CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT PERFORMANCE ELEMENTS IN THE EXPATRIATE CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

This paper constructs a broad framework of the relevant performance elements of cross-cultural management through an overview of the relevant theoretical and research literature. A performance element is an "underlying characteristic that results in effective performance in a job" (Fraser, 1999, p.791). "The underlying characteristic could be a body of knowledge, motive, trait, skill, self-image or social role" (Fraser, 1999, p.791). An emphasis on broad performance criteria is relatively rare in expatriate performance management research (Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006). This paper proposes a framework of performance criteria including aspects of personality, experience, attitudes, knowledge and skills. The paper concludes with proposals for empirical research to explore the link between cross-cultural management performance elements and impressions of cross-cultural management performance by multiple raters.

Keywords: *Cross-Cultural Management, Performance Evaluation, Expatriate, Performance Management*

1. INTRODUCTION

Managing across cultures is an increasingly important skill for business leaders in this globalising world. Expatriates in particular, must effectively manage organisations and individuals across the cultural divide if they are to achieve long-term success in the host country. The unique aspects of cross-cultural management in the expatriate context deserve careful consideration, as the elements should be able to describe and outline the elements of cross-cultural management in the expatriate context. This paper addresses the problem of how to define the elements of the effective performance of expatriate managers.

Managerial performance elements have, for many years, been framed in terms of predictor constructs (Klimoski, 1993) or competencies (Boyatzis, 1982; Yukl, 1998) or performance elements (Fraser, 1999). Predictor constructs have been defined as "some aspect of a person which, if assessed, has relevance to predicting (or understanding) future behaviour or performance" (Klimoski, 1993, p.101). Predictor constructs are essentially personal constructs that have common meaning (Borman, 1987) and they are often categorised according to their perceived levels of permanence (Ackerman & Humphries, 1991). A personality trait, for example, is a relatively stable predictor construct, whereas cultural awareness is relatively malleable and responsive to training. The term 'performance elements' will be used in this paper rather than 'predictor construct' or 'competency' as this research attempts to look more broadly at the individual and contextual aspects that influence cross-cultural management.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Criteria for Selecting Cross-Cultural Performance Elements

This section will review the literature to identify a number of factors to consider when selecting a list of management performance elements relevant to cross-cultural management. First, the element must be relevant to the role of a cross-cultural manager. Second, the element must be perceived similarly by raters from different cultural and contextual backgrounds. Finally, the element should have been tested empirically in the cross-cultural context by raters from relevant cultural perspectives. We will now explore each of these factors in turn.

When relating performance elements to cross-cultural management, there are three common approaches. The first approach relates cross-cultural management performance elements to cross-cultural adjustment (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall, & Stroh, 1999; Tucker, Bonial, & Lahti, 2004) . The second approach relates cross-cultural management performance elements to intercultural

communication (Elashmawi & Harris, 1998; Mead, 1998). This research paper contends that adjustment and cross-cultural communication are only *part* of cross-cultural management performance. The third approach presents multiple laundry lists of 'must-have' competencies of cross-cultural management (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Ronen, 1989). Some authors have been critical of the multiple 'laundry lists' of 'must-have' competencies for cross-cultural managers as the lists do not have an underlying model that links the characteristics to effective management (Bird & Osland, 2004). This research paper joins with this criticism, and adds that most of these lists are not based on empirical research connected with the management context. In fact, most of these wish lists justify the inclusion of competencies by citing other research which is also based on non-empirical wish lists of competencies (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992).

As well as being relevant to the manager's role as a cross-cultural manager, the meaning of the element must be perceived similarly by raters from different cultural and contextual backgrounds (Ryan, Chan, Ployhart, & Allen, 1998). For example, the performance element of 'shows respect to subordinates' could be perceived as giving the subordinate autonomy in decision making in low context cultures, whereas the same element could be seen as giving gentle direction in some high context cultures. Meanings of elements could be examined by interviews with expatriates and host country nationals to ascertain how these elements are perceived. Respondents could explain their perceptions of what is important in cross-cultural management. Some preliminary interview research has explored this (Woods, 2004), however the research was limited to a multinational sample of just 64 participants and so further research is needed.

