internal validity should be evaluated first in terms of descriptive validity, meaning the factual accuracy of their account. Second, it should be evaluated according to interpretive validity, where one seeks to comprehend data from the perspective of participants.

Consequently, interviews were audio-taped to insure descriptive validity of the data (Maxwell, 2002). Though an existing framework was used to guide initial data interpretation, namely Pettersen and Durivage’s (2006) typology, new competencies ultimately emerged from what the researcher learned from participants. Therefore, in an effort to increase interpretation validity, data triangulation was used where the final typology was sent to participants for content confirmation.

Indeed, given that a main threat to validity with a flexible descriptive design lies in the potential for inaccurate or incomplete data (Robson, 2002), participants were invited in phase two of the research in order to a) confirm the relevance of MMC competencies and corresponding behaviors, and b) add some potentially missing ones from the typology. This phase served to diminish such a threat to the validity of the MMC typology. Indeed, having participants review findings can teach us about accuracy, completeness as well as the perceived validity of the data (Patton, 2002).
In order to further increase the validity of the MMC typology, it might have been valuable to confirm its content with members of the multicultural workforce to get their perception of managerial competence. As was shown in Joshi and Lazarova (2005), what managers perceive as a display of competence doesn’t always correspond to what their employees believe is competent.

With the use of interviews, there remains the possibility of diminished validity due to respondent biases and researcher biases (Robson, 2002). In the first case, one could argue that participants provided the answers that the researcher was looking for, thereby resulting in respondent bias. In other words, since the goal was to identify multicultural managerial competence, it is possible that managers shared stories about what they think they should have done in critical instances or what they wish they had done in such situations instead of what the actually did. Furthermore, data obtained from the use of interviews based on critical incidents may have been biased by participants’ selective memory on aspects that fit within their stereotypes and implicit theories of effective management (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

In addition, the researcher’s assumptions and preconceptions might have affected the way data was selected for reporting and analysis, thus illustrating a form of researcher bias (Patton, 2002; Robson, 2002). By using content analysis focusing on behaviors, the researcher tried to minimize- but did not eliminate- the scope of inferences made in data interpretation.

3.3 Generalizability and Transferability

The choice to study in-depth interviews with 20 participants emphasized internal validity, potentially at the expense of transferability of findings. Indeed, by outlining a set of MMC competencies applied by a few managers within specific multicultural contexts, working with peers and subordinates with whom they share a
history, this study is unable to provide empirical evidence for transferability to all potential multicultural contexts.

However, “qualitative studies are not usually designed to allow systematic generalizations to some wider population” (Maxwell (2002; p. 52). What is important is the study’s internal generalizability, namely its ability to generalize within the community of managers working in the four business contexts identified in the sample, rather than generalizing to other communities (Maxwell, 2002). Theoretical saturation served to contribute to the generalizability of MMC. All the same, carrying out a confirmatory study including a much larger sample of managers could increase the dependability of research conclusions. Moreover, with only one woman included in the sample of managers, results are potentially tainted by gender bias.

Still, the descriptive nature of this study dictates that in-depth data should be gathered first, and that replication be subsequently carried out. Despite the fact that a comparison with existing literature potentially provided a level of nomological validity, researchers will likely need to replicate this study with a higher number of managers working with a multicultural workforce in order to be able to confirm (or disconfirm) the extent to which it is transferable to a variety of multicultural contexts.

Additionally, it is clear that no two companies will be made up of the same proportion of workers from similar combinations of cultures (managers and subordinates alike). This reality also injects a level of complexity in terms of study replication. The contexts studied are probably never going to be replicated with the exact same number of people from the same cultures at the same levels of the organization. Despite care in study design, it remains that the results might not be applicable outside of the situations where they are measured (Levy-Leboyer, 1996). By design, research in multicultural contexts is highly complex.
In closing, the focus of this chapter was to highlight the theoretical and practical contributions of the MMC typology. We showed that its content not only confirms traditional management functions take on new forms, but expands on these by integrating multicultural components. In fact, each of the 12 MMC competencies contains behaviors directly related to multicultural issues.