In addition to the element being relevant to the manager's role and having similar meaning to raters from different backgrounds, the element should have ideally been tested empirically in the cross-cultural context by raters from relevant cultural perspectives (Selmer, 1997). Unfortunately, this requirement is difficult to fulfil, as very little empirical research from these perspectives has been reported in the literature (Shay, 2000).

2.2 Distinguishing Types of Performance Criteria

The concept of individual managerial performance has been differentiated into two areas: task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Neal & Griffin, 1999). Task performance is defined as effectiveness in meeting job objectives and technical competence, whereas contextual performance is defined as effectiveness in performing aspects of the job that go beyond task specific issues and relate to the social, organisational or cultural context (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Although task performance is an important part of expatriate performance evaluation, the concept of contextual performance aligns more closely to the broader issues of people management associated with cross-cultural management performance (Woods, 2004).

These two components of performance, however, may not be easily distinguishable when evaluating the performance of cross-cultural expatriate managers. For example, contextual factors such as host country economic and political factors may affect task performance results such as efficiency and return on investment (ROI). Yet the distinction may help to explain how an expatriate manager with excellent technical skills can still fail on assignment due to poor contextual performance.

The concepts of task and contextual performance are related to hard (outcome based), soft (subjective criteria) and contextual criteria (situational factors related to employee performance) identified by Gregersen, Hite & Black (1996). This research project believes that it is important to consider all of these criteria when examining CCM. Soft criteria are based on subjective judgements and may include relationship or trait based factors (Gregersen et al., 1996). Adler (2002) suggests that these criteria, such as cross-cultural communication effectiveness or effectiveness in creating cultural synergy, are key determinants in cross-cultural management performance. Contextual criteria look specifically at the relevant variables of the situation where the manager is performing (Gregersen et al., 1996). The unique contextual nature of cross-cultural management highlights the importance of this criterion.

Hard criteria (or outcome-based criteria) include net income, return on investment, budget adherence, sales growth, and cost reduction. These outcomes are difficult to evaluate in terms of expatriate performance for a number of reasons. Some of the reasons include reporting and control procedures from the home office that are unsuitable in the host country due to economic, business system and

cultural differences (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992). For these reasons, therefore, hard criteria is often used to evaluate the performance of an overseas subsidiary, rather than individual managers (Borkowski, 1999) due to the complexity of factors influencing outcome based criteria. With these difficulties in mind, however, it is still reasonable that individual expatriate managers should reach relevant organisational goals measured by hard criteria (Black & Gregersen, 1999; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005).

2.3 Performance Elements and the Job Context in Expatriation

Managerial performance elements have been combined to form management competency frameworks where job competencies can be generic and applicable across work situations (Boyatzis, 1982; Yukl, 1998). However, critics of the competency framework (e.g. Bramming & Larsen, 2000) suggest that knowledge, skills and abilities need to be developed in a workplace situation context. These researchers propose that the work group itself defines the relevant knowledge, skills and abilities in groupings of "personal, functional, and social/ contextual" (Bramming & Larsen, 2000, p.83). They suggest an internal or external process consultant develops these competencies in conjunction with the work group. The organic nature of work teams might mean that this is a continuous process. Bramming & Larsen (2000) also believe the process of developing context specific competencies needs theoretical and empirical grounding. In essence, this process emphasises the importance of context based performance criteria in cross-cultural management. The process also involves establishing task-based performance criteria to evaluate expatriate's performance.

Previous research has examined the contextual influence of establishing performance criteria in the expatriate context. Suutari & Tahvanainen's (2002) research on 301 Finnish expatriate engineers, found that expatriates were typically able to set context specific task goals and subsequent performance criteria in consultation with their host country and home country managers. This contrasts with previous research (Black et al., 1992) where expatriates had little input into setting their performance criteria. These findings suggest the need for further research to establish if this trend applies to expatriates other than Finnish engineers and more specifically, if it applies to other cross-cultural managers.

2.4 Organisational Performance Criteria and Task Performance in the Expatriate Context

Beyond role specific factors, organisational performance criterion as part of task performance also plays a part in individual expatriate performance evaluation. Fenwick, De Cieri & Welch (1999) suggest that little research has been done regarding the performance management of expatriates in terms of observable behaviour measurement, compared to how the expatriate's performance contributes to organisational performance. They suggest that this is because expatriate performance management is focussed on the importance of the expatriate being an agent of head office control in their overseas posting. Fish & Wood (1997) further argue that determining the task performance criterion is extremely difficult due to the complexity of including hard, soft and contextual criteria in a fair and cohesive framework that is relevant in the cross-cultural and cross-national context.

The lack of clear task performance criterion for expatriates is widely recognised by researchers (Bonach, Brewster & Suutari, 2001). Brewster (1991) claims that appraisal based on subsidiary results is the most common means of expatriate performance appraisal. Armstrong (1994, p.93) argues that the criteria for assessing performance should be balanced between "achievements in relation to objectives, behaviour on the job as it relates to performance (competencies) and day-to-day effectiveness". *'Day to day effectiveness'* is a difficult criterion to measure for the expatriate manager unless the rater is in contact with the manager on a daily basis (Black et al., 1999), a proposition made more feasible when multiple raters are involved due to the accumulated frequency of contact possible. Armstrong's (1994) *'achievements in relation to objectives'* relates to an expatriate manager's overall performance, and is therefore part of the expatriate manager's task performance.

Ideally, the expatriate's superior and the expatriate derive these *objectives* from the corporate mission and strategies and negotiate task performance criteria in relation to the expatriate assignment. There is little evidence, however, that this process is carried out in expatriate's organisations (Black et al., 1999; Tahvanainen, 2000). Suutari & Tahvanainen (2002) provide evidence for the use of this method in deriving and negotiating objectives based on the corporate mission in expatriate

performance evaluation. They found that this practice was common amongst most of the 301 Finnish expatriate engineers they surveyed.

2.5 Combining the Criteria in the Expatriate Context

In summary, therefore, an ideal measure of intercultural management effectiveness includes both task and contextual measures of performance (Fisher, Hartel, & Bibo, 2000), taking into account company goals and individual performance. A fair performance evaluation would include the unique contextual variables that affect the task related outcomes. Performance criteria that are mutually derived by expatriate managers and their superiors within an equitable framework may help to overcome the challenge of contextual differences (Suutari & Tahvanainen, 2002).

Bhagat & Prien (1996) list some of the influences on performance as being: individual and family attributes; job characteristics and complexity; organisational level attributes (including the expatriate and organisational goals interaction); and degree of cultural difference between home and host country. The next section will examine individual attributes as performance elements.

3. PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

The individual attributes that affect cross-cultural management performance can be divided into six categories of managerial performance. Table 1 introduces the element categories as a basis for further exploration. The following paragraphs will consider each category in detail in order to provide a framework for examination.

TABLE 1
PROPOSED PERFORMANCE ELEMENT CATEGORIES

	Performance Element	Definition	Main Research
1	Personality	The relatively stable psychological and behavioural attributes that distinguish one person from another	Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, 2001)
2	Engagement / Experience	The degree of interaction with host country nationals and length of service on international expatriate postings	Jordan and Cartwright (1998), Caligiuri (2000)
3	Attitudes	Complexes of beliefs and feelings that people have about specific ideas, situations or other people	Ajzen and Fishbein (1980)
4	Knowledge/ Awareness -	Awareness of information or understanding of particular information areas	Early and Erez (1997)
5	Skills/ Competencies	Behaviours that can be modified through training and experience	Fish and Wood (1997), Jordan and Cartwright (1998)
6	Other	Performance elements outside of the expatriates control that have an impact on cross-cultural management performance	Mamman (1995), Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski (2001)

3.1 Personality Performance Elements

Personality is defined as the relatively stable psychological and behavioural attributes that distinguish one person from another (Caligiuri, 2000). Research by Van Oudenhoven and Van Der Zee (2000) using the 'Multicultural Personality Questionnaire' has highlighted the important connection between personality and multicultural activity, international orientation and aspiration of an international career, and expatriate adaptation and adjustment. Table 2 lists the definitions of the five reliable higher-level dimensions closely related to international aspirations and expatriate adjustment.