As well, we showed the obvious overlap between known management requirements with elements from the intercultural/cross-cultural literature. Though management scholars mention the relevance of many related topics, there was very little empirical knowledge outlining specific behaviors related to cultural sensitivity. The MMC typology tells us more about behavioral indicators that must be displayed by multicultural managers.

Furthermore, we outlined potential practical applications within international management programs. Though guidelines have been identified by the APA and the AACSB, these lack specificity and thus made them limited in their usefulness for generating program content or identifying graduation requirements. It is believed that the MMC typology can contribute to making such efforts clearer for universities seeking to internationalize their curricula.

In the end, the MMC typology remains a guide for managing in multicultural world, where managers must gauge which ones to use given the cultural make-up of their workforce. It offers the flexibility needed by managers who are faced with complex but exciting challenges.
CONCLUSION

This study on multicultural managerial competencies was conceptualized in an attempt to inform the content of a Master’s program in international management. This required that we begin by reviewing the literature on management education, efforts that confirmed the lack of empirical data pointing to specific content for university programs. The research topic was thus confirmed.

We then turned our attention to managerial literature and concluded that given current organizational structures, existing management typologies are no longer comprehensive of the ensemble of behaviors managers are called upon to display. By exploring the multicultural, intercultural, cross-cultural, and diversity management literature we were able to conclude that these are limited in scope and provide very little specificity regarding the actual multicultural managerial competencies to be carried out given current organizational contexts.

Competence modeling was determined to offer the best conceptual framework to enable us to reach our research goals. Therefore, by combining BEI with task analysis, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 20 mid- to upper-level managers from 11 different industries in order to discover the competencies needed to manage in four current management contexts.

Thematic (or content) analysis was applied in order to make sense of the data. The use of a mixed method quickly evolved into the emergence of new competence categories. Ultimately, ATLAS.ti was needed to code and then cross-reference the 12 competencies and their corresponding 71 behavioral indicators. These were then organized according to five competence categories.

The resulting MMC typology offers both theoretical and practical contributions. First, it expands management research, showing that multicultural
management goes beyond traditional management requirements. Indeed, in addition to providing additional support for management requirements such as planning, organizing, leading, controlling as well as managing team dynamics, it illustrates how cultural issues permeate management activities, thus giving them a new form.

Furthermore, specifics with regards to how management competence is carried out in MMC contexts offer room to maneuver, depending on the cultural context. In the end, the MMC typology responds to a greater range of competency demands related to multicultural management. It confirms that managers are likely to end up having to display competencies that might appear to stand in opposition but that are necessary given when working with a multicultural workforce. In fact, each of the five MMC competence categories includes competencies that reflect multicultural exigencies.

Second, the typology confirms overlap between two main fields of study, namely management and intercultural/cross-cultural literature. For instance, competencies that were deemed essential for intercultural/cross-cultural effectiveness are also found within the MMC typology, mostly within trusting relationships management and expatriate management. Given the nature of management contexts created by this new globalized world, we confirmed that these competence categories are now situated on equal footing with other more traditional managerial ones.

The MMC typology also offers practical applications for outlining the content of university curricula and identifying graduation criteria for Master’s program in international management. Indeed, contents are compatible with AACSB guidelines (AACSB, 2002) as well as with APA requirements (APA, 2003). Accordingly, the MMC typology provides a wide repertoire of specific competencies for managers and points to new knowledge for domestic and international management, for those working face-to-face with a multicultural workforce or with geographically dispersed members often using technology as a main communication tool.
REFERENCES


# APPENDIX A

## LITERATURE REVIEW ACCORDING TO THE RESEARCH AXES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Face-to-Face settings</th>
<th>Managers Working with a Multicultural Workforce at Home</th>
<th>Managers Working with a Multicultural Workforce Abroad</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Earley &amp; Ang (2003), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em></td>
<td>- Borden (1991), <em>Competency Concepts for Intercultural Communication</em>;</td>
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<td>- Earley &amp; Peterson (2004), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em></td>
<td>- Earley &amp; Ang (2003), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em>;</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Thomas &amp; Inkson (2005), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em></td>
<td>- Earley &amp; Peterson (2004), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em>;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Kealey (2001), <em>The Interculturally Effective Person</em>;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Kealey, Protheroe, MacDonald, &amp; Vulpe (2006), <em>8 Keys to Being an Interculturally Effective Worker</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- McCall &amp; Hollenbeck (2002), <em>Developing Global Executives</em>;</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Mendenhall, Dunbar, Oddou (1987), <em>3 Dimensional Approach to Understanding Expatriate Acculturation</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Thomas &amp; Inkson (2005), <em>Cultural Intelligence</em>.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Thomas and Osland (2004), <em>Mindful Communication</em></td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Vulpe, Kealey, Protheroe, &amp; Macdonald (2001), <em>The Interculturally Effective Person</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Yamazaki &amp; Kayes (2004), <em>Competencies for Successful Cross-Cultural Adaptation for Expatriates</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Joshi &amp; Lazarova (2005), <em>Competencies in MNT</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Malhotra, Majchrzak &amp; Rosen (2007)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Goodbody (2005), <em>Competencies &amp; Skills for Virtual Teams</em>;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Joshi &amp; Lazarova (2005), <em>Competencies in MNT</em>;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Malhotra, Majchrzak &amp; Rosen (2007)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Competency models that apply both to working at home and working abroad.
APPENDIX B

DEVELOPING GLOBAL EXECUTIVES

Lesson theme #1: Learning to Deal with Cultural Issues and Different Cultures

- Generic lessons: general rules
  - Understand and be understood
  - Build new relationships
  - Recognize how people view you as a boss
  - Be patient & tolerant
  - Show humility
  - Be clear on your ethics & values

Lesson theme #2: Learning to run a Business- Strategy, Structure, Processes; Global versus Local; Specialized Knowledge

- Understanding culture means recognizing differences but global business also requires finding common ground (customer focused, shared business values, benchmark against world-class processes, managing risk globally, etc.).

Lesson theme #3: Learning to Lead and Motivate Others- Selection, Development, Motivation, Team Building, Deselection

- Basics of managing people not necessarily international: people are different no matter where they are from. Learning trust is key.

Lesson theme #4: Learning to Deal with Problematic Relationships- Headquarters, Bosses, Unions, Government, Media, Politics

- Global executives have more types of relationships to manage with people more geographically dispersed and from different cultures.

Lesson theme #5: Personal qualities of a leader

- Listening, open, honest, genuine, flexible, risks assessment, optimism
- Shyness can be a plus!
- “Tempered by humility- also an abundant lesson in international work- confidence makes it possible to cope with uncertainty and take risks, both or which are prerequisites to learning.” (p. 92)

Lesson theme #6: Learning about Self and Career

- Self-awareness along with managing one’s career.

APPENDIX C

PROFILE FOR THE INTERCULTURALLY EFFECTIVE PERSON (IEP)

1- Adaptation skills: Ability to cope with the challenges of living in another culture
2- Attitude of modesty and respect: Willingness to listen, to display respect, to show interest
3- Understanding of the meaning of culture: Understanding of its strong influence on life, work practices, and values of workers
4- Extensive knowledge of the host country and society: And a desire to constantly expand this knowledge
5- Intercultural communication skills: Making themselves understood in a sensitive way
6- Sociability, interpersonal, relationship-building: Ability to socialize and build harmonious relationships
7- International management skills: Willingness to meet organizational goals
8- Commitment: A high level of professional and personal commitment to experiencing an enriching life in another culture.