TABLE 2
MULTICULTURAL EFFECTIVENESS PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS (VAN DER ZEE & VAN OUDENHOVEN, 2001)

Personality Dimension	Definition
Cultural Empathy	The ability to empathise with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours or individuals from a different cultural background.
Open-mindedness	An open and unprejudiced attitude toward different groups and toward different cultural norms and values.
Emotional Stability	The tendency to remain calm in stressful situations versus a tendency to show strong emotional reactions under stressful circumstances.
Social Initiative	A tendency to approach social situations in an active way and to take initiatives.
Flexibility	A tendency to regard new and unknown situations as a challenge and to adjust one's behaviour to the demands of new and unknown situations.

These dimensions have not yet been linked to an evaluation of cross-cultural management effectiveness, although they have been linked to expatriate adaptation and adjustment (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000; J. van Oudenhoven, van der Zee, & van Kooten, 2001; J. P. Van Oudenhoven, Mol, & Van der Zee, 2003). The dimensions in Table 2 have been derived from previous quantitative research from expatriates and their supervisors, however the dependent variable in Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven's (2000) research and the research they used to derive the variables was not cross-cultural management effectiveness (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; McCall, 1994; Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997).

TABLE 3
PERSONALITY AND TRAITS IN CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT

Big 5 Personality Traits (Norman, 1963)	(Bird & Osland, 2004)	MPQ (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000)	(Harris & Moran, 2000)
		Flexibility	Flexibility and openness to change and others' viewpoints.
Openness to experience	Inquisitiveness	Open-mindedness	Thinking in multidimensional terms and considering different sides of issues.
Conscientiousness	Hardiness	Perseverance	Exercising patience, perseverance, and professional security.
Emotional stability		Emotional stability	Managing stress and tension well, while scheduling tasks systematically.
Agreeableness	Humility	Cultural empathy	
Extroversion	Cognitive complexity	Adventurousness	
	Integrity	High company commitment	Dealing with ambiguity, role shifts, and differences in personal and professional styles or social and political systems.

A further personality dimension termed 'tolerance of ambiguity' refers to where the manager functions productively in uncertain situations has been identified as being relevant to cross-cultural management (Harris & Moran, 2000; Yiu & Saner, 2000). An approach where experienced expatriates and host country subordinates are asked the open-ended question what personality dimensions they consider are important in cross-cultural management would help assess the value of these dimensions to cross-cultural management performance evaluation.

Table 3 on previous page attempts to compare the 'Big 5 Personality Traits' (Norman, 1963) with three other personality categorisations that have been derived in relation to intercultural effectiveness. The following paragraphs will compare the four different personality categorisations in order to determine which personality aspects may be relevant to cross-cultural management performance in the expatriate context.

Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) has examined the Big 5 personality traits (Norman, 1963) of emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience and conscientiousness in relation to expatriate adjustment through a literature review. She identifies these personality traits as stable cross-cultural competencies, which form the basis for developing the dynamic competencies of cultural knowledge and skills. This is in contrast to Bird and Osland's framework (2004). This framework presents global knowledge as the foundation for 'threshold' personality traits. Global knowledge is the necessary foundation threshold personality traits to play a role in accurately perceiving and analysing cross-cultural situations (Bird & Osland, 2004). Although both models lack empirical support, it does point to the importance of personality as a relatively stable influence on cross-cultural processes, thus supporting the argument for including personality as a separate category for evaluating cross-cultural management performance.