**APPENDIX D**

**COMPETENCIES FOR SUCCESSFUL CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Skill Dimension</th>
<th>Cross-Cultural Competency</th>
<th>Knowledge or Skill Required</th>
<th>Behavioral Indicator</th>
<th>Communication Ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Building relationships</td>
<td>Interacts with others regularly, particularly members of the host culture</td>
<td>Ability to gain access to and maintain relationships with members of the host culture</td>
<td>Recognizes &amp; deals effectively with misunderstandings willingness to maintain contact with people even when communication is difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing people of different cultures</td>
<td>Expresses interest &amp; respect for host culture, including its history, customs, beliefs, and</td>
<td>Empathy for difference, sensitivity to diversity</td>
<td>Initiates and engages in open conversation with friends and colleagues about host culture politics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Listening and observation</td>
<td>Spends time observing, reading about, &amp; studying host culture, particularly with locals</td>
<td>Knows cultural history reasons for certain actions and customs</td>
<td>Asks questions, when possible, takes careful account of situations before taking action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping with ambiguity</td>
<td>Maintains work habits in the face of unexpected events, new experiences, or unfamiliar situations</td>
<td>Recognizes &amp; interprets implicit behavior especially nonverbal cues</td>
<td>Changes communication in response to nonverbal cues from others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
<td>Translating complex information</td>
<td>Translates personal thoughts into language of host culture</td>
<td>Knowledge of local language, symbols or other forms of verbal language and written language</td>
<td>Demonstrates fluency in language of host country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action</td>
<td>Taking action and initiative</td>
<td>Takes actions when appropriate even when outcome is uncertain</td>
<td>Understands intended &amp; unintended consequences of action</td>
<td>Easily approaches and interacts with strangers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptive</td>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>Demonstrates acceptance of change, setbacks, and challenges</td>
<td>Views change from multiple perspectives</td>
<td>Can explain perspectives on a single issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing stress</td>
<td>Maintains work habits during times of personal and environmental crisis, or in the face of heavy emotional demands</td>
<td>Understands own &amp; other’s mood, emotions, &amp; personality</td>
<td>Expresses personal feelings in an appropriate and non threatening way</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Yamazaki, Y. & Kayes, C., 2004
## APPENDIX E

### MNT LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Competencies</th>
<th>Action Points</th>
<th>Leadership Competencies</th>
<th>Action Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Direction and goal setting | - Provide clear directions  
- Set direction and expectations  
- Delegate responsibility across the team  
- Being visible to members in all locations  
- Set the direction for the team  
- Provide clear guidance on how to achieve tasks  
- Provide a clear goal and purpose for the team  
- Make sure team stays with the schedule  
- Create a project plan | Boundary spanning  
- Leverage team’s contribution to HQ  
- Be aware of political changes outside the team and communicate to team members  
- Champion the team’s resource needs to the HQ  
- Be connected to market and client needs  
- Defend the team to the HQ | |
| Communication | - Enabling communication between team members  
- Make sure message is heard the way it was intended  
- Open communication with team members  
- Be proactive in communicating with distant team members  
- Verify if accurate information is being exchanged within the team  
- Be visible to team members in all locations  
- Actively listen to team members  
- Establish personal relationships across locations | Mentoring coaching  
- Provide mentoring especially to junior team members  
- Srilling resource acquisition  
- Address the talent gap in various locations  
- Address resource constraints in remote locations | |
| Facilitating team work | - Resolve differences between team members  
- Make sure everyone has a clear charter for the team  
- Create ownership of the team’s goals | |
| Motivating and inspiring | - Be a cheer leader  
- Provide a strong vision for the team  
- Provide team members with a sense of belonging  
- Keep the team motivated | |
| Managing cultural diversity | - Acknowledge cultural differences in the team  
- Spend time understanding individuals  
- Be sensitive to different working styles  
- Appreciate the diversity of perspectives and skills  
- Set an example to other team members by respecting cultural differences  
- Be aware of the role of cultural differences | |
| Empowering | - Make sure all members can contribute  
- Make people that people feel that they have the power to influence team decisions | |

Source: Joshi & Lazarova, 2005
APPENDIX F

PARTICIPANT PROFILES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Manager Title</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Chief of Services, Structures and Interiors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Chief of Services, Project Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Chief of Services, Materials Logistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Chief of Services Fabrication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Vice President, Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
<td>Director, Aircraft Integration and Validation</td>
</tr>
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<td>Transportation</td>
<td>Chief Information Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Managing Director</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aerospace</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Vice-President</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Global Business Engineer Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR Consulting</td>
<td>Director of Consulting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Int'l Development</td>
<td>President, Director General</td>
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<tr>
<td>Banking</td>
<td>Associate Vice President</td>
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<td>Int'l Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Int'l Cooperation</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics</td>
<td>President, Director General</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aviation Technology</td>
<td>President and CEO</td>
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<table>
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<td>Consultant</td>
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<td>Directors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Associate Vice-President</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vice-President</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Information Officer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidents and Chief Executive Officers</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Industries represented in the sample</th>
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<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Development &amp; Cooperation</td>
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<td>Transportation</td>
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<td>Banking</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Electronics</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>HR Consulting</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Aviation Maintenance</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of work experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less then 10 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>10-20 years</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 years and over</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Number of countries in the workforce</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fewer than 5 countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>5-10 countries</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15 countries</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 countries and more</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<td>Men</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX G

COUNTRIES REPRESENTED IN THE SAMPLE WORKFORCE

1- Algeria
2- Australia
3- Bangladesh
4- Belgium
5- Brazil
6- Cameroon
7- Chili
8- China
9- Costa Rica
10- Democratic Republic of the Congo
11- France
12- Germany
13- Great Britain
14- Guana
15- Haiti
16- Holland
17- India
18- Indonesia
19- Iran
20- Ireland
21- Italy
22- Ivory Coast
23- Japan
24- Lebanon
25- Liberia
26- Malaysia
27- Mali
28- Mexico
29- Morocco
30- Nigeria
31- Pakistan
32- Peru
33- Philippines
34- Portugal
35- Poland
36- Romania
37- Republic of Senegal
38- Russia
39- Slovak
40- Spain
41- Switzerland
42- Taiwan
43- Togo
44- Tunisia
45- USA
46- Ukraine
47- Uruguay
48- Vietnam
49- Yugoslavia
50- Zaire.
APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
Identifying Multicultural Managerial Competencies: Interview Questions for Managers

Please note that for this study, we refer to people of different cultures as those being born in a different country than the manager or whose first language is different from the manager’s first language.

1- Please complete this profile section:
A- Name and country of origin: ________________________________
B- Job Title: ________________________________
C- Employees’ countries of origin: ________________________________
D- Employees’ native languages: ________________________________
E- Number of employees from different cultures under your supervision: __________________

2- Please circle (or highlight) the answer(s) that applies to you (you may circle more than one if applicable):
A- I manage people of different cultures in my home country, in face-to-face settings.
B- I manage people of different cultures abroad, in face-to-face settings.
(I travel to other countries in order to manage people in person in other countries).
C- I manage people of different cultures in my home country, mostly via the use of technology (mostly using phone, email, videoconference, etc. to manage people in my home country).
D- I manage people of different cultures abroad, mostly via the use of technology (mostly using phone, email, videoconference, etc. to manage people in other countries).