The ION framework proposed by Bird and Osland (2004) proposes four 'threshold traits' as global competencies as listed in Table 3. The table also presents a fifth competency of cognitive complexity, as it could be more accurately categorised as a trait rather than as an attitude or orientation. Cognitive complexity has been defined as the ability to 'see the complexity of things – markets, management issues, technological developments, political events – and make the connections between seemingly disparate pieces' (Boyacigiller, Beechler, Taylor, & Levy, 2004, p.83). Further research is needed to specifically examine the role of personality and other traits (such as cognitive complexity) in conceptions of cross-cultural management.

3.2 Experience Performance Elements

The degree of relationship development between expatriate and host nationals has been identified as an important characteristic of successful expatriates by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985). This variable is aligned with Mamman's 'intercultural experience' (Mamman, 1995). Cross-cultural experience can come from a number of sources, including international travel, exchange programs, and cross-cultural relationships established in the home country. This variable is also closely aligned to the concept of 'meaningful participation' in groups with cultural others, identified by Janssens and Brett (1997). All of these influences may have some influence on cross-cultural management effectiveness.

Experience alone does not indicate greater cross-cultural management competence (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Selmer, 2002). For example, colonial masters may be experienced in cross-cultural management, but if they continually adopt a superior attitude in dealing with local subordinates, their management performance may be sub-optimal. For this reason, the assessment of engagement is closely aligned with the level of openness one has to experience (Caligiuri, 2000), cultural sensitivity (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998) and the ability to exercise interpersonal influence (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000). For the manager relating to subordinates these factors are influenced by the degree of power distance in cultures and status attributions (Entrekin & Chung, 2001). Regardless of cultural influences and attributions, however, a manager still requires influence and status to operate effectively. However, the cross-cultural experiences of a manager may not necessarily lead to growing cross-cultural competence. As Bennett's (1998) developmental model of intercultural sensitivity illustrates, managers must be on a particular trajectory of development for experience to lead to higher levels of intercultural sensitivity.

3.3 Attitude Performance Elements

Attitudes have not been studied in relation to cross-cultural management performance very often (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) . Attitudes refer to our overall evaluations of objects (Haddock & Maio,

2004). They are personal constructs composed of our motivations in relation to experiences, beliefs and feelings (Maio, Esses, Arnold, & Olson, 2004). Bennett's DMIS presented in Figure 1 proposes that changes in cognitive structure are linked to an evolution in attitude and behaviour towards cultural difference (Bennett, 1986). Attitudinal development progresses from being ethnocentric to ethnorelative. Ethnocentric refers to 'using one's own set of standards and customs to judge all people' (Bennett, 2005, p.72). Ethnorelative refers to effectively dealing with multiple standards and customs and adapting judgements to varying interpersonal settings (Bennett, 1998). Attitude towards difference, therefore, is a crucial element in this framework and is worthy of further investigation in relation to cross-cultural management performance. The attitude of openness towards dissimilarity has been found to be a moderator between cultural diversity and organisational group processes and outcomes (Fujimoto, Hartel, & Hartel, 1999), which is relevant to a manager's role in managing cross-cultural groups.