3- Can you please describe 3 important situations in which you were involved that are related to managing people of different cultures and that resulted in positive outcomes.
For each situation, can you describe:
A- What happened?
B- Who was involved?
C- What led up to the situation?
D- What did you actually do?
E- What did you think about, feel, and wanted to accomplish in dealing with the situation?
F- What was the outcome of the incident?
G- In retrospect, what do you think should be done in a similar situation?
4- Can you please describe 3 important situations in which you were involved that are related to managing people of different cultures and that resulted in negative outcomes. For each situation, can you describe:
   A- What happened?
   B- Who was involved?
   C- What led up to the situation?
   D- What did you actually do?
   E- What did you think about, feel, and wanted to accomplish in dealing with the situation?
   F- What was the outcome of the incident?
   G- In retrospect, what do you think should be done in a similar situation?

5- I am interested in the crucial tasks that you must accomplish in your work that are linked to managing people of different cultures.
   A- What do you do in your work that is specific to managing a multicultural workforce?
   B- What job tasks determine who is most effective while managing people of different cultures?
   C- What behaviors are required by managers to carry out these tasks?
L’identification des compétences managériales multiculturelles :
questions d’entrevues pour gestionnaires

Veuillez noter que, dans le cadre de cette étude, nous considérons les gens de différentes cultures comme étant ceux qui sont nés dans un autre pays que celui du gestionnaire ou ceux dont la langue maternelle est différente de celle du gestionnaire.

1- Prière de compléter l’information suivante :
   A- Nom :
   B- Titre de votre poste :
   C- Les pays d’origine où sont nés vos subordonnés :
   D- Les langues maternelles de vos subordonnés :
   E- Nombre de subordonnés provenant de différentes cultures travaillant sous votre supervision :

2- Prière d’encercler (ou de surligner) l’énoncé décrivant la nature de votre poste (si pertinent, vous pouvez encercler plus d’un énoncé):
   A- Je gère des gens provenant de différentes cultures dans mon pays d’origine, en face-à-face.
   (Je gère ces gens en personne dans mon pays d’origine.)
   B- Je gère des gens provenant de différentes cultures à l’étranger, en face-à-face.
   (Je voyage à l’étranger afin de gérer des gens en personne sur les lieux.)
   C- Je gère des gens provenant de différentes cultures dans mon pays d’origine, surtout par le biais de la technologie.
   (J’utilise surtout le téléphone, le courriel, la vidéoconférence, etc. pour gérer des gens travaillant dans mon pays d’origine.)
   D- Je gère des gens provenant de différentes cultures à l’étranger, surtout par le biais de la technologie.
   (J’utilise surtout le téléphone, le courriel, la vidéoconférence, etc. pour gérer des gens travaillant dans d’autres pays.)
3- Pouvez-vous décrire 3 incidents importants reliés à la gestion de subordonnés provenant de différentes cultures dans lesquels vous avez été impliqués qui ont eu des conséquences positives.

Pour chacune de ces situations, pourriez-vous décrire :
   A- Qu’est-ce qui est arrivé?
   B- Qui était impliqué?
   C- Quelle était la situation ayant mené à cet incident?
   D- Qu’avez-vous fait?
   E- Qu’avez-vous pensé et ressenti face à cette situation, que cherchiez-vous à accomplir?
   F- Quel fut le résultat de cet incident?
   G- Avec un recul, selon vous qu’est-ce qu’il aurait fallu faire dans une telle situation?

4- Pouvez-vous décrire 3 incidents importants reliés à la gestion de subordonnés provenant de différentes cultures dans lesquels vous avez été impliqués qui ont eu des conséquences négatives.

Pour chacune de ces situations, pourriez-vous décrire :
   A- Qu’est-ce qui est arrivé?
   B- Qui était impliqué?
   C- Quelle était la situation ayant mené à cet incident?
   D- Qu’avez-vous fait?
   E- Qu’avez-vous pensé et ressenti face à cette situation, que cherchiez-vous à accomplir?
   F- Quel fut le résultat de cet incident?
   G- Avec un recul, selon vous qu’est-ce qu’il aurait fallu faire dans une telle situation?

5- Je suis intéressée à connaître les tâches essentielles reliées à la gestion de gens provenant de différentes cultures que vous devez accomplir dans votre travail.
   A- Dans votre travail, quelles sont les tâches directement reliées à la gestion d’une main-d’œuvre multiculturelle?
   B- Quelles sont les tâches qui vous permettent de déterminer les gestionnaires qui sont efficaces en gestion multiculturelle?
   C- Quels sont les comportements nécessaires permettant aux gestionnaires d’accomplir ces tâches?
APPENDIX I

TYPOLOGY VALIDATION GUIDELINES

Dear,

Let me begin by thanking you for having participated in an interview on multicultural managerial competence. Your comments were very insightful and contributed to the creation of a typology of competencies for managing a multicultural workforce both at home or abroad, in face-to-face settings and with the use of technology.

In order to validate the contents of this typology, I wish to ask for your participation once again. This time I only need you to do the following, namely to indicate: 1) Whether you believe the behaviors included in the typology are relevant; 2) Whether you believe there are important behaviors missing from this list.

Should you accept to help me, I will ask that you please read the enclosed document and put a check mark next to the items that you feel are NOT so relevant to the management of a multicultural workforce. Furthermore, should you believe there are important behaviors missing from each list, I will ask you to add them by including them at the bottom of each list. The exercise should take you about 20 minutes to complete.

When you are finished recording your comments, I would ask that you send the document back to me at dfortier@ubishops.ca. Please don’t hesitate to contact me if you have any questions regarding this exercise. Once all comments have been applied to the typology of multicultural managerial competencies, I will gladly send you the final product.

Many thanks once again for your most valuable help!

Denise Fortier
Doctoral Student
D'abord, je tiens à vous remercier d'avoir participé à mon étude sur les compétences managériales multiculturelles. Vos commentaires m'ont été d'une grande utilité et ont servi à enrichir le contenu de ma typologie pour la gestion multiculturelle en terrain d'origine et à l'étranger, soit en face-à-face ou par le biais de la technologie.

Afin de valider le contenu de cette typologie, j'espère vous inciter à participer à l'étape de validation. Cette fois, j'ai seulement besoin de savoir si :

1) Vous jugez que les comportements inclus dans la typologie sont pertinents;
2) Vous croyez qu'il manque des comportements importants dans cette liste.

Si vous acceptez de m'aider, je vous inviterai à lire le document ci-inclus en pièce jointe et, si c'est le cas, de mettre une coche sur les items que vous jugez comme étant peu pertinents à la gestion multiculturelle. De plus, je vous demanderai d'ajouter des comportements importants si vous croyez que ceux-ci sont manquants dans cette liste (prière de noter que je travaille en anglais donc la typologie n'a pas encore été traduite en français. Désolée.). Pour compléter cet exercice, vous aurez besoin d'environ 20 minutes.

Quand vous aurez terminé d'inclure vos commentaires, je vous demanderai de me faire parvenir le document complété à Surtout, n'hésitez pas à me contacter si vous avez des questions en lien avec cet exercice. Une fois l'ensemble des commentaires intégrés à la typologie, il me fera plaisir de vous faire parvenir la version finale.

Merci encore pour votre aide précieuse!

Denise Fortier
Étudiante au doctorat
Typology Validation Guidelines
Thank you for having accepted to participate in the validation phase of my study on **Multicultural Managerial Competence**. As you already know, the results from this study will serve to inform the contents of a Master's program in international management.

Please read the following lists of behaviors that relate to the 12 competencies outlined in bold. As you do so, I would ask that you **put a check mark next to the items that you feel are NOT so relevant** to the list. As well, if you believe there are **important behaviors missing from the list, please add them** in the space provided at the bottom of each section.