FIGURE 1
BENNETT'S DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY (BENNETT, 2005, P.72)
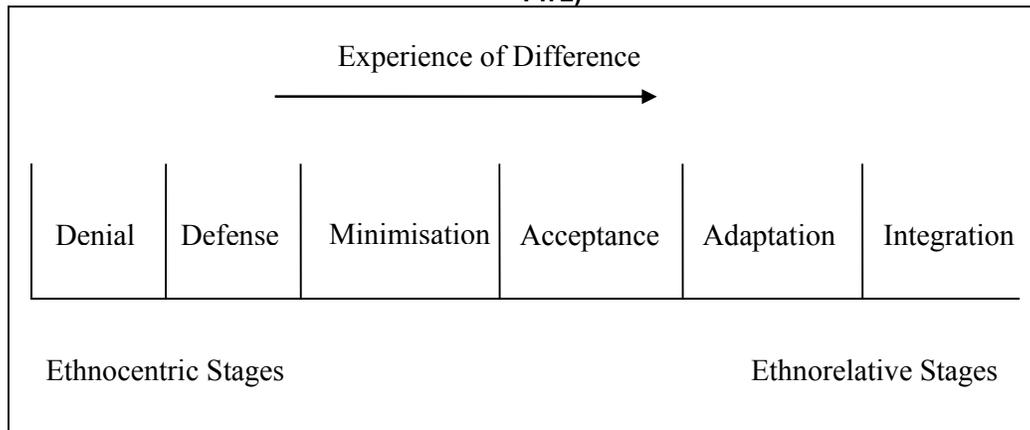
A number of attitudinal performance elements relate to cross-cultural management performance. 'Cosmopolitanism' is an attitude within the building blocks of global competencies framework (Bird and Osland, 2004). This attitude is refers to being interested in and oriented towards the outside world and being focussed on one's profession over one's organisation (Boyacigiller et al., 2004). This element has been conceptualised as an essential part of building a global mindset, where orientation and interest leads to effective gathering and categorising of relevant cross-cultural information. This element and 'openness towards dissimilarity' are closely aligned to the personality dimension of 'openness', where the direction of the trait (openness) is towards the specific topic of global and cross-cultural information or the specific topic of dissimilarity.

Other attitude based elements include the 'willingness to communicate' dimension (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) and the 'willingness to acquire new patterns of behaviour and attitudes' (Ronen, 1989). Utilising multiple raters to assess these elements would help to establish the observable performance of these attitudes rather than recording the attitudinal intentions of managers. This necessarily involves the *judgement* of raters, and along with personality, are quite subjective categories of performance elements. Ideally, attitude performance elements are assessed through observable behaviours.

3.4 Knowledge Performance Elements

Knowledge/ awareness performance elements align with the self-awareness performance elements identified by Early and Erez (1997) and the cultural awareness dimensions and cultural mapping process proposed by Lane (2000), Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) and Adler (1997). The definition of knowledge presented here is awareness of information or understanding of particular information areas. Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) has divided the knowledge relevant to expatriate adjustment into factual cultural knowledge (related to managing oneself), conceptual cultural knowledge (related to developing cross-cultural relationships) and attributional cultural knowledge (related to cross-cultural perceptions). The theory of cultural intelligence divides the knowledge relevant to cross-cultural adjustment as being universal (processes and conceptions needed for human interaction), mediate

(culture-specific knowledge) and setting-specific (knowledge tied to specific contexts, people and timing) (Earley, 2002). Knowledge performance elements that have been found to be strong predictors of cross-cultural management competence include self-awareness by Early and Erez (1997) and cultural awareness dimensions and cultural mapping proposed by Adler (2002), Lane, DiStefano & Mazneveski (2000) and Mendenhall & Oddou (1985).

Knowledge of the host culture is also a strong predictor of intercultural adaptation. Although this depends on an individual's attributional confidence and level of anxiety (Hullett & Witte, 2001). The research of Hullett & Witte (2001) modified Gudykunst and Hammer's (1988) theory of anxiety/uncertainty reduction to demonstrate that responses can be maladaptive where anxiety control rather than uncertainty control predominates in intercultural interactions. Knowledge of a culture, and the subsequent ability to make cultural attributions, can help to reduce anxiety. However, it is possible that if the predominant response of a person in interactions is one of high anxiety, that person may retreat further into cultural isolation rather than adaptation (Hullett & Witte, 2001). Therefore, cultural awareness without confidence can be maladaptive in cross-cultural situations.

The importance of cultural self-awareness has been equated with the cultural awareness of subordinate host national employees by a number of researchers (Adler, 1997; Earley & Erez, 1997; Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Phillips, 2000). Surprisingly, Fish and Wood (1997) deleted this competency after factor analysis of their data. However, due to the importance attached to this factor by previous research, it warrants further exploration as a performance element.

3.5 Skills Performance Elements

The common conception of skills is abilities and competencies. Competencies have been defined as "a dimension of overt, manifest behaviour that allows a person to perform competently" (Woodruffe, 1992, p.17). Table 4 presents the interpersonal skills identified as important to cross-cultural management. These skills include effective cross-cultural communication (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Harris & Moran, 2000), the ability to accurately identify and successfully negotiate cross-cultural conflicts (Sue & Sue, 1990; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2002), foreign language ability (Caligiuri, 2000; Fish & Wood, 1997; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Mamman, 1995), creating and building trust (Whitener & Stahl, 2004) and the ability to adapt management style to divergent situations (Fish & Wood, 1997; Rosen et al., 2000). The ION framework (Bird and Osland, 2004) extends the concept of cross-cultural communication to 'mindful communication'. Mindful communication involves being attuned to one's own inner processes while communicating and being aware of the assumptions, cognitions and emotions of the other party (Guirdham, 1999; Langer, 1989; Thomas & Osland, 2004).

TABLE 4
CROSS CULTURAL MANAGEMENT PERFORMANCE SKILLS

(Harris & Moran, 2000)	(Sue & Sue, 1990)	Other
Cross-cultural communication and demonstrating sensitivity for language problems among colleagues.	Articulating the problem	Language ability (Caligiuri, 2000; Fish & Wood, 1997; Kraimer et al., 2001; Mamman, 1995)
Anticipating consequences of one's own behaviour.	Mutual goal formation	Mindful communication (Thomas & Osland, 2004)
Dealing with unfamiliar situations and life-style changes.	Diminishing defensiveness	Creating and building trust (Whitener & Stahl, 2004)
Dealing well with different organisational structures and policies.	Recognising resistance	Boundary spanning (Beechler et al., 2004)
Gathering useful information related to future projects.	Developing recovery skills	Building community through change (Osland, 2004) Making ethical decisions (McNett & Sondergaard, 2004)

The ION framework (Bird and Osland, 2004) divides the skill set of global managers into interpersonal skills and systems skills. Systems skills include the concept of 'boundary spanning'. Boundary spanning involves the 'creating of linkages that integrate and coordinate across organisational

boundaries' (Beechler, Sondergaard, Miller, & Bird, 2004, p.122). Another systems skill is the ability to resolve cross-cultural value dilemmas (Fish & Wood, 1997; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2002). Another important skill in the expatriate context is the ability to play the role of 'cultural and organisation interpreter', facilitating understanding between host country, organisation and home office (Black et al., 1999; Fenwick et al., 1999; Fish & Wood, 1997). Other systems skills include building community through change (Osland, 2004) and making ethical decisions (McNett & Sondergaard, 2004) within a culturally relative context.

A landmark study (Fish & Wood, 1997) examined the opinions held by Australian human resources planners (n=36), Australian expatriates (n=53) and Australian repatriates (n=33) regarding the cross-cultural management skills required by Australian managers to undertake their business responsibilities effectively in the East Asian business region. The research was conducted using questionnaires, interviews and focus groups and provides a useful list of critical cross-cultural management competencies derived from previous research (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Boyatzis, 1982; Lobel, 1991). Factor analysis and focus groups of expatriates and consultants later refined this research. Table 5 lists the competencies grouped into four categories. All the competencies are ability or skills based, except for one based on 'understanding' and another based on 'knowing'.

TABLE 5
CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES - SOURCE - (FISH & WOOD, 1997)

A. Transformational Management Skills	B. Interactional Management Skills	C. Transactional Management Communication Skills	D. Foreign Language Skill
Ability to be receptive to new business attitudes and ideas	Ability to motivate staff in establishing business objectives	Ability to provide clear information to staff on goals	Ability to speak and comprehend unfamiliar languages
Ability to adapt new behaviour	Ability to establish close working relationships	Understand where to obtain information and assistance	
Ability to understand new norms	Ability to generate enthusiasm for organisational goals	Ability to set clear, agreed to objectives	
Ability to work within the local/ national politics	Ability to respond to staff developmental needs	Ability to encourage and foster close business associations	
Ability to recognise how an organisation's business practices are perceived	Ability to resolve business and personal conflict	Knows technical nature of role	
Ability to change business practices that are inappropriate	Ability to display emotional resilience		
Ability to recognise and deal with ethical requirements	Ability to understand the motivation of staff		
Ability to recognise whether business practices are transferable			
Ability to comprehend the international agenda of an organisation			

Although Fish & Wood's (1997) competencies present a standard for Australian expatriate managers, their application in expatriate cross-cultural management performance evaluation is limited in a few ways. The evaluation of the relevant importance of these competencies is limited to Australians only. Cross-cultural management competencies are necessarily of concern to the expatriate's subordinates of other cultures. Their perspective would be considered vital in establishing such competencies

(Selmer, 1997). An evaluation of competencies using raters from another culture would allow alternative cultural opinions and would help to test their applicability across cultures.

Furthermore, the competencies proposed by Fish & Wood (1997) were examined only in terms of judgements or opinions on what competencies are necessary. The competencies are yet to be tested in evaluating expatriate manager performance or any aspect of human resource management such as staff selection and training. It would be useful to further refine some of these competencies by utilising them in performance evaluation of expatriate managers, comparing them with more recent research (Lane et al., 2000; Tahvanainen, 2000), and evaluating their relative importance from the perspective of relevant stakeholders and alternative cultural views.

3.6 Other Variables of Expatriates' Cross-Cultural Effectiveness

Australian research on the variables influencing expatriate's intercultural effectiveness includes that conducted by Mamman (1995). The researcher conducted a literature search to elucidate key components. Table 6 presents these components. Mammam (1995b) did not directly examine expatriate effectiveness nor was a common measure of expatriate effectiveness used. The variables, however, might have the potential to influence expatriate intercultural effectiveness. Indeed, some of these variables have been explored in relation to expatriate adjustment (Caligiuri, 2000; Kraimer et al., 2001) and their role in cross-cultural management performance in the expatriate context deserves further exploration.

Mamman's (1995) 'cultural setting' variable is proposed as having three elements. These are the cultural toughness of the host country (after Black et al., 1991), the ethnocentrism of both host and sending country nationals, and the heterogeneity of the host's culture. The 'ethnic background of the expatriate' variable includes the ethnic stereotypes held by host country nationals, the prejudice of host country nationals, and the expatriate's perception of their own ethnic identity as influenced by how the host nationals perceive their ethnic identity and by the expatriate's own ethnocentricity.

TABLE 6
OTHER FACTORS IN CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT IN THE EXPATRIATE CONTEXT

(Mamman, 1995)	(Caligiuri, Jacobs, & Farr, 2000)	(Kraimer et al., 2001) - adjustment
Cultural Setting	Country difficulty	Cultural novelty
Ethnic Background of the Expatriate	Cross-cultural adjustment	Expatriate adjustment
Gender	Family adjustment	Spousal support
Nationality		Perceived organisational support
Religious Background		Leader-member exchange
Age		
Educational Qualifications and Intercultural Experience		
Role		Role novelty

With the exception of linguistic ability, educational qualifications and intercultural experience (which should be listed as separate variables), the variables suggested such as gender, age and nationality are largely outside of the expatriate manager's control. The variable may play a role as tempering influences on the appraisals of expatriate managers. If they are tempering influences, however, then they are worthy of consideration in performance appraisal. The importance of these variables related to performance of the expatriate manager is worthy of further investigation. These aspects may potentially temper influences on expatriate cross-cultural management performance.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed a broad framework composed of the constituent elements of cross-cultural management performance at the individual manager level. The performance elements of cross-cultural management performance should include both task and contextual performance. Where relevant, the performance elements should be uniquely tailored and be relevant to the cross-cultural context and to the manager's organisational context. The performance elements should also: - have

a similar meaning to raters from different cultural and contextual backgrounds; have been tested empirically in the cross-cultural context by raters from relevant cultural perspectives; and where possible, relevant elements should be behaviourally anchored or able to be translated to behaviourally anchored terms. To adequately assess cross-cultural management performance at the individual manager level, the criteria should include aspects of personality, experience, attitudes, knowledge and skills.

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