1- Demonstrates self-awareness and control

Displays the capacity and will to explain one’s own culture
Demonstrates an understanding of one’s own strengths and weaknesses
Recognizes one’s mistakes, apologizes, and adapts promptly
Acts with modesty, does not take self too seriously
Acts with confidence when facing challenges

Important behaviors to be added:

2- Displays cultural sensitivity

Prioritizes listening, observing, and understanding
Displays positive regard towards other cultures
Adapts to individual, contextual, and cultural expectations, avoids generalizations
Respects linguistic and nonverbal norms to establish shared meaning
Expects the unexpected

Important behaviors to be added:
Typology Validation Guidelines (continued)

3- Builds interpersonal relationships

Demonstrates trust, honesty, transparency, uses no hidden agendas
Invests time in relationship development, both formally and informally
Creates an open, collaborative, and respectful climate
Builds alliances by focusing on common cultural and linguistic identity
Shares one’s work experiences and credentials

Important behaviors to be added:

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4- Negotiates win/win agreements for joint business projects

Selects international partners carefully
Shows goodwill towards international partners
Displays political astuteness when interacting with foreign partners, respects hierarchy
Favours the use of logical arguments
Brings partners to see they have something to learn
Confronts others tactfully, enabling them to maintain face

Important behaviors to be added:

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5- Plans and organizes overall business projects

Learns foreign partners’ business practices
Explains own organization’s work practices
Adapts organizational recruitment practices
Selects people judiciously for domestic or foreign assignments
Insures mutual understanding of organizational objectives and agendas
Provides concrete organizational work plans and deadlines
Builds contingency into organizational work plans

Important behaviors to be added:
Typology Validation Guidelines (continued)

6- Monitors the accomplishment of overall business projects

Invests in detailed problem analysis initially to save time later
Shows examples of successful practices and solutions
Focuses on results rather than means, remains open to other ways of doing things
Sets up mutually acceptable control mechanisms for common business projects

Important behaviors to be added:

7- Displays multicultural team leadership characteristics

Demonstrates acceptance of the global nature of teams
Displays enjoyment when working with a multicultural workforce
DOES NOT blame problems on multicultural nature of the workforce
Engages in tasks that are asked of team members
Adopts new and often least-preferred work methods and roles

Important behaviors to be added:
Typology Validation Guidelines (continued)

8- Builds relationships within multicultural teams

Creates teams by judiciously combining members of different cultures
Facilitates multicultural understanding and integration among team members
Instils a climate of family, includes everyone as members of one’s own culture
Fosters an enjoyable and respectful team climate
Instils a zero-tolerance policy toward lack of multicultural respect within teams
Mediates between team members to clarify cultural expectations
Engages the help of cultural mediators within teams
Manages team conflict promptly
Dismisses problem group members

Important behaviors to be added:

9- Fosters accomplishment of team tasks

Holds regular team communication events, information meetings, and project reviews
Articulates a common goal for team members along with clear requisites and deadlines
Adopts procedures to facilitate team members’ participation
Asks questions to insure clarity, comprehension, and acceptance of ideas by team members
Offers coaching and follow-up for team members
Establishes guidelines about teams’ language use
Obtains team consensus by evaluating ideas against organizational requirements
Validates and rewards team members’ output
Celebrates successes with team members

Important behaviors to be added:
Typology Validation Guidelines (continued)

10- Coordinates geographically dispersed team members

Brings team members together face-to-face in warranted situations
Optimizes scheduling between geographically dispersed members
Engages people at distant sites in all phases of challenging projects
Brings cultural mediators to host site
Aligns work processes between remote and host sites
Evaluates geographically dispersed teams' output together

Important behaviors to be added:

11- Coordinates the use of IT tools

Taps into the strengths of IT tools when geographically separated from team
Allows team members to choose their preferred IT tools
Insures compatibility of IT processes and objectives
Establishes chain of command for distant communication
Adapts to differences in e-message content

Important behaviors to be added:

12- Adapts when living abroad

Enjoys engaging in novel experiences
Maintains one's identity while adopting new cultural norms
DOES NOT try to change the local culture
Gets involved in foreign community while respecting boundaries
Turns things around when faced with unsettling and profound challenges

Important behaviors to be added: