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THE STUDY OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION OF SOJOURNING TRAVEL, TOURISM, AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT. IMPLICATIONS FOR CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

by

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Date MAY 4 1998

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education in
Teachers College, Columbia University

1998

ABSTRACT

THE STUDY OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION OF SOJOURNING TRAVEL, TOURISM, AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT. IMPLICATIONS FOR CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

Charles Gladstone

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions by travel and tourism managers of the role of training in cross-cultural communication for the industry. The research was primarily directed towards defining the ways professional education and training can affect functioning and cross-cultural communication of tourism and travel managers on their overseas assignments. With this aim the study analyzed various factors of the managers' experience and background, such as education and training they received, their cross-cultural skills and competence, their cultural milieu, and other issues identified as supporting or interfering with cross-cultural communication.

This qualitative study was performed by means of in-depth interviewing about the details of participants' overseas experience, their cross-cultural communication skills, and their perceptions of value, content and methods of cross-cultural professional training needed for the industry. The study population comprised 15 travel and tourism executives who had at least five years of overseas experience and who were selected from the lists of tourism and travel professional organizations by means of random and referred sampling. Four women and 11 men of different nationalities and countries of origin represented

various areas of the industry, such as tour operations, airlines, hospitality, governmental tourism organizations, ground operations, etc.

Research revealed that none of the participants had received formal education related to travel and tourism though their college majors in economics, law, journalism, accounting, or foreign languages proved to be helpful in their professional functioning. Other important finding was the industry's negligence of on-the-job cross-cultural training. The interviewees reported that their learning of cross-cultural communication skills occurred mostly through informal training by peers, predecessors, or family members and through self-education and sojourning experience. In their analysis of "trial and error" learning they pointed to the heavy cost of this method in terms of time and professional efficiency of sojourners.

Discussing the educational needs of travel and tourism the participants expressed unanimous agreement that cross-cultural training should be an integral part of the professional preparation of sojourning managerial personnel. The major emphasis of such training should be made on the development of cross-cultural awareness, ethnorelativism, multiculturalism, respect and appreciation of other cultures. With regards to the content of such training the following areas were suggested: culture and cultural sensitivity, foreign languages, history, culturally oriented marketing and management. Research concludes with a set of recommendations on models and formats of cross-cultural training designed for development of cross-cultural awareness and communicative skills of travel and tourism managers.

DEDICATION

To Gail, my wife, for giving me the encouragement always to go forward.

To Professor Gita Steiner-Khamsi, my sponsor, for guiding me through the process.

To Professor Victoria Marsick, for her support of my research.

To Professor Florence McCarthy, for being there from the first day.

To Irina Averianova, for help, advice, and inspiration.

To all travel and tourism managers whose participation in this research made it possible.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Today modern business organizations in all parts of the world are making unprecedented changes in their business practices and are becoming global entities. No longer are companies contained within the borders of a single country. Transnational corporations in the United States, for example, depend upon the international marketplace for about one third of their corporate profits (Copeland & Griggs, 1985).

Many companies involved in tourism and travel participate significantly in this global marketplace. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC):

> Tourism is the world's largest industry, surpassing autos, steel, electronics, and agriculture. In 1994 this global industry's gross output of goods and services reached $3.4 trillion (USA). The WTTC also estimated that tourism created employment for 204 million men and women -- 1 in 9 workers worldwide. (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1995, p.4)

The World Tourism Organization reports that travel is increasing and that tourism expenditures continue to grow, setting new records (Witt & Mountinho, 1993). Tourism is no longer just available for the rich. It is now accessible to the ordinary men and women, the masses, and involves millions of people. In fact, in 1993, travel and tourism was the United State's leading export, generating $75 billion in revenue (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1995). The tourism industry has been steadily increasing since the late 1950s with the advent of jet travel. Air travel has continued to contribute to tourism with average annual growth rates in air traffic in the early 1990s of 6.1 percent in Europe, 6.6 percent in the United States, and 8.6 percent in Asia and the Pacific region (Witt & Mountinho, 1993). These increases indicate that travel and tourism is an important growth industry and is the reason why this study is of particular importance. New jobs have been and will continue to be created to service the expanding demands.

Attracting international tourists has come to be regarded as important to national growth and many governments have concluded bilateral and multilateral treaties to benefit their tourism trade (Witt & Mountinho, 1993). Tourism, hospitality and travel industries exercise an incalculable influence on the economies, politics, self-image, and worldview of many nations. As international tourism continues to grow in importance both politically and economically, cross-cultural communication becomes more and more important. Tourism is not only a major source of income for small and third world countries, but it is the number three industry in the United States, just behind automobiles and food stores, and accounts for six percent of the nation's GNP (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1995).

Multinational corporations involved in the tourism industry send executives overseas to manage their businesses. During their overseas assignments, American hospitality, tourism and travel managers organize and supervise corporate branch offices and facilities located in numerous countries with varying cultures. As a rule, these offices are staffed with local, host country employees working under the supervision of the American corporations. In the course of their sojourning abroad, international managers are subjected to close interaction with the host country's social, political, economic, and cultural reality and are exposed to numerous cross-cultural contacts both with their employees and clients. As the industry grows, chief executive officers, managers, and planners need to be concerned with enhancing communication among individuals on different levels of their organizations, such as overseas managers and local employees.

Why Focus on Training in Communication?

Efficient cross-cultural communication is essential for the elimination of breakdowns in the professional functioning of the industry employees. Work can stop or slow down if people are not understood or are misunderstood, causing inefficient use of

time and talents. This can result in businesses inefficiently using resources, which may cause loss of profits if the managers cannot or do not get what they need. Because upper tier executives and lower management nationals are often from different cultures, the breakdown in communication may result not only from inadequate professional performance of managers, but as the consequence of lack of skills and knowledge in cross-cultural communication. It is hypothesized in this study that tourism management does not pay enough attention to the problematic issues of cross-cultural communication that multinational companies are experiencing now and will surely face more and more in the future. It is alleged that managers in international hospitality, travel and tourism industries are often handicapped by "cultural tunnel vision" (Shames & Glover, 1989). They persistently set service standards, engage in marketing practices, and manage service staff without regard to cultural differences. Inability to communicate cross-culturally may lead to disastrous results. The need for trained and culturally sensitive management which takes into account not only cultural predispositions of the customers but also the dynamics of the culture of local employees, is an urgent issue for the industry.

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions by travel and tourism managers of the role of training in cross-cultural communication in managerial-subordinate work relations in the industry. Managing executives from multinational companies are often assigned overseas. Some become effective managers of local employees, while others do not seem to fare well. This study analyzed the way in which managers perceived their communication with their employees and focused on the knowledge and skills which they thought could help them relate well with those they

supervise. The study also looked at other factors which were perceived by managers to be related to their ability to communicate cross-culturally.

With the purpose to understand whether or not communication is influenced by the training that managers might have had prior to their assignments, the study addressed the problems of how well people were prepared to adjust and function in the new culture.

It also attempted to analyze other relevant factors, such as education, cultural awareness, cross-cultural competence, characteristics of the cultural environment, and other issues identified as supporting or interfering with efficient communication. The major purpose of this study was thus to understand how training might have impacted their effective professional communication.

Research Problem

The efforts to cope with the problems encountered by individuals living and working overseas have been at the center of many cross-cultural studies of the last few decades (Bennett, 1977, 1986a, 1986b; Dunbar, 1992; Hofstede, 1980; Pusch, 1979; Paige, 1986; and Ruben, 1989). According to studies by Black (1988) and Copeland and Griggs (1985), 16-40 percent of expatriate managers return prematurely from overseas assignments. Copeland and Griggs (1985) found that there was a 20-50% likelihood that employees assigned to overseas posts would return home before their assignments were completed, and for those sent to Third World countries, the rate was as high as 70%. One reason for the early returns may be that multinational corporations often select employees for overseas assignments who are successful at home, but their managerial style and communication skills that work well at home may not be the ones that work well abroad (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). It is believed by many researchers that people who had to return early were not sufficiently prepared to function in a new cultural environment.

Hofstede's (1980) seminal work on the nature of work values in different cultures pointed out the need for the exploration of the effects of culture on work-related attitudes and behaviors. Studies demonstrated that similarities in work values cannot be taken for granted across societies (Kanungo, 1980). And with the growth of international markets and competitiveness, businesses are beginning to examine how cultural factors influence organizational structures and systems (Tayeb, 1988).

Hofstede (1993) indicated that understanding "culture" as civilization in its manifestation in arts, crafts, and scholarship may be called culture in the narrow sense. Equally important for understanding culture in the wider sense is the understanding of acquired patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting which vary from place to place. It is important for a business sojourner to understand this wider sense of culture during his or her assignment abroad. These patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting are directly related to how people communicate their thoughts and emotions to each other. Moreover, the culture of managers and the culture of employees, are both composed of various cultural varieties represented by the members of the two cultural groups. Awareness and understanding of the complicated interlacing of different subcultures are essential for professional interactions and communication. It was assumed in this study that cross-cultural communication skills which are improved through training is the key to success for both managers and employees, and ultimately, for the growth of the company.

The last decade has seen an upsurge of interest in cross-cultural communication and its role in the functioning of business abroad. Many different models and approaches to training in cross-cultural communication have been proposed (Kohls, 1987; Hall & Gudykunst, 1989). The tourism industry is an excellent laboratory for exploring the importance of culturally sensitive communication and the effect training may have on it. The dynamic character of the tourism industry presupposes relocation of managers to different business sites and the consequent change of cultural milieu of the assignments. Some of their assignments may be of considerable length (up to several years), which

means that the profession mandates its employees to lead a nomadic lifestyle and experience separation from their native countries (Shames & Glover, 1989). This means that tourism and travel managers are often exposed to exercising their cross-cultural communication skills in new situations. Since managers often move from place to place, cross-cultural training cannot be oriented toward any specific cultural setting, but rather must be of a universal cross-cultural character. Within this context, the need for development of general cross-cultural awareness and communication skills in the industry's employees is paramount. However, international tourism, travel, and hospitality executives have not yet attracted as much attention from the scholars as have other representatives of the community of nomadic professionals. As tourism employees are equally subjected to the multiple experiences of entry and reentry into their native and host cultures, their experiences in cross-cultural communication and patterns of their training need to be studied.

Approach

To obtain the necessary data, the researcher examined a group of managers chosen from US, international, and foreign corporations and government tourism offices who had more than five years of experience working overseas. These executives were interviewed and their perceptions and experiences were examined in a qualitative study to determine answers to critical questions related to their perceived needs in cross-cultural training. Their analysis of the prior cross-cultural training which they had received was solicited with the aim of learning the effect of training on their performance, as well as to identify the direction and content of the most effective training for the industry. Also, the experiences of managers who had had training and those who had not were compared in order to see whether or not there is any discernible pattern of influence which cross-

cultural training can exercise on the professional communication of managers in cross-cultural situations.

Research Questions

This study was designed as an exploratory investigation guided by the following research questions: What role does training play in the cross-cultural communication of tourism managers and employees? Several subareas have been identified being related to the major research question. The exploration of these areas was guided by the following questions:

Question 1. What training if any did tourism managers have prior to their assignment abroad and how did they perceive this training affecting their cross-cultural communication?

Question 2. What kind of training do tourism managers perceive necessary and useful for the needs of professional cross-cultural communication during the overseas assignments?

Question 3. What other objective and subjective factors of the managers' background and experience abroad are perceived as facilitating or obstructing effective cross-cultural communication?

Areas of Study

Good communication between management and employees oils the wheels of business. Only when everyone understands what is needed can progress be made. Misunderstanding leads to disappointment and costly errors. Since management and employees in tourism are often of different cultures, cultural sensitivity on the part of management is essential. Two related areas of research needed to be addressed to unlock the complex nature of tourism management's cross-cultural experience and the role of training in it. The first area was the identification of the areas of cross-cultural

communication perceived important for professional performance of tourism and travel employees abroad. Within this area the identification of typical and most essential issues of cross-cultural difference was made. The second related direction of the research was the identification of the ways cross-cultural communication was influenced and transformed by the managers' intercultural training. This direction comprised the analysis of the use of cross-cultural training as perceived by international managerial staff of the tourism and travel industry. As an outcome of the findings within these two areas, the study arrived at implications of the research for cross-cultural training within the industry.

Ways in which people around the world interact differ due to culturally related variables. These variables may become significant barriers to understanding each other's messages. Some of these categories may be related to religious beliefs, personal and social values, and non-verbal patterns or body language. Each person builds up his or her communication skills along those acquired patterns representative of the culture to which he or she belongs. It was significant for this research to identify which patterns are effective within the alien cultural environment and which patterns can be culturally sensitive and cause misunderstanding and conflict interfering with professional performance of the employees. Within the first area of this study the researcher intended to look into the assessment of cross-cultural communicative content of the patterns of professional interaction experienced by the sojourning management abroad.

Assessment of the use and applicability of cross-cultural training received by managers prior to their allocation abroad comprised the second area of the research. It was anticipated that cross-cultural training had not become a necessary part of the professional preparation for overseas allocation within the industry. Therefore, the alternative direction of the research into this area was the need for this kind of training as perceived by managers, as well as possible identification of its content and methods.

Assumptions

This study assumed that the nature of communication is complicated by a nexus of social, cultural, economic and other types of relations typical for the host country, and these may more often than not be different from the parent company's country.

It was also assumed that cross-cultural sensitivity and cross-cultural competence facilitate effective cross-cultural communication in any cultural setting irrespective of the peculiarities of a given culture.

The major assumption of the study is that misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication result in negative outcomes for the industry, such as poor performance of managers and employees, premature returns, reallocations, and other heavy expenses on human and company resources.

Scope of Study

Intercultural communication which denotes the communication phenomena "in which participants, different in cultural backgrounds, come into direct or indirect contact with one another" (Kim, 1988, p.16), encompasses a very wide and diverse area of communicational practice. Within this broad area three distinct categories of communication can be identified in terms of number of interactants involved, degree of mediation, potentials for privacy, and/or clarity of distinction between message sender and receiver roles. These categories are interpersonal, organizational, and mass communication. This study dealt primarily with two categories, interpersonal and organizational communication. Interpersonal communication refers to the mental process by which one organizes oneself within and in relation to one's socio-cultural milieu, developing ways of seeing, hearing, understanding, and responding to the environment (Kim, 1988). Kim identified several important factors of cross-cultural personal communication, which were adapted for the purposes of this research. They are:

* The manager's cognitive perception of the host environment and his or her knowledge of its communicative patterns and rules.

* The manager's self-image in relation to the image of the host society and its members.

* The manager's motivation, i.e., his or her willingness to participate in the host society, and other personal issues.

All the variables identified as important for the personal and professional communication of tourism management within the host culture environment were included in the sphere of this research, with the focus, however, on communication at work.

A distinction is usually made between interpersonal communication and mass communication. Mass communication is defined as any type of contact with the host culture. It extends beyond the immediate environment of the workplace and, although it is extremely important in its impact on perceptions and behavior of people, it is too broad an area to be studied in this research. This study is limited to interpersonal interactions on the job.

The perceptions and opinion of the participants of the research have served as a basis for the determination and assessment of the various issues of cross-cultural communication and their importance for the professional performance of tourism executives. Thus the scope of the study was of a subjective interpretative nature based on the testimony of the respondents.

Significance of the Research

This study was designed to fill a gap in the research on the role of intercultural training in successful cross-cultural communication in the tourism, travel and hospitality industry. Although knowledge of the experiences of nomadic executives can contribute to

a better general understanding of the problem of cross-cultural interaction, for the travel industry in particular the implications of this study may be very significant.

While most tourism educators accept the importance of the idea of cultural communication, in practice, however, the idea is not incorporated into their educational programs and not communicated to, or explored with, their students. It is assumed that there is a need to develop cultural sensitivity in tourism employees. It is also assumed that there is also a need for them to understand the positive and negative issues surrounding impacts of tourism, such as increased revenues for the region vs. the destruction of traditional cultures and the environment. Negative perceptions can cloud tourism as a beneficial economic enterprise (Steffen & Marshall, 1995). Becoming aware of the variety of perceptions and points of view should facilitate better understanding and, therefore, better communication.

The importance of this study revolves around the benefits that may accrue to better communication once management has been trained to be more culturally sensitive. Shames and Glover (1989) perceived the following list of directions in which any industry dealing internationally can improve its activities when a serious consideration of cross-cultural communication is provided in training:

* Increased manager/employee relationships and understanding;
* Increased experience of success for overseas executive management
* Increased job performance;
* Increased productivity due to better understanding;
* Improved customer relationships resulting from a more efficient and satisfied staff;
* Higher sales and/or occupancy because of more consistent customer satisfaction;
* Increased repeat business from positive word-of-mouth publicity;
* Reduction of operational costs resulting from ineffective management;

* Better return on training investment for overseas executives.

Though this appreciation of the positive outcomes of effective training may seem somewhat ambitious, this researcher supports the position of Shames and Glover (1989) with respect to the perceived importance of cross-cultural training. Being one of the models of cross-cultural education, professional cross-cultural training can become powerful means to staff the industry with culturally sensitive, open-minded personnel able to successfully function in any cultural environment.

Another benefit of effective cross-cultural communication acquired through training can be sought in the personal empowerment of the participants. As they become more and more successful in the process of communicating, there is a snowball effect which empowers them. They are given power through the interactive process as empowerment is created in the give and take of daily interactions (Watkins & Marsick, 1993), and it is assumed that this empowerment becomes a powerful force for effective communication between the international employers and their employees.

Definition of Terms

Sojourners, *expatriates*, and *overseas personnel* is a set of synonymous terms used alternatively throughout the paper. These terms denote individuals who travel voluntarily to a new culture, usually for specific objectives such as educational or occupational opportunities. These people view their residence in the new culture as transient, and they have expectations of returning to their country of origin (Ward & Kennedy, 1994).

Executive and managerial personnel of the travel, hospitality and tourism industry is a category of employees occupying managerial positions in hotel management, airline, government tourism, and transnational travel companies. While assigned abroad, tourism and hospitality managers are usually responsible for

management, control, and implementation of services in regions to which they have been assigned (Dunbar, 1992). These executives may also be responsible for developing new markets in their settings, where social and business practices may be significantly different from, if not at odds with, the United States' attitudes and customs (Hofstede, 1980).

Organizations are *companies* or *corporations* and all three words can be used interchangeably.

Corporate culture is the code of conduct and rules of behavior that are widely accepted within a company.

Ethnocentrism is the belief that one's culture is better than another culture.

The travel and tourism industry is the umbrella term which includes tourism, travel, hospitality, airlines, ground operations and other areas of services provided to people who go to a different geographic location.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concurrent with the purposes of the study the literature review includes the analysis of two separate bodies of research. The first involves the identification and exploration within the study of cross-cultural communication of personal, institutional, and contextual variables, which determine the patterns of communication experienced by tourism managers in the cross-cultural environment. In understanding how the psychological and behavioral patterns of one culture affect the professional performance and communication of a person from a different culture this researcher's aim is to identify the nature of knowledge and skills necessary for successful cross-cultural communication. What is of special interest in this area is the understanding of areas of cross-cultural competence that training can address and facilitate. The second set of the reviewed sources deals with the overview of the methods, content, and objectives of cross-cultural training. Within this area the researcher intends to perceive how the needs for cross-cultural communication skills are addressed by the existing training models for sojourning personnel.

In these two areas of literature the studies often relate to both areas as the analysis of training effectiveness is based on the identified characteristics of cross-cultural communication, while the study of cross-cultural communicative patterns seeks the solution how to facilitate intercultural understanding through training. Although culture shock, personal adjustment, cultural adaptation, cross-cultural effectiveness and sensitivity are different from cross-cultural communication per se, it is assumed that they all influence cross-cultural communication and success of professional performance of personnel abroad.

Research has consistently assigned these factors of cross-cultural communication great significance in business and personal interrelationships (Kim, 1988; Ruben, 1989;

etc.). The research has tried to understand the role which poor cross-cultural communication has played in the early return of some employees from their appointments overseas in a variety of industries and to relate poor communication skills to the employees' burnout, inability to negotiate well, loss of money and time, adjustment difficulties and lack of cultural participation. With the perception of these negative outcomes of insufficient preparedness for cross-cultural communication and interaction, a growing attention is directed towards cross-cultural training, its content, models, and effectiveness.

Factors Involved in Cross-Cultural Communication

According to Hoopes and Pusch (1979), cross-cultural communication presents a complicated communication process between people of different cultural backgrounds: "It may take place among individuals or between social, political or economic entities in different cultures, such as government agencies, business, educational institutions or the media" (p. 6). No matter who is involved, this communication is always a composite of verbal and non-verbal intercourse, using different linguistic and non-linguistic codes. Hoopes and Pusch viewed culture as a complex composite of various factors, which are intrinsically involved in the communication process.

Research on the nature of cross-cultural communication has revealed that this communication includes an extensive list of social, cognitive, and emotive aspects (Dinges, 1983; Bennett, 1986a, 1986b; Howell, 1979). These aspects present a complicated aggregate of both objective and subjective factors which also vary significantly along the lines of cultural and ethnic affiliation of communicants. Similar conclusions were found in the literature on multicultural education which showed the significant influence on the efficiency of communication of such characteristics as race,

class, gender, religion, and other manifestations of social diversity (Banks & Banks McGee, 1993).

Different factors that the research on intercultural communication identified as relevant and important can be grouped into three categories: contextual, organizational, and individual (Dunbar, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Within these groups this researcher has identified several subgroups which are reported by the literature (Dunbar, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993) as the most important in the process of cross-cultural communication.

Contextual Variables

Contextual variables have to do with a specific place and are objective in nature. They are related to the culture itself, the context in which a sojourner finds himself or herself, and exclude those factors that can be changed by personal and organizational control. The variables of cultural context involved in cross-cultural communication are numerous and depend on the specific cultural setting analyzed. Mendosa (1989), for instance, mentioned the following set of contextual variables that should be considered as important factors in communication: religion, respect for authority, conducting business face-to-face, innovation/change, feelings, and the legal system.

It is significant to note that recent literature has shifted the accent from physical aspects of the host culture's environment to its philosophical, social, moral, and other non-physical characteristics. In previous decades the physical characteristics of the environment seemed to be more important for the professional functioning of the sojourners abroad. But nowadays sojourners are frequently stationed in a large urban area that is assumed to provide the goods, the services, and social outlets which are required in meeting the needs of foreign residents. Philosophical, social and moral values have moved into the spotlight, and these should be explored in a greater detail (Dunbar, 1992). For the purposes of this study it seems appropriate to deal with two major groups of contextual variables: psychological and sociolinguistic.

Psychological Variables

Hofstede (1980) in his study of 53 subsidiaries of a large multinational corporation found that in the process of communication different sets of cultural values were introduced. He found that these differences in values across cultures could be categorized into four dimensions. These four important dimensions that affect the cross-cultural communicative situation which is relevant to managers and their employees who belong to different social groups were:

* Individualism vs. Collectivism (self-concept of "I" or "We")
* Power Distance (the difference in the amount of authority a person has over another person)
* Uncertainty Avoidance (the way society deals with conflicts and aggression and other ambiguous situations)
* Masculinity vs. Femininity (gender differences and sex roles which affect people's self-concepts)

Hofstede's research implies that these differences determine different attitudes in different countries towards discipline, obedience, and initiative of subordinates, politeness, ways of expressing emotions and other issues. How these issues are handled may also define hierarchical differences, which in some cultures are not essential in the professional activity, but which may become crucial for professional relationship in other cultural contexts.

Within the first dimension of cultural variables, Hofstede defined individualist cultures as those where individuals look out for themselves and their immediate families, while in collective cultures people are loyal to a larger community, which protects them. This has been noted by other researchers as well. For instance, Yum (1988) explored the philosophical roots of communication patterns in China, Korea, and Japan (East Asia). These three countries are rooted in Confucian philosophical principles. Yum showed that communication (a fundamentally social process) is influenced by the philosophical

foundations and value systems of society. This finding is supported by the research on the differences in communication styles of Asian and North American employees by Hui and Triandis (1986). Forty-six psychologists and anthropologists from all over the world responded to a questionnaire about individualists and collectivists describing ten people in seven situations. They found that Asian employees operate under a collectivist paradigm (the society is more important than the individual), while the North American employees operate under an individualist paradigm (the individual is paramount). Each differently defines attitudes about the importance of social network, other people's opinions and social influence, as well as readiness to conform with the rules of the peer group, attitudes towards interdependence and involvement in others' lives, and overall concern of the others and the need for this concern for themselves.

The individualism-collectivism dichotomy's impact on communication is shown by many authors to be one of the major causes that lead to a breakdown in communication. The dominant paradigm used in American communication is an individualistic one. Each communicator is perceived to be a separate individual engaging in diverse communicative activities to maximize his/her own self-interest. In the United States there is a sharp dichotomy between private and public life. Applying different rules to different people is perceived as violation of sacred code of fairness and objectivity (Yum, 1988). In East Asian countries, on the contrary, there is a tendency to mix personal relationships with public relationships. According to principles of social reciprocity, an effective business relationship is established on a solid personal and human basis. East Asian languages are very complex and differentiate people according to social status, degree of intimacy, age, sex, and level of formality. There are also extensive and elaborate honorific linguistic systems. The importance of social relationships in Confucian societies has promoted the differentiation of linguistic codes to accommodate highly differentiated relationships. "Defending face," for instance, is one of the main factors influencing Japanese behavior. Therefore, the Japanese have a number of

mechanisms -- mediated communication, delegate communication and other forms of indirect communication designed for this purpose which may seem strange and inexplicable to people from other cultures (Yum, 1988; Imahori & Cupach, 1994).

The second dimension -- power distance -- was defined by Hofstede (1980) as the extent to which the less powerful people in a culture accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. For the sojourner abroad, the question of power is not clear-cut because both parties, the sojourner and the host country employees, have some kind of power. The relevance of the power distance dimension for management performance sets the stage for the give and take between sojourners and employees.

This relevance of power was shown in the research by Mead (1990) who replicated Hofstede's model (1983). According to Mead, in some cultures power distance is very important. Sometimes employees are very cooperative when dealing with superiors but are reluctant to cooperate with peers. In cultures where power distance is not as important, the reverse applies, and the individual is freer to implement his or her own ideas. Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey and Chua (1988) noticed that there is a great distance between those who have power and those who do not:

> Individuals from high power distance cultures (there is a lot of distance between parties) accept power as part of society. As such, superiors consider their subordinates to be different from themselves and vice versa. High power distance cultures see power as a basic fact in society, and stress coercive or referent power, while low power distance cultures (there is not a great distance between those interacting) believe power should be used only when it is legitimate and prefer expert or legitimate power (p. 47).

Similarly, Hofstede (1980) found that in companies belonging to high power distance cultures there is much more close supervision, fear of disagreement with supervisor, lack of trust among coworkers, and directed supervision than in low power distance cultures. Members of low power distance cultures see respect for the individual and equality as antecedents to "freedom," while members of high power distance cultures view tact, servitude, and money as antecedents to "freedom." In low power distance

cultures, antecedents to "wealth" include happiness, knowledge, and love. In contrast, inheritance, ancestral property, stinginess, deceit, and theft are viewed as antecedents to "wealth" in high power distance cultures.

Folb (1988) explored norms of behavior and interaction of dominant and nondominant social groups. He contended that the presence of a power elite ensures an asymmetrical relationship among the members of the society. However, the perpetuation of the power elite through force is not the most effective or efficient way of ensuring one's position at the top of the hierarchy. It is considerably more effective to institute, encourage, and/or perpetuate those aspects of culture -- knowledge, experiences, beliefs, values, patterns of social organization, artifacts -- that subtly and manifestly reinforce and ensure the continuation of the power elite and its asymmetrical relationship within the society (p. 124).

Certain interesting implications for this study can be also found in the third dimension of Hofstede's model. According to Hofstede (1993), avoidance strategies are used when people try to avoid difficult situations by strict rules of behavior, intolerance of deviants, and a belief in absolute truths. Deviant behavior is not acceptable in cultures which avoid uncertainty. People find a consensus and avoid change. They have less tolerance for ambiguity and are more anxious. People who do not avoid uncertainty have less stress and weaker superegos, will disagree among themselves and take more risks. Workers in these two kinds of cultures will react differently when they are faced with a situation in which they are uncertain. Those who want to avoid uncertainty prefer clear instructions and want to avoid conflict more than employees who do not avoid situations in which something is uncertain.

Within the fourth dimension of cultural divergence which Hofstede labeled "Masculinity versus Femininity" another set of dominant social values is revealed. In his perception, in masculine cultures, the dominant values are success, money, and things, whereas its opposite pole, Femininity, is defined as a "situation in which the dominant

values in society are caring for others and the quality of life" (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p.420). In masculine cultures men are expected to be ambitious, assertive, concerned with money, and to admire whatever is big and strong. Women are supposed to care and serve. In feminine cultures, men and women are both expected to be non-competitive, modest, concerned with relationships, and to sympathize with whatever is small and weak. Hofstede (1993) also noted that:

> Cultural systems high on the masculinity index emphasize differentiated sex roles, performance, ambition, and independence. Conversely, systems low on masculinity value fluid sex roles, quality of life, service, and interdependence (p. 3).

He found that in comparison to people in feminine cultures, people in masculine cultures have stronger motivation for achievement, view work as more central to their lives, accept their company's "interference" in their private lives, have higher job stress, have greater value differences between men and women in the same position, and view recognition, advancement, or challenge as more important to their satisfaction with their work. He illustrates communication in a feminine culture by quoting Hall's (1959) description of behavioral patterns in Iran:

> In Iran men are expected to show their emotions. Iranian men read poetry; they are sensitive and have well-developed intuition and in many cases are not expected to be too logical. They are often seen embracing and holding hands. Women, on the other hand, are considered to be coldly practical. They exhibit many of the characteristics we associate with men in the United States. A very perceptive Foreign Service officer once observed: "If you think of the emotional and intellectual sex roles as reversed [from the United States] you will do much better out here" (p. 50).

It is important to understand that men's and women's attitudes toward professional relationships may also be different across cultures. Female managers of female and male employees may have different problems than male managers of female or male employees. Managers need to be sensitive to the fact that all cultures may not be the same.

Fry (1995) said that "even very competent women are less likely to seek positions of high-profile leadership because of the anxiety associated with making mistakes or failing to meet their own high expectations of themselves" (p. 213). He observed that successful women in executive positions in the US use different coping strategies from men to help them alleviate this anxiety and fulfill their roles advantageously. They use perfectionism, humor, and optimism to help them cope in stressful situations. He points out that humor is a very important coping mechanism and that it "may exert a stress-moderating effect because it provides a means of communicating stressful ideas that might otherwise be distressing to both parties involved in such communications" (p. 217).

Sociolinguistic Diversity - Language

Of course one of the most important components of communication is language and language is loaded with important cultural/contextual values. Wolfson (1990) said that appropriate speech is learned in early childhood within the context of each society. She also stipulated that language is linked to such attributes as good manners, honesty, sincerity and that it is often difficult for language learners, and for native speakers with whom they interact, to accept the notion of diversity along these lines. There is the tendency of members of one speech community to judge the speech behavior of others by their own standards. And since the rules are very likely to be quite different, misunderstandings are almost inevitable (Wolfson, 1990).

This deviation in the rules from one speech community to another is called interference or linguistic transfer and is the cause of miscommunication across cultures. Wolfson's further conclusion is that there is great variability across cultures with respect

to sociolinguistic norms and behavior patterns and this variability provides fertile ground for miscommunication (Wolfson, 1990).

This conclusion is also supported by Kim (1988), who believes that since a great deal of our learning consists of communication responses to stimuli from the environment, communication activities function as an instrumental, interpretative, and expressive means of coming to terms with our physical and social environment. He emphasizes that the communication process underlies any adaptation process. In his opinion, "adaptation occurs through the identification and the internalization of the significant symbols of the host society" (Kim, 1988, p. 383). As "one learns to communicate by communicating" (Kim, 1988, p. 384), then with practice, the sojourner managers may get better in recognizing verbal and nonverbal cues initially denied to them.

Kim also feels that motivation facilitates the adaptation process. By motivation he refers to "the willingness to learn about, participate in, and be oriented toward the host socio-cultural system" (p. 385). This implication is important for this research as it introduces into the sphere of analysis such variables as sojourners' attitude towards the culture of their allocation and the valence they apply to this job in general.

Research has identified some lines of possible linguistic deviation that American managers may experience abroad. They are related to the specific national speech patterns typically attributed to Americans. Though some of the following observations seem to be overgeneralized and stereotypical, they still point to a significant difference in communicative approaches. Thus, it was noted by Yum (1988) that contrary to the American "tough talk" (strait, precise and explicit manner of direct communication),

Asian people prefer subdued tones of voice and indirect communication. For instance, where an American might try to be indirect to get someone to close the door and say, "The door is open," a Japanese would say, "It is somewhat cold today" (Okabe, 1987). Japanese people prefer indirectedness and the inclusion of an intermediary or emissary to avoid face-to-face confrontation. For example, the Japanese employ 16 evasive "maneuvers" to say "no," while Americans are strait-forward, to the point, and just say "no" (Imai, 1981).

Another western sociolinguistic pattern which is not shared around the world is connected with the perception of time as money. Americans would tend to get to the point as quick as possible. At the same time representatives of African and Middle Eastern cultures where time is not equated with money will take their own pace in establishing communication and dealing with professional matters (Ching-Yick Tse & Frayed, 1994). Business people need to work at creating long-term relationships and prove their sincerity by taking the time to cement their relationships.

Cultural Novelty

One of the other important contextual variables identified by the research is the "culture novelty" of the host country. Parker and McEvoy (1993) found culture novelty very important after studying intercultural adjustment of individuals working in business, government, and educational settings. According to their study, depending on the expatriate's country of origin, some cultures are likely to present more difficulties in cross-cultural communication than others are. These characteristics of the country are also known as "cultural distance" (Church, 1982) or "culture toughness" (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Research generally supports the view that the more different the host-

country culture is from the home country culture, the more difficult is the initial stage of sojourner's professional functioning there and the more difficulties he or she may find in communication (Black & Gregerson, 1991). While the effects of culture novelty are likely to be more pronounced in relation to interaction and general living adjustment, "they may also show up in work adjustment due to the presence of host country nationals in the work setting" (Parker & McEvoy, 1993, p. 365). It may be also assumed that the degree of culture novelty may be contingent on the amount of the necessary training.

Parker and McEnvoy hypothesized that culture novelty is negatively related to all three facets of intercultural adjustment (contextual, organizational, and individual). In their research, respondents from 21 different countries working in 12 foreign countries filled out 169 questionnaires. They found that the non-controllable, contextual variable -- culture novelty -- was an important factor in how people adjusted to their new environment. Their findings, however, were not supportive:

> General living adjustment was positively associated with culture novelty. The expatriates sampled reported greater general living adjustment when culture differences with the home country were the highest (p.371).

The implication that these finding have for international companies is significant. It has been thought that greater difference in culture may result in poor intercultural relationships and communication, but in fact, great difference may cause intense or increased interest on the part of the sojourners, which may help them to understand the host culture better.

Similar Cultures

Even in the communication of cultures that are not seemingly very distant, such as American and Western European societies, considerable discrepancies are still observed and they demand certain awareness for the sake of successful communication. A very important conclusion was made in Kopper's (1993) analysis of Swiss and Germans'

work-related values, attitudes, and behaviors. The study of these supposedly similar cultures showed that differences among neighboring cultures are often underestimated and can increase the risk of cultural clash.

This finding is supported by Reynolds (1984) who studied the difference in cultural values between Germans and Americans. Reynolds showed that Germans are competence-oriented (concerned about the way somebody does something, how well someone is trained) while Americans are egocentric or personal-oriented (concerned about what they believe inside themselves). Extending her conclusions to the professional sphere, and the professional interaction of the representatives of both nations, Reynolds emphasizes that though values are generally similar for Germans and Americans, Germans tend to place more importance on obedience, politeness, intelligence, cleanness, logic, and self-control (discipline and training). A difference in how something is valued or the weight of that value can cause problems in communication and conflicts. Similar findings were reported by Friday (1989) who found that Germans and Americans value personal ties to their companies differently. Germans identified with their company or corporation more personally, while Americans felt their connections were more impersonal in nature. On the basis of these findings the author was able to explain contrasts in behaviors of German and American managers and to point out the need for transcultural adaptation and awareness for managers.

Culturally specific contextual characteristics are very important because the cultural priorities of people have great influence on their behavior and interactions with others in both formal and informal settings. These cultural priorities also influence management, attitudes towards management, and communication of people within organizations and with organizations (Mead, 1990).

Organizational Variables

Organizational characteristics that are considered relevant for the achievement of international personnel in an alien cultural environment stem from policies within the organization, company or corporation. They depend upon a company's vision. concepts. ideas and policies. Black and Gregorson (1991) and Tung (1982) contended that some of the important organizational variables that affect cross-cultural communication in a new culture and impact on employees' success include:

* compensation and benefits
* length of overseas assignments
* promotion and career development policies
* predeparture and repatriation training
* contact with the home office
* assignment of mentors back home.

These variables lie within the control of the company or organization. An understanding of these variables can help a company know what it can do, and what is in its control, to help facilitate a successful sojourn for its employees. One of these variables, training, is of primary importance for this study, though other variables of this group as well may help to understand what factors besides training influence cross-cultural communication.

Organizational variables are affected by national and ethnic culture. In this respect they are closely related to contextual variables. The lines of demarcation between one area of variables and another is not straight or clear; they overlap. Research by Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillio (1982) showed that Japanese born managers serving in America are "profoundly socialized into the values and procedures of the parent organization's corporate culture" (p. 268). The term "corporate culture" has been defined as a "pattern of shared beliefs and values that give the members of an institution meaning, and provide them with the rules for behavior in their organization" (Davis,

1984, p. 3). Usually those managers who are serving tours of duty abroad are profoundly socialized into the values and procedures of the parent organization's corporate culture before leaving home. They know their corporate culture inside and out (Rubin, DeHart, & Heintzman, 1991). But the corporate culture may not work well in a new cultural setting.

One of the features of corporate culture that is crucial for cross-cultural communication is ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism is the belief that the values and attitudes held in one's own culture are superior to those held by people of other cultures (Wortzel & Wortzel, 1985). The degree of ethnocentrism within corporate cultures is one of the factors that define the way organizations approach their business relationships abroad. The findings of Hall and Gudykunst (1989) showed that ethnocentrism influences international business in the attitude of organizations towards the kind and amount of intercultural training for their employees assigned to overseas duties. Ethnocentrism also affects managerial styles and communicative patterns learned by employees within their companies. More than three decades ago, Hall and Whyte (1960) pointed out that management communication styles may be culturally conditioned, and that international managers need to be mindful of the degree to which their styles match or fail to match host nation patterns.

There is a considerable amount of literature investigating Japanese management styles and contrasting them with the styles identified as generic for North American corporate organizations. For instance, Pascale and Athos (1981) found that one of the fundamental differences between Japanese management and American management is personalized, interdependent relationships among Japanese managers and employees.

This finding is also supported by Rubin, DeHart, and Heintzman (1991) who found that the typical Japanese compliance-gaining style is perceived to be more dependent on altruistic motives by both managers and employees than typical North American management. Employees in Japan may expect this type of benevolent, personalized relationship with their managers and if they do not receive it, they may be

not as productive or successful as they could be. In their study Rubin et al. used a matched guise technique in which one person, an American, who was fluent in both American English and Japanese, tape-recorded four different messages with four variants. Using the same person for all accents the researchers tried to avoid the introduction of other characteristics beside accent that might interfere with the study. The compliance gaining strategies used in the research included:

Japanese versions:

altruism: "For the sake of the company . . ."

duty: "We are counting on you . . ."

counsel: "If there is any way I can help you meet your goals . . ."

favor: "As a personal favor to me . . ."

American versions:

threat: "Those people who fail will not be with the company very much longer . . ."

promise of reward: "An increase in sales production will be rewarded"

direct request: ". . . we expect you will do just that"

reference to contractual obligations, etc.

The four variants were:

a) standard American accent/American compliance-gaining style

b) standard American accent/Japanese compliance-gaining style

c) Japanese accent/American compliance-gaining style

d) Japanese accent/Japanese compliance-gaining style.

The tape recorded situation presented a sales manager directing his sales representatives to spend more time developing new customer leads and less time servicing existing accounts. The participants were 70 native English-speaking undergraduates from a College of Business at a South Eastern university. These participants, who were about 21

years old, were thought to be typical of the kind of person who might be employed by Japanese companies here in the United States.

Rubin, DeHart and Heintzman's findings were very interesting. Regression results showed that listeners' perceptions of the nature and of the management style -- which may or may not have corresponded with the actual message manipulation -- were most powerful in predicting the way listeners rated the competence of managers. Thus, the degree to which listeners believed they were listening to an American-typical message predicted 28% of the variance in overall competence ratings. This effect was especially strong (43% of the variance) when listeners were in fact exposed to the American-style message. In short, listeners in this study preferred a manager who actually used a Japanese-typical style. But they simultaneously preferred a manager who they believed was using an American-typical style (Rubin, DeHart, & Heintzman, 1991).

In general, Shames and Glover (1989) noted that hospitality and service industries (like hotels and airlines) have inherited a disjointed array of western management principles borrowed from nonservice industries (like manufacturing companies). The nonservice industries' management, personnel development, and reward systems are distinctly nonadaptive in the world of hospitality and service, the world in which diversity is the keynote.

Individual Variables

While many people believe that personality characteristics are important for individual expatriate success, there is little agreement as to which personality characteristics are the most relevant to successful cross-cultural communication. Factors like honesty, integrity, sincerity, patience, open-mindedness, or persistence may inspire confidence and trust and help improve cross-cultural communication and overseas adjustment (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Kobrin, 1988). Other personality traits such as

maturity, self-knowledge, confidence, or a sense of humor might be important to effective communication if they encourage a more holistic perspective often required in overseas assignments (Ivancevich, 1968; Tung, 1982). Other frequently studied individual characteristics that affect work adjustment abroad also include anticipatory behavior (Black & Gregerson, 1991), demographic characteristics such as gender or age (Adler, 1987), motivation to go abroad, predeparture knowledge of the host country and prior international experience (Ivancevich, 1968). Some important individual variables, therefore, could include:

Personality Traits

* honesty
* integrity
* sincerity
* patience
* open-mindedness
* persistence
* maturity
* self-knowledge
* confidence
* a sense of humor

Demographic Traits

* anticipatory behavior
* demographic characteristics such as gender or age
* motivation to go abroad
* predeparture knowledge of the host country
* prior international experience

Parker and McEvoy (1993) showed that individual variables are extremely important for general living adjustment abroad. Therefore, they may be perceived as facilitating communication as well. Of these, prior international experience and the amount of time spent with host-country nationals were found as the most important factors for quick and successful cultural adjustment. Ward and Kennedy (1994) also discovered that the ability to interact with host nationals had a strong effect on sociocultural adaptation (adjustment) and successful performance of sojourners. Their study concluded that strong identification and close relationships with host nationals, and

the inclination to do things the "local way," was a recommended attitude for individuals who are expected to interact frequently and effectively with host nationals. Personal characteristics which aid this cross-cultural interaction, such as sincerity, patience, open-mindedness, confidence and a sense of humor were found to be positively related to easy adaptation in a new cultural milieu.

Knowledge of these variables and of their influence on the overseas experiences of the international personnel can help companies facilitate general adjustment through selection practices (choosing the right person for the job) and by encouraging present expatriates to socialize more with host-country nationals and less with other expatriates. This could be accomplished through housing policies that encourage expatriates to live outside of expatriate communities or through job designs that require regular interaction with host-country nationals (Parker & McEvoy, 1993).

Cultural Conflict

Yet another direction explored by the bulk of literature on cross-cultural communication deals with the phenomenon of conflict. Cultural conflict is one of the possible outcomes of cross-cultural communication involving contrasting personal, organizational, and contextual interests and values. Cross-cultural communication includes a number of significant problems that arise because of the difference in culture and ethnicity of the two communicating parties. In their everyday professional performances international tourism managers communicate with their employees who come from different cultural environments. They inevitably experience these differences and some of these may turn into real cultural conflicts and stumbling blocks on the way to understanding and productive cooperation. Friday (1989) indicated that with the change of cultural milieu when people sojourn abroad, their guidance system, the system

which guides their actions within their culture, is also subjected to certain changes. Friday implies that if the individual resists this change, he or she will inevitably experience conflict and rejection of the new milieu.

Ross's (1993) monograph takes into account both psychocultural and structural dynamics in the cross-cultural theory of conflict. The author argues that cross-cultural understanding is essential for the successful development of effective conflict management strategies. Conflict resolution happens when two groups begin to comprehend and accept each other's culture. He observed that in Northern Ireland, the two groups, the Protestants and the Catholics, have not understood or accepted the other group, while in Norway, cultural conflict is slight because varying groups understand one another.

Rahim (1983) investigated Blake and Mouton's (1964) five principal strategies for handling conflicts: integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising to help understand conflict with regard to concern for self and concern for others. He found that people choose different ways in which to handle interpersonal conflict with respect to their role status and sex.

Leiter and Maslach (1988), leading authorities in the investigation of managerial burnout, discovered that interpersonal conflicts are often negative for an employee's perception of his or her professional and personal environment. In other words, how well people were able to communicate and resolve conflicts impacted their impressions of their own self-worth. Besides disagreements on how the job is to be carried out, conflict, in the researchers' opinion, may also stem from organizational sources or intra-individual sources (within a person), such as the worker's personal values which more than likely

will be culturally different. Hofstede and Bond (1984) also showed that representatives of different countries possess different attitudes towards discipline, obedience, initiative of subordinates, politeness, ways of expressing emotions and other issues which have primary importance in the professional communication investigated. These different attitudes can be the source of conflict.

Understanding the process of intercultural communication as a complicated creative act, proposed by Howell (1979), may provide some useful insights into the nature of possible failures in cross-cultural interaction. Howell proposed an original approach towards intercultural communication from the holistic point of view and attempted to build an objective-subjective theory, recognizing the uniqueness of cognitive and emotive forces that affect how we process information in varied cultures. The model proposed by the author allows participants to perceive the dissonance and conflict in their intercultural communication:

> The model is a metaphor rather than realistic or literal symbolization. Instead of supplying all the details, the metaphoric model guides the reader into a sequence of his own thoughts, opinions, and experiences. Nonwestern cultures are, incidentally, much more comfortable with the metaphoric model than with detailed, analytical representations. [They] . . . expect to have directions suggested to them rather than to be instructed literally and exhaustively (p. 29).

Finally, the question of language itself is an important one in cultural conflict. As was shown above, language is innately tied to culture. Wolfson (1990) says that "seemingly trivial differences in sociolinguistic patterns may have serious consequences" (p. 23). She goes on to describe how Americans customarily give compliments. This practice is tied to American culture. She says:

> Nonnative speakers are often surprised by the American custom of praising the belongings, accomplishments, and appearance of others, and in consequence they may react by regarding Americans with mistrust. In situations where they receive the sort of compliments which are a frequent aspect of interactions among

> Americans, nonnative speakers may interpret these as effusive, insincere, and possibly motivated by ulterior considerations (p. 23).

She goes on to describe an incident when President Jimmy Carter visited France and he commented on the good job that the local government officials were doing. He complimented them, something Americas do in their normal daily polite interchange with people. The French people were not aware of the American custom of complimenting and were very annoyed. They felt Carter was trying to interfere in the internal politics of France and that his comments were another example of Americans making judgments and feeling superior. In Carter's eyes, all he did was compliment the French, a seemingly nice thing to do.

In conclusion of this part of the literature review, it is necessary to state that the literature on cross-cultural communication has become increasingly well-informed and sophisticated in articulating cognitive (knowledge) foundations (Schneller, 1989), behavioral (performance) competencies (Mead, 1990), personal attributes (Triandis, Brislin, & Hui, 1988), peculiarities of the socio-cultural milieu (Reynolds, 1984; Ward & Searle, 1991; Ward & Kennedy, 1994), and other factors which define the process of cross-cultural communication. The practical significance of this growing insight into the nature of cross-cultural communication and of culture conflict that interferes with this communication, are the principles that can be derived for effective preparing of sojourners for new cultural settings and their adequate interaction with the representatives of the host country.

Cross-Cultural Training

Cross-cultural training is concerned with increasing the ability to communicate with culturally diverse people. The very nature of the travel and tourism industry is oriented towards people crossing national borders and experiencing a "new" culture. There is perhaps no other industry in the world which is more exposed to cross-cultural

contacts than tourism and, according to the available predictions, these contacts will be growing. Tung (1981) and Hall and Gudykunst (1989) stated that businesses that use rigorous selection criteria in choosing employees for overseas assignments and then provide them with intercultural training are significantly more successful abroad than corporations that provide no training and use haphazard selection criteria. Miller (1972) believed that most managers assign little importance to individuals' abilities to adapt to foreign environments and cultures when selecting employees for international assignment. Managers consider technical skills and managerial abilities more important than personal ability to work and socialize with another culture. Tung (1979), however, found that employees who were chosen for foreign assignment exclusively on the basis of their technical skills often failed. In either case training would have helped the managers to be better prepared for interaction with the other culture and its representatives. Intercultural training is perceived as one of the most efficient ways to help internationally bound individuals to improve their ability to understand their personal reactions to people in a foreign culture and to assist them in adapting to customs different from their own, which in turn, enables them to function more effectively on the job (Tung, 1979). Tung concluded that "the more rigorous the selection and training procedures used to select the appropriate candidate for the position and prepare her or him for overseas work, the less the incidence of 'poor performance' or failure to work effectively in a foreign country" (p.300). At the same time, Tung concluded that international training was not widespread.

Hall and Gudykunst (1989) contended that to a great extent the attitude of companies towards cross-cultural training depends on the degree of ethnocentrism in their corporate cultures. They stated:

> The vast majority of US businesses, however, persist in sending people abroad who have had no intercultural training and whose personal characteristics are inappropriate in many cultural settings. One explanation for this is that personnel officers see intercultural training and a rigorous selection process as unnecessary because of ethnocentrism within the corporate culture (pp.183-184).

Their results indicated that multinational corporations with low levels of perceived ethnocentrism are more likely to offer training that provides cultural awareness and personal flexibility than companies with high levels of perceived ethnocentrism. A questionnaire containing several parts was administered to 195 human-resource directors from US multinational corporations. The synopsis of the first part can be expressed in the following five statements that revealed the director's ethnocentrism:

1. All top managers of foreign subsidiaries should be from US parent company.
2. Parent company managers need not be proficient in the language of the host country when working abroad.
3. All top managers should adhere to corporate managerial practices while working abroad.
4. Parent company managers need not be familiar with the culture of the host country when working abroad.
5. Parent company managers need not be familiar with the history of the host country when working abroad.

The results of these researchers also showed that the lower the perceived ethnocentrism, the more company uses individual characteristics (i.e., initiative, independence, tolerance for ambiguity, ability to empathize with others, nonjudgmentalness) in selecting employees for overseas assignment. Also, the less the perceived ethnocentrism, the more knowledge of the host country's culture and of one's own culture are viewed as important for managers working abroad. Regarding the choice of managers to work in international slots (the second research area), the results revealed that the higher the perceived ethnocentrism, the more likely the company is to use US managers in its overseas operations; the lower the perceived ethnocentrism, the more likely the company is to use third-country nationals to staff overseas operations. It was also discovered that the lower the perceived ethnocentrism, the more training that provides cultural awareness and personal flexibility is offered, and the more language

training is offered (Hall & Gudykunst, 1989). Rhinesmith (1996) also points to a very urgent though difficult task for senior management today: to turn around the traditional thinking that suggests that values, and behaviors need to be highly standardized from a central, corporate perspective.

Another problem which is faced by trainers delivering programs in various countries has been the programs' lack of cultural sensitivity and the trainers' unfamiliarity with the environment in which they were working. As increased globalization drives the diversity of the workforce, organizations must also increase their effort to help workers understand cultural differences. They must learn how to incorporate diverse values, ethics, and work styles into their practices, products, and services (Odenwald & Matheny, 1996).

Models of Cross-Cultural Training

Tung (1979) contended that the most frequently offered types of training for personnel going abroad is language training, environmental briefings, and culture-specific training. The study by Hall and Gudykunst (1989) indicated that the higher the level of perceived ethnocentrism, the more likely multinational corporations are to offer training similar to that described by Tung. The lower level of perceived ethnocentrism, the more likely corporations are to offer sensitivity training and culture assimilation training. Ethnocentrism is identified by the research as a central issue for cross-cultural training not only because it defines attitudes towards training and its content, but also because it should be perceived as a major problem addressed by this training. Defined as an assumption that the world-view of one's own culture is central to reality (Bennett, 1986a), ethnocentrism is associated with a number of functions deemed incompatible with successful cross-cultural communication. These functions include the negative evaluation of dissimilar cultures (Samovar, Porter, & Jain, 1981), racism (Blubaugh & Pennington, 1976), separation and isolation from another reality (Bennett, 1977) and other negative behavioral patterns. Transition from ethnocentrism towards

ethnorelativism, or recognition and acceptance of difference, is defined as a major objective of cross-cultural training.

Research in this area has proposed quite a number of different models of intercultural training ensuring this cognitive transition. The classification of these models suggested by Bennett (1986b) distinguishes between the following basic types: intellectual model, area training model, self-awareness model, and cultural awareness model.

The intellectual (classroom or university) model (Harrison & Hopkins, 1967) had dominated the field of intercultural training for a long time and was favored by early Peace Corps training, many military, government aid organizations, business and academic institutions as well as educationally-oriented tourists. Based on the belief that cognitive understanding is essential for effective performance abroad, the approach stresses cognitive goals, culture specific content, and traditional intellectual education processes. As in any type of intellectual model, the trainer needs to convey generalizations about the culture in abstractions, which leaves the model open to criticism of failing to address the reality of the overseas situation (Bennett, 1986b).

One response to the critics of the intellectual model has been the "area training" model, also called the "simulation" model. This training model emphasizes effective goals, culture specific content and experiential processes. Unlike the intellectual model, the trainees are active participants in learning and are expected to develop new behaviors and approaches to problem solving which will increase their effectiveness abroad. The Peace Corps, as well as other government agencies, has had a great deal of success with this model (Bennett, 1986b).

A totally different approach to training is taken by the advocates of the "self-awareness" or "human relations" model of training (Gudykunst et al., 1977; Althen, 1981). The underlying assumption of this model is that the individual who understands himself better will understand his own culture better and through this will have a basis for

understanding another culture and, consequently, will be more effective abroad. The most frequently mentioned limitation of the self-awareness approach is that it fails to supply the participants with a framework of conceptual knowledge with which to analyze future situations. The participants are untrained in behaviors or insights which allow them to replicate and internalize their successes (Bennett, 1986b).

In contrast to the self-awareness model, which perpetuates and elaborates on American norms, the fourth, cultural awareness model attempts to bring ethnocentrism into focus. While both models stress effective goals and emphasize an experiential process, it is in the area of culture that they differ widely. In the self-awareness model, emphasis is on the individual self, with an understanding of culture as an expected by-product. In the cultural awareness model, emphasis is on cultural insight, with individual awareness an expected by-product. Few authorities in the field of intercultural training would dispute the value of increasing the participants' awareness of the role culture plays in influencing their thoughts, attitudes and behaviors (Bennett, 1986b).

Indeed, the cultural awareness approach is widely endorsed by a number of successful models favored at present in the area of cross-cultural training. Thus, Paige and Martin (1983) suggested a training model which organizes typical training elements into sequence of increasing complexity and difficulty within the dimensions of behavior requirements (active/passive), risk of failure and self-disclosure (low/high), and culture learning focus (cognitive/affective/behavioral domains). Though suggesting a number of useful insights into the process of cross-cultural training, this model was criticized by Bennett (1986a) as being limited in its ability to diagnose the needs of a particular group or individual.

Another model based on the similar approach is proposed by Hoopes (1981). His model is based on the assumption that: "The critical element in the expansion of intercultural learning is not the fullness with which one knows each culture, but the degree to which the process of cross-cultural learning, communication and human

relations has been mastered" (p.20). With this focus, Hoopes lists the following categories of a "spectrum" of intercultural learning: ethnocentrism; awareness; understanding; acceptance/respect; appreciation/valuing; selective adoption: assimilation/ adaptation; biculturalism/multiculturalism. This sequence of states on a learning continuum listed by Hoopes seems consistent with similar continua used by education practitioners in the field.

In the training model proposed by Bennett (1986a) emphasis is placed on the development of intercultural sensitivity which can lead to good communication. According to Bennett, intercultural sensitivity should be a focus point for any intercultural training: "Today, the failure to exercise intercultural sensitivity is not simply bad business or bad morality, it is self-destructive" (p. 27). Training and education in intercultural communication through increasing intercultural sensitivity is perceived by the author as the only way to transcend traditional ethnocentrism and to explore new relationships across cultural boundaries

Defining intercultural sensitivity as the perception and appreciation of cultural differences, Bennett proposed three basic assumptions about the development of intercultural sensitivity which include subjective experience, the need for ethnorelativism, and, finally, the need for ethical choices in the development of this sensitivity.

A somewhat different position is taken by Dinges (1983), who builds his criticism of the shortcomings of cross-cultural communication not so much on sensitivity, like Bennett, but on competence. Dinges provides a framework with which it is possible to contrast and compare implicit and explicit models of intercultural competence and to critique their emphasis and deficiencies. Similar to Dinges, Janeway (1977) speaks about cross-cultural awareness and communication skills, which are useful in all areas of our lives and are particularly needed for successful functioning and communicating in the global village that the world has now become.

There is a significant bulk of literature which concentrates on the role of the preparation of sojourners in their intercultural adjustment. Expectations are regarded as a crucial factor in determining psychological adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. There is a necessity to match expectations to the norms and behaviors encountered in new cultural environments (Triandis, 1975; Wong-Rieger, 1984). Searle and Ward (1990) and Roger and Ward (1993) noted the discrepancy between expectations and experiences as a significant factor in the adjustment process. A person who had high expectations but was not able to meet them had more adjustment problems than a person with low expectations that were well met. According to Roger and Ward, a worthwhile strategy is to overprepare sojourners for social difficulties during cross-cultural transitions by placing a special emphasis during training on situational difficulties that arise in social interactions during these reallocations.

Similar accent on anticipatory adjustment in training is made by Stephan and Stephan (1992) who believe that genetic ethnocentrism can cause anxiety and fear of intercultural interactions thus creating a serious barrier to successful cross-cultural communication. In their suggestions for intercultural training their major concentration is on intercultural contact programs. According to these authors, contact experiences provided in non-threatening situations supported by extensive insights into the other culture will help students reduce anxieties by decreasing their ethnocentrism and increasing social analytical skills necessary for cross-cultural interactions and communication. Supportive of these suggestions for cross-cultural training is the emphasis on the fostering of good intergroup relations made by Ward and Kennedy (1994). Communication skills developed through intergroup interaction are perceived by these authors as important for effective integration and adaptation strategies.

One more useful suggestion for training was suggested by Casse and Deol (1985) who analyzed the ways of developing intercultural negotiating skills enabling communicating parties to handle conflicting situations. Defining negotiations as "the

process by which at least two parties with different cultural values, beliefs, needs, and viewpoints try to reach agreement on a matter of mutual interest" (p. 93), the authors designed a workbook teaching self-development and understanding. The plan, tactics and techniques suggested in this workbook can be easily adjusted for the needs of any training course designed for preparing international managing staff for overseas assignments.

Kohls (1987) identifies different approaches to cross-cultural training and various issues which can be included in training programs that help facilitate cross-cultural communication. In addition to this, cross-cultural training may differ depending on the major concern or application of the program, its overall purpose, various means of achieving this purpose and the average time required for its completion. According to these differences, four different kinds of education, training, orientation, and briefing are needed.

The first, cross-cultural education, is well suited for relating large bodies of knowledge and developing in-depth mastery of one or more subjects. It is the longest-term process of the four and is formally structured into distinguishable segments.

Unlike education, training usually focuses on "process" and on developing competency in performing specific skills or meeting specified objectives in a cost-effective manner (Harrison & Hopkins, 1967). It is the most practical approach and its outcome is results-oriented learning. The programs may vary in duration, but essentially they are fundamental in nature.

Orientation prepares a person to understand and function effectively in a new or radically different environment and to achieve this with the least trauma. It may last from one-half day to a week in length and accentuates practically relevant issues and values essential for survival in a new milieu. Finally, briefing provides a broad overarching focus on a particular part of a larger program in the shortest possible way by presenting the most salient features of the organization or situation. As defined by the name itself,

this is the shortest possible exposure to cross-cultural knowledge. Organizations should decide on which type of education they need depending on the objectives of the program, composite profiles of the participants, available predeparture time, cultural toughness of the host country, physical setting of the program, budgetary restrictions, and other issues relevant for each particular case (Kohls, 1987).

Irrespective of whatever method or model is chosen for training it should include an essential though only tentatively developed area of cultural self-awareness training (Rhinesmith, 1996). In this field, people are taught what biases and beliefs they have based on their own background as a means of better understanding and relating to people from other cultural backgrounds. Cultural self-awareness, according to Reinsmith, has a great human resources development potential and will enable people to operate in many different countries, without specific-country training for each world area.

Conclusion

It is hypothesized that efficient professional performance of personnel on overseas assignments is largely determined by the success of their interaction with the host country environment, or cross-cultural communication. This, in its turn, is based on the degree of the sojourner's awareness of the specificity of a new environment and multiple factors involved in the cross-cultural communication with the representatives of this culture, employees and clients in particular.

The conceptual model that emerges from the literature points the way for this present study of cross-cultural communication and shows that cross-cultural effectiveness is positively influenced by:

1. Knowledge about the target culture.
2. Certain personal qualities such as openness, flexibility, and tolerance of ambiguity.

3. Behavioral skills such as communicative competency, culturally appropriate role behavior, and the ability to relate well to others.
4. Self-awareness, especially with respect to one's own values and beliefs.
5. Developed ethnorelativism and decreased or controlled ethnocentrism.
6. Situational factors such as relative similarity of the target culture to one's home culture, receptivity to foreigners, political/ economic/social conditions in the host country, and of expectations regarding the role and position of the sojourner.
7. Adequate pre-departure training in the essentials of cross-cultural communication.

While some of these variables are under direct control of organizations assigning their personnel abroad, others are not. Organizations need to be aware that some portion of expatriate adjustment is within their influence. Direct control over those factors which are within their power and which can significantly improve cross-cultural communication must be exercised to ensure successful and efficient performance of international employees.

The reviewed literature points out that one of the most efficient ways to ensure cultural adjustment and effective functioning of overseas personnel is to provide the sojourners with adequate cross-cultural training so that they can be effective communicators. In this respect, the complexity of the cross-cultural experience has important implications for trainers and designers of cross-cultural programs. They must know which factors can or cannot influence success, which types of learning activities can affect learning outcomes, and how to prepare the learner to continue the process of learning abroad. Ignorance of these concepts can result in poorly designed and delivered programs, unrealistic expectations among learners, and harmful misperceptions regarding the sojourn experience.

Over the last 25 years, according to this researcher's consulting experience and observations, there have been a great deal of unsuccessful endeavors both by multinational corporations and individuals who have invested in various travel industries

from hotels, ground operators and wholesalers. It is this researcher's assumption that most of these failures could be attributed to the employees' lack of knowledge of cross-cultural communication and insufficient training.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Design

The major research objectives set forth in this dissertation were to reveal the role of cross-cultural training in cross-cultural communication of tourism managers and employees, as well as in their professional performance overseas. The study also intended to analyze the nature of training which tourism managers had had prior to their assignments abroad and their perceptions of the efficient training required for the industry. It was assumed that the role of training could be adequately assessed only within the context of understanding objective and subjective factors of the managers' experience abroad and their interpretation of these factors.

These research questions posed in this study can best be answered using a qualitative research technique in which the researcher seeks people's interpretation of their own experience. This kind of methodology suits this research since it intends to interpret the answers to the research questions provided by managers themselves within their own frame of reference (Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is aimed at uncovering the richness of individual experience. The qualitative method, which was selected for this study, in-depth interviewing, is capable of providing information about the details of participants' experience, their interpretation of cross-cultural communication needs, and their perception of effective cross-cultural training.

Information Needed

This study assessed the observations and opinions of managers who had sojourned abroad and had been stationed in a number of places over the past five years.

The information which needed to be determined was as follows:

1. Factors that facilitate or impede communication, in particular educational and employment background, experience in cross-cultural communication, cultural distance, cultural awareness, etc.
2. The skills that helped tourism managers to be successful in cross-cultural communication.
3. Training they had received and the importance or relevance of this training to their professional functioning.
4. The kinds of efficient and adequate training they perceived as necessary in their industry.

Study Population and Sample Size

In-depth interviews were done with 15 travel and tourism executives who had more than five years of experience working in several foreign cultural environments. The pool of managers was identified by random sampling from the list of managers of different professional organizations: ISTTE (International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators), CHRIE (Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education), and ACTE (Association of Cooperate Travel Executives). From the lists of 250 names provided by these organizations a list of those managers whose overseas experience equaled or exceeded 5 years and who resided or were stationed in New York area was composed. This roster comprised 90 names out of which 15 were selected using the table of random numbers. In addition to the random sample of 15 members of the above-mentioned professional organizations, 15 foreign tourist managers were selected. These latter ones were identified through personal contacts at the International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators, where the researcher is on the Board of Directors. Some of these participants were also selected by means of peer recommendation using a referred sample method of subject selection.

Thus, the initial roster consisted of two lists: random sample list (n=15) and referred sample (n=15). These selected managers were approached via telephone or mail and their participation in the in-depth interview was solicited. The phoning and mailing procedure took place from April 1997 through September 1997, until the desired sample of 15 managers willing to participate was achieved. A long record and a business history in the travel and tourism industry, as well as the researcher's good name, helped to assure the researcher's entree to telephone and mailing lists to identify the target managers and to meet the research objective of 15 representative respondents.

While soliciting the agreement for participation from the sampled US born candidates the researcher met with certain difficulties. Only three people from the random sample of 15 agreed to be interviewed within the time frame suggested by the researcher. The other 12 expressed their interest in research but were either too busy or not available during the summer period. The usual excuses were of the kind: "I am too busy at the moment. Can you get to me some time next month?" or "I am going to be out of the country the next few months," etc. It seemed to the researcher that the executives from the United States feared some repercussions from the research to jeopardize their professional name. In contrast, the managers of other national origin from the referred list were willing to give their time and effort to participate in the research. Therefore, due to the time and financial constraints of the research the percent of international participants interviewed is higher than that of the US born interviewees (twelve referred internationals versus three randomly selected American managers).

Participants of the Research

The fifteen managers who were solicited for participation in the research represented top management from around the world and all served their respective organizations in at least two countries beside their own. At the time of the interview all

these high profile executive managers were stationed in New York area. These executives represented Hong Kong, India, South Africa, Belgium, France, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Czech Republic, Brazil, and the United States. Their nationalities were even more diverse, as one of the USA managers was Russian by origin. The subjects represented various parts of the tourism industry, such as Hospitality, Airlines, Tour and Ground Operations, and Government Tourist Boards. The sample of subjects consisted of four women and eleven men. Women comprised 26.6 percent of the research participants (n=4). Their ages ranged from 30s to 50s. Two of the women were in international airline management and two were in senior management and directorship of their countries' tourist boards for North America. The educational background of women participants also varied. Four of the women had master's degrees and one was in the process of attaining a Ph.D. In general, educational attainment of female subjects of this research was higher than that of male participants, as will be discussed further in Chapter IV.

Men comprised 73.4 percent of the interviewees (n=11) with their ages ranging from late thirties to late fifties. Four of the men were in senior management, directing their countries' tourist boards in North America, four were directors of their respective national flag carriers (airlines), one represented an international consulting company and was an educator, one was an in-bound wholesaler, and yet another one was a hotel general manager. Geographical areas of professional responsibilities for the men varied, including United States and Canada, North and South Americas, and Asia.

In terms of functional responsibilities the participants also varied. One of the subjects was the general manager of a deluxe hotel in the New York City. Four of the men were directors of their countries' respective tourist boards in North America. Two of the men were in senior management of ground and tour operations in various international markets.

Education background among the men had a far greater range than with the women subjects. Thus, one of the participants did not go to college, while the other had

Ed.D. Six had undergraduate degrees, two had masters degrees, and one completed only two years of higher education. Only one subject received his higher education in Travel and Tourism. All subjects were fluent in at least two languages, English and their native one or some other foreign language, if English was a native one.

Data Collection

Data for the study of the role of training in cross-cultural communication of sojourning travel, tourism, and hospitality were collected between June 1997 and September 1997.

Procedures for Data Collection

The request for an in-depth interview was mailed to sampled respondents in the form of a contact letter, describing the purpose of the research, its significance and the way by which the respondents were selected (Appendix A). The letter guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality in the treatment of the responses. A self-addressed envelope was sent together with the contact letter. The same information was delivered to those managers who were contacted by the phone.

Conducting the Interviews

The participants were all interviewed in person. Each interview was preceded by the signing of the "Informed Consent" letter (Appendix B). The letter was a formal statement of a participant's permission for the use of the interview results for the purposes of the study and his or her acquaintance with the procedures and protections of the research. The letter also provided a guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality of the treatment of the responses and interviews.

Instrument

An in-depth interview was conducted on the basis of an interview guide (Appendix C). The interview guide used in this research was developed to ensure that

each interview followed a comparable pattern. Structurally the interview guide was composed of open-ended questions, which allowed exploration of the interviewee's perceptions of the cross-cultural interaction as it was personally experienced. The open-ended questions were asked to give the researcher the full flavor of the respondents' answers and to allow for new themes to emerge.

The questions addressed those issues, which have been identified by the researcher in the literature as relevant for the sojourners in the area of their training and preparation for professional functioning abroad. The first group of questions dealt with the demographic characteristics of the participants, such as age, education, and the approximate length of stay in each area. The number of foreign postings that they had had and the length of time they had spent overseas was also explored.

Other questions related to tourism managers' interpretation of their cross-cultural experiences and interactions with the host cultures. Specifically, the participants were asked to analyze their perception of cross-cultural communication and their experience in this communication. Special interest was directed towards what patterns and kinds of communications worked out for them and which did not, as well as the way managers interpreted their successes and failures.

Open-ended questions of this group allowed for exploring important and divergent components of cultural background, which may have defined the process of cross-cultural communication each manager experienced in a certain geographic location. Therefore, different participants of the survey, depending on the specific characteristics of their placements, identified different cultural variables as relevant and important for success of professional, personal and social communications. It allowed the researcher to use the open-ended design of the interview guide to pursue divergent themes which were not identified in the reviewed research.

The third group of questions looked into the training experience of managers. When some previous cross-cultural training took place, managers were asked to recall the

content of this training and its importance to them, as well as to identify knowledge and skills which turned out to be helpful to them in cross-cultural communication. All managers, irrespective of their previous exposure to professional cross-cultural training were asked to reflect on what knowledge and skills they felt they lacked at the time or/and at which they had arrived by means of their own learning experience. All the participants were asked to describe training they perceived as necessary for successful performance of tourism employees abroad.

Special effort was made by the researcher to draw out a critical incident which had a meaningful impact on the sojourners' cross-cultural communication experience. A critical incident was an incident which happened during managers' day-to-day business overseas and which stood out in the interviewee's mind as an important learning experience. These vignettes became an anonymous part of the document and might be used as teaching stories where appropriate.

The interviews were tape-recorded to ensure the accuracy of information. The transcripts of the interviews were generated for the procedure of coding and analyzing. To insure the objectivity of the instrument a pilot study was conducted with the help of the researcher's colleagues. The interviewees were informed of the purposes of the pretest and encouraged to share their opinions on the quality and relevance of the instrument. The aim of the pretest was to define the clarity of the questions and adequacy of their interpretation by participants, and to define the approximate time format for the application of the instrument in the field. On the basis of the pretest the necessary corrections and amendments of the instrument were made.

Data Analysis

The data obtained in the research are descriptive in nature. For the purposes of analysis and retrieval of the necessary data a coding scheme was created. The first stage

of the analysis consisted of sorting important and unimportant information in terms of relevance to the research questions. Based on the content of the interviews the classification systems of coding categories were developed, with assigning to each relevant variable a symbol.

The variables were grouped into major categories, and color felt tip markers were used to highlight the categories and themes in the text of the interviews. Data pertaining to each category were then grouped, and similarities and discrepancies were analyzed within each category.

The themes identified in the literature review provided the foundation for coding. The coding categories included cross-cultural communication variables with subgroups of personal, organizational, and contextual variables, background variables, and training. Within the last group, the distinction between variables pertaining to prior training and variables of the needed training was made. The data were synthesized to identify emerging themes, patterns, and differences in experience.

Additionally, the data were grouped by geographic area to see if the area affected in any way managers' experience, by gender to control for the role gender played, by age, and by number of years of experience. The data from these groupings were compared to see if any of these things significantly affected cross-cultural communication experienced by the interviewees.

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of the study was introduced by the nature of the sampled population. As was noted above, the participants of the research were selected by means of random and referred sampling. Of these two samples managers identified by referred sampling were more cooperative while only few of the randomly selected managers volunteered to participate in the research. The study subjects cannot therefore be

considered representative of the whole population of tourism and travel managers as they appeared to be more open and prepared for the discussion of cross-cultural communication. This attitude may present certain bias of the participants who seemed to be more culturally sensitive and more supportive of training needs than the whole population might be.

The qualitative approach to data collection introduced another limitation of the subjectivity of results. Since interviewing had been chosen as the method of the research, the data were based on the self-perception and self-assessment of the participants of the research. Thus, it was difficult to tell when answers of the interviewees were influenced by their intention to impress the interviewer by either exaggerating some responses or diminishing others. There is no way with interviewing to tell if the researcher has been told the truth. Nevertheless, the interview method can reap a bounty of information that cannot be gained by multiple choice or true or false questioning.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the research gathered by means of in-depth interviewing of the tourism and travel managers. All interviews followed the same interview guide and were designed to examine the role which training plays in the cross-cultural communication of tourism managers and employees. The interviews explored a number of issues pertaining to three subordinate areas, which have been identified as supporting the investigation of the major research question. The first subarea was the education, which the participants of the research had received prior to the interviewing. The second was the education that they envisioned as relevant and necessary for the successful functioning overseas. The third subarea included subordinate factors of their personal and professional background and cross-cultural experience, which appeared to be related to their training needs.

Presentation of the data, however, does not exactly follow this pattern. At first, the participants' portraits are given which, in this researcher's opinion, provides the reader with some understanding of the subjects' personalities as well as of their career paths. Then the findings and data pertaining to the first and the second research subquestions will be presented. Findings obtained while exploring the third research subquestion, namely those related to personal, professional, and cross-cultural experience of managers are reported.

Thus, the composition of this chapter on data presentation follows the next pattern. First, a set of portrait descriptions of the participants of interviewing is presented. Then, the data related to the first research question, that is the information which the

participants provided about any kind of professional and cross-cultural training they had received is recounted. Their assessment of the way this training may have affected their cross-cultural communication and professional performance abroad is also included. Within this subquestion career patterns and types of employment are reported as they are perceived to be directly related to formal education received by the managers. The final part of this chapter will draw together all data that relate to the kind of training that tourism managers perceived as necessary and useful for the needs of professional cross-cultural communication during their overseas assignments. Within this part the major accent will be on cross-cultural experience and perceived needs in cross-cultural training. Also, the data which pertain to various objective and subjective factors of the managers' experience abroad that are perceived as facilitating or obstructing the effective cross-cultural communication are presented in their relationship to the perceived educational need of managers.

To safeguard the anonymity of responses the names of the companies which the respondents represented were changed and the participants themselves were assigned pseudonyms. The nationalities and countries which the participants represented, as well as those they served in remained intact to allow for possible connection between the nationality and the approach to cross-cultural communication be perceived. The following set of interviewees' portraits will offer a sense of these managers as they interacted with the investigator and responded to the interview questions.

Profiles of the Interviewees

Antonio

Antonio was a manager for a Portuguese airline company. His responsibilities extended to the whole territory of the USA and Canada. Antonio was a friendly middle-aged man, who produced an impression of a sociable, energetic businessman. He prided himself of having good personal contacts and he thought it distinguished him from others of his compatriots. In his opinion, other Portuguese people being abroad retreat to the seclusion of national ghettoes. This atmosphere, according to Antonio, is stunting for both professional and social growth. He claimed to have observed this phenomenon everywhere abroad wherever there were significant numbers of Portuguese.

He was married and had teenage children. He was one of the interviewees who discussed at length the difficulties of moving a family into a new cultural environment and their adjustment to it. He himself was concerned with his children's education, safe environment, and the necessity for them to bridge the cultural gap. He also mentioned difficulties which his spouse experienced adjusting to a new environment, and sacrifices she had to make because of the nature of Antonio's job. For instance, each time the family was reallocated she had to giver up her good job and sacrifice her own career because of his moves. This also added financial constraints on the family, which had to rely on one income instead of two.

Martino

Martino was a manager for the Italian airline company, whose responsibilities covered Eastern USA. This was a well-dressed man, extremely young looking for his late 40s. His speech was soft and reserved; he produced an impression of controlled energy.

During the interview he kept on apologizing for his English though except for a rather heavy Italian accent, his proficiency in English was good. He possessed an excellent vocabulary and good oral communication skills.

Martino produced an impression of a well-educated and intelligent person. though, according to him, his education was limited to two years in college and on-job training. He expressed a strong desire to continue his education but due to job constraints and family responsibilities he was not able to do it at that moment. Martino had two children, the first was living with his first wife, and the youngest, three-year old was living with his second wife, who was from Brazil.

Martino came from Sicily but did not look forward to returning to Italy in the near future. He felt that the return would stunt both his professional and personal growth. Of his assignments abroad he recalled most favorably working in South America. He enjoyed the culture and people very much there; besides there, in Brazil, he met his second wife.

Martino was a very social and outgoing person. In his opinion, his sociability was well integrated with his work and helped him to accomplish the most difficult tasks.

Kartar

Kartar was the director of the Indian Tourist Office for the USA. Kartar appeared to be in his 50s or younger. He was extremely polite and soft-spoken. Yet the interviewer was able to observe during the interview that in dealing with the staff he could be firm and insistent.

During the interview, he did not reveal much personal information: his major emphasis was on differences in cultures and the need for cultural awareness. He prided

himself of being culturally open and sensitive and he insisted that this faculty was related to his strong and universal educational background. In this line, he expressed deep concern for his own children attending middle and high schools here, in the United States. He felt that their education was not meeting the standards of the education back home in India and that the best schools here were two years behind the curriculum his children had in India. He also expressed his concern about the inability of some American tourists to appreciate other cultures and their intent to bring certain attributes of their own culture, such as McDonalds or Friendly's, into India's or other country's setting. He expressed an idea that appreciation of other cultures should be the common effort on the side of both tourist agents and tourists. According to him, tourist agents have to understand interests of their customers and cater for them in the most efficient way, while tourists need to develop an appreciation of the new unknown culture without imposing their own cultural expectations on it.

Lilly

This young Asian woman held the number two position in the USA for her Hong Kong airlines company, being the Sales Manager Assistant. It was very difficult to make an appointment with her as her secretaries carefully guarded her time schedule. She made it clear that she had been prepared for upper management positions in the company and intended to spend at least ten years of her time in various locations around the world.

Lilly was in her late 20s - early 30s. Her dark business suit was well tailored, and in general her image of a well-groomed woman corresponded to her position in the company. This very bright and well-educated person received her education, according to

her, in Asia and England. In the conversation, she revealed her strong Asian cultural background which was not easily discernible behind her Western European manners.

Sergio

Sergio served as a Director of the Portuguese tourist office. He was in his mid 50s. Though he considered himself to be well educated in economics and international statistics, he nevertheless expressed a strong desire to return to school for more professionally oriented knowledge. He had even identified New York University master's program in Management for Travel and Tourism as a possible direction of his educational endeavors. When the researcher mentioned that he himself was in the first graduating class of that program, the interview seemed to flow in a more intimate and lively manner.

Sergio's acquaintance with other cultures started quite early. His farther was a top ranking officer in the Portuguese diplomatic corps and his family moved with him to many different parts of the world. Sergio himself had been preparing for diplomatic service in line with his family tradition.

In relating his experience as a tourist manager he confessed that he was ill at ease to pass certain tasks down to his key personnel. He explained this by being a perfectionist and not trusting his personnel to do a job as good as he would do it. Therefore, he was used to spending long hours in the office and leaving for home late at night. He did not relate this habit, however, to lack of training in management skills or in cross-cultural communication but attributed it to his personality. His accommodation to life in the United States was easy. he liked the country and intended to stay here as long as he could.

Alfonso

This gentleman in his mid 50s was the director of the Spanish tourist office in New York. Alfonso's educational background was in journalism and international relations. Representation of government in travel and tourism seemed a natural move for his diplomatic training. Relating his overseas experience he produced an impression of a person with well-developed cultural awareness and skills in cross-cultural communication. However, when he was asked about the importance of these issues in his professional functioning he seemed hesitant. Upon some reflection, he recognized the need for such training. He also expressed his concern about the lack of cross-cultural knowledge and interest in the American tourism market in comparison with a more sophisticated, in his opinion, European market. This seemed to be a matter of concern for many other interviewees.

Francis

At the time of the interview Francis was the director of the Belgium tourist office. Before this assignment to New York for a number of years she headed a European travel commission. She turned out to be a lively and very responsive personality. Her gestures and facial expressions were changing all the time during the interview.

At the beginning of her professional life she followed her husband, who was a hotel manager, in all his allocations, but after divorce she had to find her own way in the world. And then her own career took off.

Speaking about the need for education specifically designed for the travel industry she strongly emphasized the value of intuition and one's own experience. It was difficult to define her age by her appearance but her stories revealed rich knowledge and

considerable experience. She also revealed herself as a very determined person ready to have her way in everything she did. She even confessed in being manipulative on the job, but she justified this behavior by specific difficulties women encounter as managers, especially in certain cultural environments where this role for women is considered inappropriate. She felt that women had to think quicker and more effectively than men to be successful.

Helena

Helena was a manager of the Czech tourist authority. According to her, she was chosen for her position because she had a strong background in the English language. Indeed, the researcher noticed almost no Czech or European accent in her speech. Her educational background was in journalism, but she never worked in this area. Instead, before joining tourism she dealt with western business both outside and inside of her own country.

She seemed to be in her early 30s. She ran and operated the complete tourist office herself and called it "one woman's army." Her responsibilities were numerous, as she had to deal with suppliers, customers, advertising, and media. She explained this situation by financial hardships of her country. The researcher was referred to Helena by Francis who had deepest respect and appreciation for what Helena was doing for her company.

Helena was very perceptive towards cultural differences in the way people do business in different countries. Therefore, she was very supportive of cross-cultural education for tourism and travel managers.

Burton

Burton was a senior manager for a South African airline company. This fifty-year old man was a very friendly person and had certain ways of dealing with people which made you feel like you were an old friend of his. Our meeting took place on a very hot day, so he was not wearing a tie and jacket. He apologized for that in a very friendly informal manner.

His coming to a top position in the airlines was through a number of other important managerial positions in different countries. He confessed that initially he was challenged to get out of South Africa. His university training was engineering combined with a degree in law. Getting into tourism was a way for him to escape a very confined cultural milieu in which he felt suffocated and restricted as a person. But now when so many social changes for the best had occurred in South Africa he felt comfortable returning back and accepting some position back home.

Ivan

Ivan was a Russian-born 42 year-old president of an American tourist company. He grew up and was educated through undergraduate school in Russia. At that point he left with his parents for the USA, where he finished graduate school. His working skills and work ethics were developed in the United States. He had no previous experience working in Russia or anywhere else outside the USA. The most interesting part of Ivan's 20-year career was his establishing tourist offices in Russia and the Ukraine. At that time he realized the importance for international business of cultural differences in communication, work ethics and social values of the two countries. Now his company's inbound business alone with Russia and the Ukraine exceeded $20 million annually. His

headquarters were in Brooklyn, in the heart of the "new Russian immigrant area." In conversation Ivan was polite, informative, cheerful, and tried to be helpful.

Elizabeth

Elizabeth was a sales manager of the Asian sector of one of the largest American airline companies. She was approximately 30 years old. She was educated in the US and Japan. She had done some graduate work in Japan and intended eventually to complete her Ph.D. there. This young woman was the only Caucasian person working in Asian sales management of the airline.

She came from a mixed ethnic background and was born in Brazil. Her earlier life was spent between Brazil and the USA. Her father was a pilot for the Brazilian Airlines and later on he dealt with government treaties on behalf of the Brazilian Airlines. Thus, she came from the family with a history in the travel and tourism industry. She was fluent in English, Japanese, Portuguese, and some other foreign languages. Being single she did not find it hard to keep relocating between the USA and Asia.

Hans

Hans served as a general manager of a big Dutch-owned hotel in New York City. This Dutchman was approximately 48 years old. He was born and educated in Holland, where he received his bachelor's degree in Economics. He came from a family with a long history in the hotel industry. Though initially he did not want to continue his family tradition in his own career, still he became a hotelier. His work experience in the industry is very interesting, as he worked on almost every continent.

At the beginning of the interview, he seemed extremely formal and reserved. But gradually he relaxed and then generously shared his experience with the researcher. He was blond, very tall and conservatively well dressed.

He was married and had two sons. He found that moving around the world gave his children better education and better understanding of people, exposing them to cultural diversity. Though he recognized that often reallocations were not easy for his wife.

He revealed his genuine sincere concern for and interest in people, and, in his opinion, this was the major factor of his success as a manager. During the interview he stressed more than once his striving to establish harmonious and friendly relations with his employees.

Armand

Armand was a director of the French governmental tourist office in New York. He was educated in France and Germany. At the beginning of his career, he was planning to become a scholar of German and did his graduate studies in Germany. He intended to teach at the university, but his life circumstances brought him to tourism. Throughout his student years in Germany he had been employed part-time as a guide for French tourist delegations. Later on he was offered a job in French governmental tourist organization and left the University.

This man, who was in his late 40s, had an extremely sincere and open manner of communication. He was highly aware of cultural diversity both in the marketplace and staff management. The number of culturally and politically sensitive issues, which he

mentioned as the object of his concern in the United States, testified to his developed cultural sensitivity and awareness.

Ricardo

This director of the Brazilian airline company, operating in the USA, Canada, Mexico, and the Caribbean area was a good-looking man of 46. He received his education in finance and accounting but always aspired to be a pilot. Therefore he joined an airline company as an accountant and then as a controller. Before his allocation to the USA he had been stationed in Asia where he also supervised the Australian and South African operations of his company.

Being a very culturally sensitive person he strongly advocated the need for cross-cultural education and communication for the industry. He personally perceived the use of this education for easy adjustment in a new social environment and successful management of the local staff. He also emphasized the importance of this education for the families accompanying sojourning executives on their overseas assignments. His argument was that not only a manger represents his company but the accompanying family members do so as well. He perceived his cultural awareness and knowledge to be important factors in his easy adjustment to other cultures.

Steve

This American gentleman of fifty-five was a board member of the International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators and had a considerable experience as a manager in travel and tourism. At the time of the interview he was a professor and the head of Tourism and Travel department at one of colleges in New York. He started with a bachelor's degree in Accounting, then received master's degree in Business

Administration, and later on completed his doctorate degree in Travel and Tourism Management and Higher Education.

A professional career of this very friendly, sincere and outspoken man comprised 35 years in the travel and tourism industry, out of which about 25 years were spent overseas. He had been stationed for prolonged periods of time in western and eastern European countries as well as in Japan. He held various management-corporate senior executive positions in ground and tour operations. He introduced and operated international governmentally supported sports programs and competitions for teenagers.

Steve revealed a true gift for examining his experience and looking at professional matters from multiple perspectives of cross-cultural awareness. He understood probably better than any other interviewee did the need for cross-cultural education. In his own work, his efforts were directed, according to him, towards developing cross-cultural understanding and awareness in his students and colleagues.

Training Received by the Participants

This section will present all the data which refer to the first research subquestion, formulated as follows: What training if any did tourism managers receive prior to their assignment abroad and how did they perceive this training affecting their cross-cultural communication?

Presentation of the data related to the education and training received by the respondents of the in-depth interviewing is made by categories which include formal education (college, graduate school, professional development) and informal education (family experience, on-job experience, etc.). Within each category the identification of

relevance of this education to professional experience of tourism managers is made. Also, each category is assessed from the point of view of importance the participants assigned to any form of education or training they received.

Formal Education

College. Almost all participants of the research, but for one, had some kind of higher education and all but three had completed degrees. The amount of time the participants spent in higher education is distributed in the following way: one person went to college for two years, one -- for three, three completed four years, seven -- six years, and two -- eight years of higher education. The years spent by the participants in different forms of post-high school education are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Duration of Higher Education

Number of Years	Number of Participants
0	1
2	1
3	1
4	3
6	7
8	2
Mean: 5 years	15 subjects

With the mean of five years in higher education for all participants, the women spent on average more years in higher education than male participants, with the average length of 6.5 years of female schooling against 4.5 years of male schooling. Women also

had higher educational attainment than men did as all women had master's or higher academic degrees.

The participants' educational attainments can be summarized as follows: there was only one degree in Travel and Tourism, received through doctorate studies at graduate school (n=1). The rest of degrees were received in other professional areas: one master's degree in Law (n=1), Commercial Law (n=1), Journalism (n=1), Accounting (n=1), Business Administration (n=2), Business Management (n=1), Czech and English Language and Literature (n=1), Japanese Language (n=1), Economics (n=2), Political Science and International Relations (n=1).

The only male subject who did not have any higher or college education, did not provide any specific reasons for not going to college. However, he received considerable non-college training since he joined the airline over twenty years ago and successfully climbed up to one of the top positions within his company.

Three other participants had started undergraduate school but managed to complete only two years (n=1), three (n=1), and four years in college without receiving a degree. Exploration of the reasons, which accounted for incomplete higher education provided the following results. Hans, who is now a general manager of a hotel, did not do well in his third year of school and his father insisted he go to work. The other participant, Armand, who now heads his national tourist board, was in his final year of undergraduate school and opted not to take his finals and to go into tourism as a full time occupation as he had been working as a tourist guide all years through college:

> I just decided to lose this exam and to quit and go to the French-German Youth Council which has just been granted by the government and I began to work there for youth travel. (Armand)

The participant who had the only two years of incomplete higher education explained his quitting college for the following reasons:

> I have completed high school, then I went to the University for two years, and then I got the job with the airlines and I couldn't continue to go on with my studies. I couldn't do two things at once. (Martin)

College Majors. In terms of college majors none of the participants received specialized education in tourism and travel industry initially, prior to their employment, and only one respondent received a relevant degree on its highest, doctorate, level. Also, the education which the participants of the research received through college both on the undergraduate and graduate levels was of various professional orientation and did not show any consistent pattern. Thus, two of the participants had majored in economics, two had degrees in accounting, three received their master's degrees in business administration, two had law degrees, two had foreign language degrees, one had business management degree, one had a degree in political science, two had studied international relations, one had a degree in literature, one had a degree in journalism, one had a degree in travel and tourism education and administration (doctorate level). None of the fifteen subjects switched their majors during their undergraduate studies, though six chose a different major for graduate studies. Also, it is important to note that only one participant, Elizabeth, anticipated entering the travel industry as a career. Other participants did not plan to choose travel and tourism as their future professional occupation while being at college.

Though none of the participants of the research received college education in Tourism and Travel, they all found certain relevance of their graduate and undergraduate education to their current professional functioning. For instance, Accounting today is a part of the curriculum of Travel and Tourism or Hospitality majors. Many corporations of tourism now specifically seek out managerial capability with a strong background in accounting and controlling. For Ricardo his degree in accounting had become the major determinant for all his career moves:

> I joined in 1970 Brazil airlines as an accountant. The only accounting department of my airline was covering various parts, and I was at first in the revenue

> accounting. Then in 1981 I was transferred to South Africa as chief accounting for the airline for Africa and I stayed there in Africa as chief accountant from 1981 to 1986.

Steve, on the contrary, felt that his education had been a follow-up to his various career moves. He had received his undergraduate degree in accounting from New York University, started his career in travel company as a controller and found that his education was not quite sufficient for his appointment:

> I was really a novice as I didn't set out to get a job in accountancy or finance of tourism. It just happened that way. However, there was no intention on my side to go to further schooling. But after living in Europe and helping companies in negotiating tax treaties in seven on-branch organizations for the company I felt I needed more education. When I came back to the United States it occurred to me that I had to go to school to find out what the formal structure is for what I have been doing the previous seven or eight years. So I went back and got an MBA. Well, I was bored to tears, because the people who were instructors never had been outside of the United States before. I knew more than they did. That's why I said again: "I'll never go back to school." But then I began to teach as an adjunct and I had to write a curriculum in tourism and hospitality area. At that time I had a grade of doctoral equivalence on the basis of having 30 post-master's education credits. So I went for doctorate.

Those participants, who majored in economics, also found it very helpful for their careers. They shared Hans' assessment of the use of the undergraduate education in Economics:

> Certainly my background in economics helped me to look at the business at the early stage of my career in a more businesslike manner. It helped me to look into management side of the responsible positions at an earlier stage.

Business Administration and Business Management degrees were found by the participants particularly helpful for the travel and tourism industry. Ivan, for instance, used his MBA as a means of returning to his native Russia and opening tour operation business:

> When the country opened its borders, it was in 1989, and before 1989 I couldn't even go to business there, they would not allow. But in 1989 all the changes happened, and I went back and I met a lot of friends and relatives. Everybody was seeking an opportunity to open some private enterprise and they were looking for

> contacts with foreigners. So it happened that we opened this travel company in Russia.

Two other participants -- Lilly and Kartar, a marketing manager and a head of the Tourist Board of India in the USA respectively, were equally satisfied with the way their business degrees matched their careers in travel industry. At the time of schooling, however, they did not plan tourism as a career. Kartar, who was also a Business Administration major, for instance, did not rely much on this education at the initial stage of his career. Choosing tourism, he even wanted to get away from business:

> My education was at the School of Business Management and I was taught to work with business concepts. The reason why I joined this department was the challenge to get away from the stereotype of being in the business house. Tourism seemed to be more challenging.

Instead, he found the comprehensive education he received in high school in India with its emphasis on history and geography to be more useful for his work. However, at the later stages of his career, his knowledge of business administration became a significant asset for him.

Two of the subjects who had degrees in languages and literature also found their education quite helpful in their professional functions. One of these women thanks to her fluency in Japanese was stationed in Japan, the other one who majored in English was stationed as the director of tourism for her country in the United States. These women found that their education in foreign languages, literature, and culture facilitated their careers in travel industry and their transitions to different international settings.

Two other respondents had degrees in Law. For one of them, Burton, the director of South African airways company for North America, law was a part of comprehensive schooling, which basically encompassed all major aspects of education, which are now specially designed for travel and tourism majors:

> I've been to university courses and I got the degree from one of the universities in South Africa which was a commercial degree combined with a law degree and the

> world business degree. In this set there were commercial subjects like economics, industrial economics, accounting, and other things like that. And the other part of it was in law. So after that I joined airlines.

For other respondent, Alfonso, his legal education accidentally exposed him to the opportunity to work for tourism:

> I came into tourism through the back door because I had to pass a competitive examination for the Ministry at that time of Information and Tourism. So basically what I was interested when I came to the Ministry was information. And being a journalist and law specialist I passed that. And then I went to Stockholm as a press council for the embassy and the Minister asked me also to take charge of the tourism office, and so I started to work for the tourism and I loved it.

One of the respondents, Frances, who received her education in political science and international relations, did not find her degree immediately related to the hotel business she was engaged in. However, in terms of dealing with new cultural and political environment, as well as general cultural awareness which this respondent demonstrated, her education in politics and international relations found some significance in her professional life:

> I studied political science and international relations at the University of Lasagna. So it certainly did not prepare me for the hotel business but that's something which is not very complicated. Once you get the books from the hotels, you read and you know how to do this. But my interest in politics and international relations had served me very well because when I lived in Africa, the bar of my hotel was the center location for all spies who came for drinks there. See, there was so much at stake there as there were largest mines of uranium in that province. Now we have uranium from Russia but at that time it was not available to the West. So Americans held a big stake there, and the Russians wanted to know what the Americans did about it, and the Chinese were there because they were curious, and the French were there because they wanted to see if they could get their share of the pie, and they all came for drinks to my bar. So there was lots of fun.

Thus, none of the respondents had received professionally oriented education through college prior to their involvement with tourism and travel industry. However, all of the respondents found their non-directly-related degrees and education useful for their various career moves in tourism and travel. The only exception to this general tendency

was demonstrated by Steve whose highest educational attainment was directly connected with tourism. As all his other educational experiences this one was also a follow-up for his latest career move, made specifically to validate his entry to higher education as a professor of tourism and travel:

> I had a grade of doctoral equivalence on the basis of having 30 post-master's education credits and formally it requires ten years of professional as well as doctoral equivalency and equal professorial rank. There was no need for me to get further education if I stayed at college, but the provost said: "You will benefit from a degree if you want to make education a full-time career for yourself. You'd rather get your doctorate." And so I went back and I got it. So in a certain sense education has validated my career moves and interests rather than initiated them for me.

Professional Development. At the time when most of the participants of the research were beginning their careers in tourism and travel industry, specialized training at college level was rare and was not offered by many colleges. This lack of professional preparation is often compensated by professional development organized by the company and can be considered an alternative form of specialized formal education. For one of the participants, Antonio, professional development though the company was the only post-secondary education he had received as he did not have an experience of going to college. The amount of training he had received through his company was sufficient to get him to managerial positions of high responsibility even without higher education:

> They have been training me for more than ten years. And they are still training. It never stops. It's impossible, in airlines you have to be updated every day, and things change so fast that what you have learned in the past needs to be updated all the time. Different fairs, different competition, different countries, different markets, everything is different, and it changes every day. We meet so many different people every year, every day, and we learn a lot of things with this kind business.

The information that the respondents provided with respect to their professional development showed that there is a significant difference both in quantity and quality of training between different branches of the travel and tourism industry. Thus, subjects

employed by airlines reported the largest amount and the highest consistency in training than any other travel and tourism employees:

> We get a lot of training. Every time we go to a different place we have to learn a lot of things about that country, geography, people, well, so many things. Some of these courses are done inside the company, for others you go outside. We get a lot of training, business meetings, every month we have a different thing. (Antonio)

Other airline managers though acknowledged existence of training in their companies but were less enthusiastic about its content and its relevance. Answering the researcher's question about cross-cultural aspects of dealing with people in various locations, Ricardo, the director of the Brazilian airlines company, stated:

> No, it is not a specific training, but rather a superficial training about the people and the country. On the side of the onboard service they have specific training on cultural aspects, the way to serve a meal, the way to address passengers, so that is definitely done, but nothing for anybody else.

However inappropriate or superfluous professional development and training may seem to airline employees, it was found by the researcher to be the only consistent training offered within the industry. Among those participants who were employees of government tourism organizations none reported going through any cross-cultural or other professional training. The only representative of the government tourism employees who participated in the research and had some kind of on-job educational experience was Alfonso. He had to study a curriculum of tourism on his own for two years to pass an exam required by the ministry he was working for. No on-job training was reported by the employees of hospitality industry.

Thus, summation of the data obtained from the interviewing different travel and tourism managers demonstrate that cross-cultural or any other professionally related training seems to be almost nonexistent in the upper managerial level. Absence of on-job cross-cultural managerial training is characteristic of travel and tourism industry as a whole, irrespective of professional specialization or geographical location of the companies. Neither mature European firms with long-standing international experience

nor young African or Asian companies which are only discovering overseas markets demonstrate any concern about cross-cultural education of their employees. At best one subject, Antonio, reported some training provided by his company but assessed this training as a superficial one in terms of his own managerial needs. It is interesting to note that this subject was the only one who initiated a lot of formal education on his own and even paid for the courses himself. He regarded these expenses as an investment one puts in oneself. The amount of effort this respondent had put into his self-education was intended to make up for higher education he had not received.

Training by a Predecessor. Absence of formal on-job training is often compensated by the semi-formal training given by a predecessor. This kind of training is most often found in government tourism agencies. The predecessor usually introduces a new employee into details of the position and the country of assignment. Kartar found this kind of training to be very effective and time-wise:

> I think it is important, before you go to the other country, to talk to people who have already been there. It doesn't matter whether they are the office people who you contact or somebody else as long as they are able to give some input to a person who is coming to a new country. When I go back to India I would not go to other section or department without passing over what I've learned here to the next person who is coming here. This is important for learning the markets and it saves time to get to them. So if a new person is coming here we'll get it straight with him. There must be an overlapping -- either he comes here, or I go there. And I would give him the background, give him all the things he needs, and out of six months [of adjustment] as it was with me it may become four months or less for him.

This kind of efficient and inexpensive training is known among many tourism and travel companies. However, none of the respondents reported receiving this training him or herself. One of the respondents explained the lack of company-sponsored training in the following way: "At that time they [the companies] didn't spend much time on that. Now they do. But twenty five years ago or so it was nonexistent." Even Ricardo and Sergio, whose companies consistently practiced this kind of training and these respondents themselves participated in on-job preparation of new employees, were not

able to get it at the time of their own new appointments. For Ricardo, it was because he was a pioneer in a number of new markets for his company and naturally did not have a predecessor. Sergio also experienced similar situation because of the complete restaffing of the site office:

> Usually you have a promoter who helps you. Unfortunately here I had only one promoter who stayed, all the rest left and we had to hire new people. And I had to find them myself at the same time as I was learning the new market. So it was difficult.

Thus, on-job training by the predecessor appears to be dependent on a number of objective and subjective circumstances, such as availability of the predecessor and his or her willingness to share the necessary information. The fact that none of 15 participants of the research reported going through this kind of training prior or at the time of their numerous overseas assignments testifies to insufficient reliability of this form of training. Most of them shared the experience described by Kartar:

> It is very strange, and I am not sure about the other countries, but before I was sent to any country no such training was given, no integral knowledge about this country was given, you were not informed about what you had to expect out there. All you need to know about this place you have to learn from your own experiences. You have to learn in the field. In other words, you have to start from the scratch. . . . So it took me nearly five to six months before I could move around on my own. Maybe longer.

The relevance of formal education received by the respondents for their professional needs can be also assessed from the point of view of their career development. This approach allows to perceive the connection, if any, between each type of formal education and changes in professional functions and responsibilities.

Career Patterns. None of the respondents had reported any career planning prior to their entry into tourism and travel industry. Therefore, their educational pursuits were not part of their intentional/ preparation for profession. Whatever industry-related education or training they had received was subsequent to their career moves and was of a reactive rather than proactive nature determined by the demands of a position and/or

assignment. The following career patterns were observed among the respondents. Fourteen of the fifteen subjects came to tourism and travel industry at the result of some circumstances related to specific individual developments in their lives. As none of these moves was planned and envisioned on their side, their careers in tourism started strictly for circumstantial reasons. There was only one subject, Elizabeth, who from the start intended to be professionally involved with tourism. Coming from a family with a long history in tourism, she planned on entering the field of travel when she was in high school. The difference in the career start of this respondent from the others did not reflect, however, the difference in their education or training pursuits, as even with career in tourism on her mind, Elizabeth did not choose tourism as her college major but concentrated on international relations and journalism instead.

The patterns of further career development of respondents manifested more relationship between education and career moves. There were ten respondents whose careers fit into a straight pattern of career development, as all their professional life they remained within one industry field. Those respondents reported mostly self-education and learning on the job by informal means of gathering information about cultural peculiarities of the country of their assignments. Five other respondents had a defused pattern of career development as across their professional life they were involved in more than one aspect of the industry, going from either hotel to tourist boards or from tourism to airlines and back again to tourism. Some of them also switched between tourism and teaching and consulting. Sergio's career can serve as an example of a diffused career pattern typical for many tourism managers:

> If you want to know my experience, I have been working for most of my 25 years in the industry as the director of tourism. I started working for tourism in Stockholm in 1972. Then I was the director of tourism in Switzerland for 3 years and then was invited to work for one tourist company in London for 10 years. And they invited me to join a Portugal airline and to become the Director General for the company in Scandinavia. Then I went to Copenhagen, and then I went back to London, then I had enough of Airlines. I went back to tourism as I was

> invited to join tourist agency in Paris. And after Paris I have been in New York. So I have been to a number of very fine places while I have been in tourism for 25 years.

Among this group of respondents there were some formal training endeavors registered most of which were consecutive to the shifts in their careers. Thus, Steve's move into tourism education area necessitated his acquisition of a doctoral degree, while Lilly's assignment to North American market was followed by her going through internship period with the company's US-based office.

Only one subject, Frances, had a disrupted career pattern. At the time she began her career in Belgium as a hotelier, education in hospitality was very rare. Her formal education was in Political Science and International Relations. Her informal education in the industry was achieved through vicarious learning from her husband who was in the hotel business. After her divorce Frances took a break from hospitality industry and worked for UNISEF for a year. Then she spent two years in Morocco working for a Swiss bank as an official liaison between the bank and Moroccan business. Both of these positions were sidesteps from tourism but allowed her to acquire new experience in international relations. She did not believe in the possibility of any conscious career planning on the side of a woman. Neither did she favor formal professional education, but rather relied more on her instincts and intuition. Her attitude was grounded in her personal experience:

> As a woman, you cannot plan because you usually follow the man unless all of a sudden you get separated for one reason or another. And then you have to make a decision but otherwise you have to deal with what is given to you, the complex of circumstances you find yourself in. And that's what usually happens because the man has another posting or something else. You have to be flexible, you have to know that sometimes you have to hold your horses and then you can jump further when the next opportunity arrives. You add up and accumulate the stuff you're very good at. As for education for managers, I think that you either have managerial instincts or you don't have them, that's it. And I would say that when you are hitting obstruction, whether it is your career or whatever, you should never swim against the stream. You should just go with the tide and with the stream, you will always end on a beach somewhere. And you won't be completely exhausted, so that then you can go back to the place where you wanted to start

from. And I think that's what you have to remember and have this kind of a relaxed style.

Thus, the participants were able to benefit from their formal education in their career pursuits in different degrees. None of them, however, reported that education he or she received was geared in any particular way to their career needs and career progress. An important contribution to the understanding the role of formal training in the professional life of tourist and travel managers can be found from the point of view of type of employment (positions and company affiliation) that they maintained throughout their career paths.

Type of Employment. All respondents who at the time of interviewing served as senior managerial personnel for their companies had passed all the intermediate rungs of the career ladder in the industry. Judging by their experiences with training it is possible to state that no relationship between position and training was found. The data provided by the interviewees show that within last twenty years, the time when the careers of most of the participants were developing, no distinction in training needs was made in the industry between the employees in entry positions and those who were promoted to senior ranks or moved in between the departments.

The only difference in the type of employment that the researcher was able to identify was observed between the subareas of travel and tourism industry. Thus, as was noted above, there was no on-job training perceived in the hospitality, travel, tourism and retail fields. The participants who worked in those areas did not even acknowledge the existence of any training offered by their companies. The only branch that offered professional training with respect to assignment abroad or working with foreign clients were the airlines. Three respondents working in this area reported existence of this kind of training, one had even participated in it but called it superficial.

Informal Training

As the professional needs of tourism and travel managers during their sojourn abroad were not addressed by their formal education, they employed other sources of knowledge and experience. One of the most useful forms of informal education, that was reported by the participants of the research, was vicarious learning received in the family.

Learning in Family. Four of the research participants reported significant influence of vicarious learning within the family on their professional functioning. As tourism and travel professionals themselves, these subjects recognized importance of knowledge and experience they had received in their families either growing up with the family or marrying into the family which specialized in hospitality, tourism or other related fields. It is important to note that at first three out of four tourism managers who came out of families with several generations employed in the industry initially rejected this familial career path and wanted to make a different professional commitment:

> My educational background has nothing to do with tourism. But I'm the third generation of people involved in tourism. My grandfather was a hotelier in one of the biggest national hotels in Lisbon they had at that time, hotel "Le Grand." And my uncle was the director of that hotel, and my father was the Director General of national tourism in 50's. I myself, however, started in 1972 in tourism because I wanted to go to Switzerland to join IBM in their research department, and as a tourist guide it was the easiest way to get to Switzerland. (Sergio)

> I have a family hotelier background, but I decided not to go into it at that age, which my father of course didn't like. I wanted to study economics, and for three years I was at the university at Belgium, and then unfortunately I doubled and failed, and my father said I had to go to work, and I did . . . And I ended up working for Hotels International. (Hans)

Later on, however, when they joined the industry themselves, they found vicarious learning, which they had received as children observing their parents work, very useful:

> I don't have a good classical hotel education, but out of my years of studying economics, I carried a lot of disciplines with me. And of course I have accommodated previous experiences I have received from my parents of the inside, practical side of the industry. (Hans)

> I really was at school when I thought I would end up working in the travel industry. Not per se, but my life has always been in travel and in tourism, and it was my background since I was born. And also my father was very much involved in developing travel in Brazil and he had a lot of friends who were in travel industry. So again that is the influence of my background. So the answer to your question about education is this: No, I didn't do it at school, but my background has been such that equipped me with all my knowledge. (Elizabeth)

> I used to travel a lot, you know that. I know the history because I love history and I contacted many cultures and many populations because of my father's job. He was the president of the International Union of Tourism. He traveled around the world and I was with him. So I was open minded. Now I realize that people should spend some time adapting to different culture and learning how to work in different environments. (Sergio)

> My first job was in the hotel business, which was in the sixties when there was a war going on between Catania and the rest of Congo, which was before it became Zaire. So nobody wanted to go and work there because it was scary. So this gave me the opportunity to go there at the very early age and get this incredible responsibility. I was the director of the hotel when I was only twenty-four years old, and I was married and my husband had another hotel. So I learned a lot from him. But it was a very interesting experience because: a) I was not trained for the job; b) it was a completely different culture; and c) as a woman you were really looked upon as a very weird animal to give orders to 359 employees. (Frances)

Though family training was recognized as an important experience by all four tourist managers who had been exposed to it, with a universal expansion of tourism today as one of the most developing industries, it is hardly possible to rely on family training as an adequate way of professional education. Even in the limited sample of this research more than 77 percent of participants were coming from families not affiliated with tourism. This kind of training is therefore limited in terms of access and educational opportunities.

Self-Education. Self-education and learning from one's own experience was recognized by all participants as a difficult but one of the best ways to accumulate professional skills and knowledge. Oftentimes it is the only way to accomplish professional education with respect to functioning in a different cultural setting. All participants of the interviewing reported going through hard, time consuming and full of errors way of learning to work and communicate in a new cultural environment. Data on

errors way of learning to work and communicate in a new cultural environment. Data on more specific lessons received in cross-cultural communication and their implications will be presented later in the subchapter on cross-cultural communication. In this paragraph the general assessment of the utility of this kind of training by the participants of the research is given:

> For me it was always training on the job. And that is something that always has to be done. For instance, when I was transferred from South Africa to Bangkok, I myself started all the digging. Even though we didn't have any knowledge of the culture and I myself was the first guy to explore this vast and new territory, the work had to be done. ... It is always helpful to learn the way of doing business in that country. You can go, for instance, to a school or a consulting company of the country where you are starting the business and ask them: "What should I know?" I think it would have helped me a lot if before going there I had an immersion course in which I would have learned the language, how to address people, etc. And not under all this pressure I was receiving from my head office because of the deadline to have a flight started. And if I had approached these issues in a different way it could have been much easier for me than all this learning afterwards that what I was doing was not the way to address it. Because the people I was dealing with could never tell me: "Sorry, sir, you were wrong. This is not the way to do business in Thailand." That would be a lack of respect and a person would rather resign than say this. (Ricardo)

> Before I go to a new country, Brazil, for instance, I would definitely go and see the ambassador and the council general of that country, and the Chamber of Commerce people, and I would try to meet with the Belgians who were there. I would go and visit all my colleagues in the trade, in other tourist offices, I would go and see all the airline people and the big tour operators. I would learn Brazilian, oh, Portuguese. I will get my best training from my peers. (Frances)

Antonio, the respondent from Portugal, who did not have any formal education even on the undergraduate level was the most emphatic about the use of self-education. He himself has been investing his own personal funds into his education without waiting for the company to do this for him:

> Well, if you expect to have a career and you expect to get to the top, you have to invest your own money in your own career. Sometimes the company changes, sometimes they change you, so you have to have your own curriculum. And the trick is to be able to do things the right way. Sometimes you have to invest money, your own money. (Antonio)

Thus, the participants of the research reported various educational experiences, none of which but one was connected with any form of specialized professional education. The sample of the participants of in-depth interviewing is not sufficient enough to make any conclusions about the typical undergraduate and graduate majors that bring people into tourism industry. However, it is remarkable that among 15 interviewees there were two who majored in economics or accounting, three who majored in business, and two who majored in foreign languages. In these and other areas of major education they were able to draw on their knowledge and apply it to their professional functioning.

With respect to other form of specialized training, professional development, many participants reported that their companies were providing this formal educational opportunity to employees, however, none of the participants experienced this training as a student. So all of them had to resort to other available educational opportunities. For four of them it was industry related family background, which provided these participants with sufficient expertise and knowledge acquired via vicarious learning. Most significant educational acquisition in cross-cultural professional educational was made by all participants during their personal encounter with other cultures. In the process of cross-cultural communication tourism managers developed their cross-cultural awareness, learned how to communicate with representatives of other cultures in a more effective way and how to accomplish their professional tasks across cross-cultural differences. The profile of educational experiences of the participants is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Educational Experience of the Participants of the Research (n=15)

Form of Education	Number of Participants
College (Undergraduate Degree)	11
Graduate Degree	9
Professional Development	4
Training Through Family	4

Educational Needs of Travel and Tourism Managers

Exploring the data, which pertains to the second research subarea, the researcher tried to elicit information on the perceived educational needs of tourism and travel managers and the kind of training they perceived to be adequate and most effective for their successful professional functioning overseas. Though none of them was exposed to any professionally related education prior to their assignments abroad, their rich personal experience allowed the respondents to arrive at clear and comprehensive understanding on what kind of education is required for tourism managerial personnel. Two of the participants, Steve and Sergio, could also rely in their assessment on their knowledge of available educational opportunities as Steve completed his doctorate program in tourism and travel, while Sergio at the time of interviewing was planning on entering doctorate program in the near future and had done some research. Four other respondents expressed a strong desire to return to college and get specialized education even though they already held top executive positions in their companies.

Irrespective of their personal plans about their own further education almost all respondents were emphatic about the industry's need for comprehensive professional schooling. The realization of this need, however, was envisioned by them in different

educational formats and different educational designs with different purpose and content. This part of data presentation brings together all the responses which were obtained by asking the respondents how they envisioned adequate and necessary training for the industry in terms of its content and format.

Content of Training

Major distinction as to the purpose and content of tourism education was observed in the degree of its utilitarian orientation. Thus, four of the interviewed managers advocated more comprehensive and universal education, appropriate for a wide variety of locations and positions. The other eleven thought it would be more useful to have training specially geared towards a particular location or function. The participants pointed out to different contextual parts of such training, however, the emphasis on cross-cultural component of these areas was emphasized by all of them.

Cross-Cultural Communication. The above presented data show that the participants of the research have received diverse education and in many ways were prepared for their professional functioning as managers and top administrators of the travel and tourism industry. However, no training or education they had received prepared them for challenges of communicating cross-culturally. All of them during their assignments abroad encountered strange and unknown cultural environments. All of them, irrespective of national, cultural, educational, or family background had to overcome their initial misunderstanding and often rejection of a foreign culture and find their own ways of adjusting to it and dealing with its representatives. It is remarkable how close the perceptions of certain cultures that they acquired through self-education and immediate exploration of a new cultural environment were to the observations made in different cross-cultural studies.

Martino provided a very elaborate rationale for his professional behavior in Brazil. He developed this rationale on the basis of his profound understanding of the essence of Brazilian culture and underlying culturally related cognitive patterns and

behavior motivation of Brazilian people. He was able to trace the peculiarities of modern Brazilian culture, which he encountered, back to the country's historical background, specifically to Jesuit religious rule:

> In Brazil Jesuits colonized people and taught them the historical background and philosophy, which was Portugese or Spanish biased. I realized that according to it if any difficulties are created, they would find the informal way to solution. Apparently it's a bureaucratic land. But if you go to someone who is in charge you can find an informal solution. It's the understanding of the background of Jesuit colonization that allowed me to go through informal procedures.

On the basis of his knowledge of Jesuit and Calvinist religions and their cultural implications Martino was able to make helpful comparisons about the ways communication works in American and Brazilian cultures and adjust his professional behavior accordingly:

> Here in the Calvinist culture everything is so coded. If you ask any corporate officer to find an informal solution, it won't be done, everything is encoded. Here order is more guaranteed. There is equity of treatment in everything but you can't go around the problem. The process is becoming longer.

The ability to process cognitively the peculiarities of a foreign culture and internalize them for one's professional needs is one of the major characteristics of the successful international management. The importance of cross-cultural education and cross-cultural knowledge in this process was shown by Armand. He reflected on his experience of working in the United States where cultural environment, in his opinion, is saturated with complicated racial, gender, disability, sexual orientation and other life styles issues which have intense political and social meaning. Ignorance of these issues and of their significance for the life of American society, to his mind, can be detrimental for professional careers of foreign personnel sojourning in the USA: "One must use so much caution in every day language or demeanor not to offend somebody's feelings. Or worse he might be entangled in a legal suit."

That was exactly what happened to one of his younger and less experienced colleagues, who had neither knowledge nor enough awareness of the complicated nature of the cultural environment to which he was introduced during his US assignment:

> We had a bit of problem in one of our offices with a young guy who came to be the director of the regional office. It was the first time he was abroad and had problems in this part of the world with every kind of people you can have problems with. He had problems with a Jewish community, he had problem with women in his staff, he had problem with gay people, etc. So we were obliged to take him off very soon, within days. And I can imagine that if he had some kind of training or had the opportunity to go to seminars . . . especially on harassment and on every kind of things which are different from one country to the other. And if he were aware that this may be a problem. . . They don't give you clues and perhaps you don't know how you have to behave but you know you must be very careful because this could be a problem. Colors, religions are things that are not so important in Europe, you make jokes on everybody else, you know. French make jokes on people from Belgium, Belgians make jokes on Germans, Germans make jokes on people from Poland, and everybody laughs about that. You know you may say anything about anybody else without having a lot of problems. This is definitely something which is entirely different here. Crazy, and totally different.

In most cases the interviewees reported increasing cultural awareness of the appropriate ways of communication with their local employees and clients and had to adjust their styles of management to a new cultural context. An exemplary experience of building trust with his South African employees and arriving at efficient managerial style was shared by Hans. This manager was able to perceive the nature of the racial conflict, which underlined the whole culture of professional communication of employers and employees in South Africa. The way he established the link between the history of the country, structure of social relations, attitude towards authority and appropriate ways of management is shown below:

> South Africa is the country dominated for a long time by the whites and the apartheid system. The black people were really managed by the white on a very severe basis. There was really very little trust at the beginning, almost no trust at all. So they were very afraid, even of their management at first. And the more you could get closer to them, in meetings, in training sessions, the more you can get involved with them the better. It was like: "Yes, I am the boss here, but I also want to get something from you." It became really a two-way communication. At

> the result of that we had great promotion of the local staff, we created the choir, we made great concerts for the city, we had staff parties. These were some of the ways we created their positive reaction to the management. (Hans)

Knowledge of certain characteristics of the culture also helped Ricardo who gradually got to understanding how the issue of power distance defines the ways of professional communication in Thailand:

> In Thailand you have to call a "middle man" in everything. This is a kind of facilitator, a guy that you have contacts through with royal family or with the government. So it is very difficult for foreigners to deal directly with some of the Thais, you must have a middleman, a guide to tell you what is the best way to take. And it is difficult to learn.

To understand the nature of cultural competence which tourist and travel managers needed in their work their experiences were also analyzed in this study from the position of cultural distance of the countries they served in. This approach was undertaken with respect to the opinion of some researchers that the greater the cultural distance the more cross-cultural preparation it requires from the sojourners.

Cultural Distance. As it was discussed in Chapter II, cultural distance is perceived to be related to the degree and duration of sojourners' adjustment to a new cultural environment. This researcher tried to look into the skills adjustment required from managers in different countries and to derive from this analysis possible implications for cross-cultural training.

It was initially assumed that representatives from European culture would feel more comfortable adjusting to the North American setting due to their common historical and cultural heritage of the Western culture. However, the respondents' stories revealed significant difficulties encountered by them overseas irrespective of the apparent proximity of cultures.

For instance, Alfonso from Spain got one of his most important life lessons in another European country, Sweden:

> This has nothing connected with tourism area. But I can give you an example which is very anecdotal but which could have influenced my way of working ever since. I came to Sweden in September 1974 and I was organizing a huge exhibition at the conference outside Stockholm. I made an appointment with the Director of Exhibition Hall at 12 o'clock. It was January and it was 12 degrees below zero, so it was very-very cold. I got lost on the highway to Stockholm and I came something like 15 minutes late. 15 minutes late in the Spanish culture is totally acceptable, it's a margin within which everybody will accept being late as normal. When I arrived at the Congress Hall I saw that the director and his assistant were standing there, out in the cold just in their jackets waiting for me. I felt so terrible that never again in my life could I get late to my appointments.

Equally difficult lessons in adjustment to a new cultural setting were experienced by people coming into a significantly distant culture. Lilly from Hong Kong reported the following difficulties in getting to understanding the rules of business behavior of North America:

> Here, in New York, it is different: you don't ask you don't get it. It is not the same way in Hong Kong. There you have to scheme through to get what you need. Here, on the contrary, if you are not upfront about what you want then you don't get it. But in Hong Kong you try to do it in a less upfront manner. I have gradually learned that if I don't speak up I won't get anything. There is no point hinting. (Lilly)

Another participant, Steve, found equally difficult to learn the rules of appropriate social behavior both in European Switzerland and African Kenya:

> When I started at Grand Circle, I was 22 years old. My wife was 21, and we had never been outside the United States before. When we arrived in Switzerland, nobody instructed me about manners and norms of Swiss. For example, there is a universal cultural norm related to dress. But in Switzerland when one goes to work one gets dressed informally, you don't need to wear socks and you can wear jeans and open shirt and so forth. They don't wear tie and jacket on a daily basis in the office. On the other hand, when you go to the market on Saturday and Sunday, that's when you bring out your whole attire. And here we are, in Switzerland, with my new wife, and I went to the office the way we go to office in New York in shirt and tie. Nobody said anything to me, because after all I was the only American in a thirty-person office and I guess they thought: "That's how Americans get dressed." But then we went to the market, and my boss, my head director was phoned on the Monday morning by various people in the town, for after all the population of Lasagna was 5 thousand and it was really a small town with only country folks at that season, and he received complaints about my demeanor and my dress and what a poor representative I was of his company, and that I should be spoken to. ... Or for instance, how does one relax in Kenya, when

> one is being invited to a dinner in which one is served boiled chicken eyes on a platter as an honored guest with everybody sitting around and looking at you to see how you enjoyed that delicacy. I can tell you that boiled eyes are not high on my culinary tips list but you learn that you just have to be not offensive when people are sharing something significant with you. (Steve)

Experiencing difficulties in adjustment to relatively close cultures managers were expected to be in a more complicated position adjusting to more distant cultures. However, it turned out that some of them felt more comfortably in more exotic cultures than in Europe or Northern America. For instance, Burton found it more difficult to work in the United States than in South Africa:

> I think that the difficult thing is trust. Coming from South Africa and then working in Europe you go on relying very much on honesty and trust. But what I have found out in the United States that you have to be all the time on the look out. Mostly because the United States are free market driven, everyone is for himself in the society, and to trust people . . . You have to check on and make sure that someone is not trying to take your company for a ride in most of your business dealings in this country. And you really have to make sure that everything is in place legally. This is also because of the number of lawyers operating in this country. I can understand why. Because there is business for them here. People try to use the matter of law to see if they can take advantage of something. And this is one of the things that I specifically find in the United States, and mostly in New York, extremely difficult.

Another respondent from Europe, Martino, also found life in Brazil less challenging than life in the United States:

> Here order is more guaranteed. There is equity of treatment in everything but you can't go around the problem. The process is becoming longer. Everything is so coded. You can't find an informal solution. Brazilians are so comfortable with their life, it is poorer but less frustrated society. They are not as frustrated as I feel Americans are, who are so coded, so rude. For example, in Brazil they don't have proper traffic lights, but they don't act in the aggressive way if you bump into somebody. In Brazil traffic is heavy but they live with it, they don't yell at each other like people do here. Taxies are not that crazy like in NY even though there is a lot of taxies. I don't want to leave an impression that I prefer Brazil to the USA but....

Steve, from the perspective of his multicultural experience and education, shared his view on the relevance of cultural characteristics and managerial experiences:

> Every country has a different business structure and different cooperative world and different legal requirements and there are different reporting requirements. Even in England cooperative forms, reported forms, currency convergence were absolutely different than they were in the United States. Business manners are partially formed by the governmental forms, partially formed by regulations and partially formed by culture. It is always different regardless of the language that is being spoken. So doing business is more related to culture than it seems.

Thus, the data convincingly showed that the degree of cultural distance between the countries of managers' origin and the countries of their business sojourn is not significantly relevant to the amount of sojourners' effort in learning the norms of cross-cultural communication in a new cultural environment. It turned out that even the countries which are not considered to be culturally distant, such as, for instance, the USA and Western European countries, may present a significant cross-cultural challenge for the representatives of each side.

Twelve participants of the in-depth interview felt that culture and understanding of its basic categories in their relevance to communication must be included into any kind of training designed for tourism and travel employees. Antonio, for instance, thought it was necessary before the overseas assignment for an employee to go through a full immersion course in that culture for a period of at least two months to be effective on the job and also to manage family life in a new setting without so much stress as he himself had experienced. Supporting this idea, Ricardo went even further suggesting that cross-cultural training should be given not only to the employee but to the members of his family as well:

> Like anyone going for overseas position, on the managerial position, you should go for training. Not only an employee, his wife should as well, because it's very important for your success. Because your family can destroy not only the image of you but of the company that you represent as well. ... That's why I say that when you are planing to go to different culture, a man doesn't need only the technical side of his business, you have to learn about the special aspects, the culture of the people, ways of doing business there on the day-to-day basis.

Besides personal adjustment to a new cultural environment, understanding of the specific characteristics of the culture was perceived as facilitating for professional

performance. Most of the managers shared the opinion that knowledge of other culture helps sojourners, first of all, effectively function in their business environment: "Being educated about the cultural environment of your work means to obtain the most efficient results from the employee" (Martino).

Language. Another aspect of education which most of the interviewed tourist managers found very relevant for the professional success abroad was knowledge of the language of the country of the sojourn:

> The culture of the country is always implanted in the language and if you don't have a grasp of the language it is very difficult to come to terms with the culture. (Helena)

> Thinking of professional training I think of the language, I think the language is very important. It makes it so much easier to get closer to people. So I think we should take a serious consideration of language in these training programs. (Hans)

> To work here, in the States, was much easier for me because of the language which is an important factor. In India we speak English, but English was not the language in other areas I worked. When we go to the market where language is different and difficult, preparation is required to communicate properly, it is difficult to learn, to understand what they want, what their needs are without the language. (Kartar)

> When it comes back to people, I think of the language, I think the language is very important. It makes it so much easier to get closer to people. So I think we should take a serious consideration of language in these training programs (Hans)

In general, ten out of fifteen interviewees emphasized the importance of knowing the foreign language when going on the overseas assignments and suggested the inclusion of a foreign language into professional training of tourism and travel managers. It is important to note here that all non-American born respondents were proficient in at least one foreign language, English. The American born manager, Steve, was the only person who did not know foreign languages well when he started his first assignment abroad. He was using the interpreter and found it very difficult in terms of establishing natural communicative relationship with his partners and employees. He emphasized the need to know foreign languages for the managerial staff of travel and tourism industry.

Cross-Cultural Marketing. Understanding of foreign markets appeared to be the second greatest issue of concern after knowledge of the country and the language. Most of managers perceived the difference in marketing strategies they had to employ in their home countries and abroad. Armand, for instance, stated the need for inclusion of culturally oriented marketing into educational program for tour operators and retailers to facilitate their work with different clients they may encounter in their agencies. Another respondent, Lilly, supported this opinion from her own perspective. She explained that different marketing skills are required for working with Asian and American customers in her Asian Airline company stationed in the United States. She emphasized that these skills are essential for handling two cultures simultaneously, so that switching back and fourth between the cultures and addressing each problem in a different manner can be performed more efficiently.

Kartar, a manager of Indian tourism, perceived his major function in learning the markets and finding a niche for Indian tourism product in different cultural settings. He was particularly emphatic about the importance of marketing expertise:

> Here I have to sell India as a destination to compete with many other countries, here I am to sell India to agents, to tour operators, airlines, to consumers. Here, in the United States, this work is different from anywhere else. It is much more challenging here to compete with "noble" destinations, such as China, Middle East, Egypt. We have to know the market, to whom we are selling, how to sell it, who are the marketers, which area. We have to do all this study before we can sell India as a destination. This expertise is an important factor. You have to know your market and you have to know other markets where you are selling. Without that you are nowhere. You have to understand what you are selling and to whom you are selling. You have to know your culture but you also have to know other cultures well. This is an important factor.
>
> It is very difficult mainly when you are introducing a completely new product. It was like selling Brazilian Airline to South Asia. To fly from Rio to Bangkok takes 23 hours flying time. So when I was in 1992 introducing our company, they didn't know what I was talking about -- airline company or airconditioning company. And they were not familiar with Brazil. The only name they had of Brazil is that there was a guy called Pele. And the most important Brazilian product all over the world is Pele. The greatest soccer player. So it was interesting and it was a huge

> challenge to bring a new product into a new market. It's always amazing how many communication channels we had to open to convince them to take a twenty-two hour flying aircraft to go and visit the land that they have no idea of. (Ricardo)

Thus, understanding the specific needs of customers coming from different cultures with their own culturally specific values and interests was reported by 13 respondents as an important factor for successful tourism and travel business.

Management. Managers of travel and tourism industry on their assignments abroad have to deal with multinational personnel. Even those companies which employ workers of their own nationality and have less involvement of local workforce still have to employ it in a number of operations with regards to plant management. Therefore dealing with multinational human resources they get involved in cross-cultural communication. Knowledge of ways of dealing with people from other cultures and having the chain of command work in the most efficient and undisrupted manner was deemed very important by all participants.

Ivan, a Russian-born tourism manager, had the privilege of getting his education in management in both, American and Russian educational settings. This education together with his management experience allowed him to conclude that managerial skills are culturally determined and culturally oriented. To cater for this difference and to help his employees acquire the necessary cross-cultural managerial skills he employed the strategy of training his staff in a different cultural setting. The management staff of his company's offices stationed in Eastern Europe was brought for internship to the US, while American employees received their training in Russia:

> What I did, I brought them [Russians] over here and showed them actual work experience which I found very useful. They studied business procedures, not studied. but they updated their business procedures. And I kept people from the United States in Russian environment and they spent some time in that local environment. (Ivan)

Lilly, who was cited above with respect to her difficulties in understanding the differences in communicating messages between Asian and American customers,

reported similar problems in communicating with her American staff when she started her managerial job in the USA. Through her mistakes she gradually realized the necessity to inform her local staff of her needs in a different, direct way. Her previous managerial training was based on Asian norms of indirect way of communicating commands. In western work environment it did not work out right and needed to be changed. But it took her time to learn and adjust her managerial style to new cultural requirements. She felt she would have benefited if she had been exposed to this knowledge prior to her assignment.

Lilly's story supported other personal testimonies of difficulties and frustration many managers experienced overseas without any previous knowledge about the specific ways of communication in a foreign culture. Ricardo's story stands out among the rest as it most explicitly shows the process of learning the rules of communication in foreign culture and ways of adjusting managerial style according to them:

> It was a very difficult learning process. People in South Asia according to their culture cannot say "no" to you. You have to understand what "yes," "no," and "maybe" means. They can't say no, so they say "Let's see, let's work it out." But you should not rely on this. That was a major difficulty of getting across the message and having the feedback. Because of the respect that they have for you they cannot reply directly back to you. And besides in South Asia you have to respect their time. Don't you dare bring time concept from your culture into their culture. So there is no way to say: "I need this for tomorrow." They can't say "no" to you, but you will learn that it won't be ready tomorrow. So you must allow their own timing on what you want. Besides in Thailand, for instance, you must have a middleman in everything, a kind of a facilitator, a guy who will provide contacts with royal family or with the government. It is very difficult for foreigners to deal directly with some groups. And many do not know and understand this. Like in my case when I was in Thailand and my boss in Brazil would order: "I want to have this for tomorrow." And this boss in Brazil, he didn't know what it means to Thai people. There were a lot of failures in dealing with a different culture, when outsiders wanted to put pressure on things. So there are two things that didn't happen, as I learned. One thing was "tomorrow," you had to plan at least one week ahead of what you need. And the other thing -- you don't pressure your employee, otherwise he will never come back. Because he can't tell you: "No, I can't do this." He prefers to resign. And only a person living there can understand the meaning of what Thais do, and that goes for the whole South-East Asia. They have a word "*Mi fai ri*" that means "don't worry." This

> "don't worry" doesn't mean that tomorrow it will be all right. It means you have to go with the flow of their dance.

Frances, who always relied on herself in acquiring the necessary skills in management, showed, nevertheless, that learning cross-cultural experience from other sojourners helped her to arrive at the most appropriate managerial style with her local employees from Zaire:

> You don't know the environment in which you have to perform your tasks. I think the best thing is to go to people who have been there for a long time, who know the culture. I had been talking to what they call "the old colonials," people who had lived there for twenty and thirty years. And I was asking: "What's the trick there? How do you communicate with those people?" And they said that it is really a combination of a very strict discipline and a good sense of humor. You say something very seriously and immediately you make fun of yourself by saying, you know . . . "It is easy for me to do this, I just don't have to do it," something like that. Basic, infantile. But we got very well and they liked me. So they did everything I wanted them to do. (Francis)

History. Some of the respondents mentioned other aspects of appropriate training and education for tourism and travel employees. The importance of these components was realized by them via assessment of applicability of the knowledge they had acquired at college, high school or self-education to their professional needs. Thus, Kartar was able to appreciate the quality and use of comprehensive education in history and geography he had received at secondary school in India. For him, this education was even more helpful in understanding the needs of tourism industry than his college business education. Burton also mentioned acquiring a lot of cross-cultural knowledge on his own reading a lot on history and culture of other countries.

Importance of knowledge of history and national literature in understanding the country was stressed by Helena:

> I think that training in history is always useful. The history of the country influences its culture to a great extent. It is my background in American literature that helps me to understand dedication to convenience, service, but also individualism of the United States. And that is something that can again be traced back to history, and you can clearly see how the very culture evolved.

An interesting suggestion about training content was made by Sergio. He felt it necessary to pay attention to training in public relations and negotiation skills:

> Public relations is an important tool for our industry. It's all built on public relations. If you are negotiating, you negotiate through public relations. You don't negotiate like in many other sectors of business. You have to be good with people, you have to be diplomatic. You have to socialize, and you get much better results when you socialize than if you just go through business the usual ways. It's more of the public relations, diplomacy.

The summation of respondents' opinions on the content of envisioned education designed for tourism and travel managers is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Content of Envisioned Education

Training Aspects	Number of Supporters
Cultural Sensitivity	13
Cultural Marketing	13
Culture	12
Language	10
Management	9
History	5
Public Relations	1

Format of Envisioned Training. When asked about the best format for efficient tourism and training the respondents showed a greater variety of views than they shared with regards to the content. The suggestions ranged from a simple manual "that might give future management an idea of the skills and knowledge they might need prior to taking over a new assignment" (Lilly) to the extensive training through immersion into the culture (Antonio). The majority of respondents, however, believed that the best format for this training would be a series of seminars or workshops. The length of this

training ranged from three months to a year. The average duration of the training session suggested by the group was six months.

Some of the respondents were able to provide some helpful details about the way this training should be organized. Hans suggested to follow the model of training offered by international companies like Proctor and Gamble, which, in respondent's opinion, are excellent in it:

> When they are taking their people to the other country they have a specialist coming to them and talking to them about that country. In Brussels, I talked to those people in international business, and they told me that they went to the classrooms, including their families. They have been told about everything they had to expect in that country: schooling, housing, traffic, weather, travel. And also information on the job side -- what they have to expect from the labor unions, business climate, working hours, attitudes, everything. We don't do that.

On-job training by predecessor also found some supporters. One basic requirement that this group posed before this form of training was its adequate duration, up to three months at least (Kartar).

There was only one respondent, Francis, who did not favor any kind of training but for self-education and learning from one's own experience:

> You can't do it in training, because it is something that can be applied for one situation out of a hundred thousand. I always went to somebody who had this experience and he gave me good advice. I think that's the main thing. Lots of young people because they have good training, good theoretical training come and think that they know everything. And they make all these mistakes that they could avoid if they just listened a little bit and looked around them.

While analyzing respondents' responses with respect to the format of training one important difference stands out. Some of the respondents perceived training to be most effective when it is geared to the specific needs of the assignment and peculiarities of the definite culture of sojourn. Elizabeth, for instance, visualized managerial training as a series of workshops on a one-to-one basis with a specific need being met by a trainer or a teacher. Armand and Martino also expressed a need for on-going training for those tourist boards people who are changing geographical locations throughout their careers

and need a new briefing for each assignment. Martino also suggested that this training be administered by a teacher or trainer from the country of the assignment but conducted in the language of a learner.

Other respondents advocated more comprehensive universal training oriented towards development of cross-cultural awareness and cross-cultural communication skills. They believed that such knowledge would prepare managers better for diverse cultural situations and different communication systems. They provided the following rationale for such training:

> You cannot have just one trainer, you should have trainers of a certain multinational background, who have good psychological insights, those who can extract theory out of a number of practical incidents and make a synopsis out of them. So it becomes applicable to different types of culture. Certain things are the same for all different cultures. (Frances)

> What I think will happen and is happening around the world is that as the world turns into global market and the Internet becomes a prevailing form of communication. It's not useful to train somebody to be, for instance, just in Peru. One needs to train a person in a broad context of diverse cross-cultural activity. Then one can easily get to the specificity on the case-study basis from country to country. But what I have seen frequently is an obscure presentation of different countries rather than a global approach. You are employed by the global enterprise and you are likely to be shipped all over the world. I think one needs a bird's sight rather than an ant's sight view. (Steve)

In the respondents' perception, this advanced training could teach managers how to work more efficiently and profitably in any cultural surrounding, how to conduct business in a profitable, time efficient, and culture-friendly manner. This approach was perceived as the one that builds respect and friendships with partners and clients of various nationalities.

Age. While exploring various objective and subjective factors of the managers' career development and experience abroad two of the characteristics -- age and nationality -- were perceived as related to received or envisioned training. The participants of the interviewing represented different age groups ranging from late 20s to

late 50s. With concession for the size of the research sample it was not possible to define any consistent relationship between the age of the respondents and their training needs. However, taking into account the relevant novelty of specialized formal training in the field, it is possible to predict that respondents of the senior age group were not so much aware of such training or had less possibility to receive this education. For the younger group, however, the lack of this education might be the result of individual circumstances.

Nationalities and Countries of Origin. Fifteen participants of the research represented 12 different nationalities and 12 countries. The size of the sample does not allow for any generalizability of the findings across nationalities, however, it is necessary to state that no relationship was found between the nationality of the respondents and the training received or desired by them. None of the countries stood out in terms of providing specialized training in the tourism and travel industry at the time when the respondents went through formal college education. Degrees in travel and tourism, especially on a master's or a doctorate level is a fairly recent introduction to college curriculum. However degrees in hospitality have been in college curriculum for some time, at least from ten to fifteen years. The fact that none of the respondents, even those who were working in this branch of the industry, received this education can be explained by personal circumstances of the respondents rather than the availability of this education in their countries.

There was one attempt registered in establishing relationship between the nationality and the preparation required for the industry. Thus, Sergio from Portugal perceived Portuguese people being more comfortable with foreign language acquisition:

> Fortunately, the Portuguese have the facility to learn languages, we can speak French, German or English with not so much difficulty. Language is a big difficulty, as you know. French people have difficulty, Germans have difficulty. But Portuguese, they like languages. They have this rich international vocabulary and it's very easy with that.

This statement seems to be more of an ethnocentric cliché than a real faculty specific only of Portuguese people. The other manager of Portuguese origin, Antonio, did not express any particular ease in dealing with foreign languages and could speak only English besides his native language. Even Sergio himself was positive about inclusion of language training into professional preparation of tourism managers irrespective of their nationality.

Also, the researcher was able to perceive the difference in the approaches to acquiring culturally-related information by the representatives of individualistic American culture and the professionals coming from more collectivist-oriented cultures of Europe and Asia. Thus, the interviewed Americans seemed to do more independent research on culture and history of the countries of their assignment, while European and some Asian managers were more comfortable of employing professional networks and found it easier to turn to colleagues for direction and advice.

Gender. The analysis of received education and educational needs from the point of view of gender showed that women tend to have spent more years in formal education than men. Also, their major education tends to be concentrated in humanities, areas traditionally favored by female students. This education probably accounts for greater cultural sensitivity and appreciation of the culturally related orientation of training. Also, in expressing their views on the necessary education for travel and tourism managers, women emphasized the need for people-oriented skills, such as communication, but did not mention business-oriented areas, such as marketing or economics.

This specific attitude towards training needs can be explained by the additional difficulties female managers encountered as women:

> I knew that I was a woman and I knew because I was a woman I might have trouble, but if I act in a certain way I might get around it. And that was like my New York thinking: Just get it and do it like you have to do it. (Elizabeth)

Women seemed to be more adjustable to a new culture, inventive in gathering information or managing their local personnel. In getting their professional needs met they have to resort to their own ways of negotiating and networking, as the ones utilized by men are not always favored and appreciated by women:

> I had a friend and they would invite her for dinner or for lunch, and she would go and she would have dinner or lunch, she would go to retreat or something. It could be a painful event sometimes, because, you know, with a group of Japanese people you don't have really anything to say and you are there because they want you to be there like a token, and yet, doing those things you are able to do something for yourself and say something like: "Oh, I really need this, and I really need that," and you make those comments. You know, it makes me feel bad asking for what you need at that particular time when you know they will do it. It's just like, maybe, using the pioneering networks. Pretty much using the system. And it's not always good, sometimes, you know, I want to be honest, but you lie upright, when you really need to get something. (Elizabeth)

Because women encounter more difficulties in management they resolve to very sophisticated and flexible ways of cross-cultural and cross-gender communication. The Hofstede's dimensions of Femininity vs. Masculinity and Power Distance have different manifestations in different cultures. Women are especially perceptible to these differences as the behavioral norms considered appropriate for women in one culture often contrast with those of the culture in which they were brought up. Though they are not always comfortable with this adjustment they realize the need to make this concession to their partners' cultural perceptions to have their own needs realized. It is interesting to note that even though there is at least a 25-year age difference between Elizabeth whose strategy was cited above and Francis whose manipulating style is shown below the way they adjusted their managerial styles is similar:

> I was saying I do manipulate. I think a woman has to be that way because especially when you work with men of non-western culture, if you go your usual ways they will close up on you, you won't do anything. So you have to pretend that you are either stupid or you are totally subdued, or play a little girl, or smile.

> Whatever it takes but then you've got done what you want. And that's what I wanted. I didn't really care whether they thought I was smart or not smart, I wanted my gardens cleaned, I wanted my laundry washed, and I wanted my cooks do work for me. And it worked. But you have to show once in a while that you are the boss. And the least you have to show is that you are successful because this is an indication that they will do it to please you, which I think is much better that when they do it because they fear you. (Frances)

Self-reliance, developed intuition and good communicative skills characteristic of women could probably serve as an explanation of the fact that the interviewed female managers did not put so much emphasis on professional training as did their male colleagues.

Summary

All interviewed subjects were on the executive level of management in the travel and tourism industry. All of them had extensive sojourning experience, they had worked in other countries with different social and cultural environments. They were employed by major world airlines, government tourist boards, international hotel chains, or worked as tour operators, and travel and tourism educators.

None of the travel and tourism executives had any prior formal training in their industry, however many held degrees or had been educated in supporting fields, such as accounting, economics, law, journalism, language, history, political science and international relations. To some extent it is explained by the fact that a degree in travel and tourism is relatively a new area of education introduce into undergraduate curriculum within the past 20 years, with a limited number of universities around the world offering it as a major.

Women had more education than men, all of the interviewed women had master's degree, while 30 percent of male participants did not complete higher education. The women averaged 6.5 years of formal education in comparison to the mean 4.5 years of formal education in male group of participants.

None of the subjects had any prior cross-cultural communication training prior to their first overseas assignment. None had received substantial cross-cultural communication training prior to any of their following, even recent assignments.

The fifteen subjects identified six categories of training in cross-cultural communication important for their job functions:

- Language
- Marketing
- Management
- History
- Culture
- Culture Sensitivity.

Most respondents thought that this content of training could be efficiently implemented in the seminar form. One subject envisioned workshops and one subject thought a manual might be the most efficient way to train.

Some subjects felt a period of six-month training prior to taking an assignment would be the most beneficial form of training, especially when a new language must be learned for direct communication. Others gave high priority to taking proper amount of time to learn culture sensitivity in communication, marketing and management. In the marketing aspect this could save up to six-month time in exploratory fieldwork for new management. One participant felt that training in seminar fashion would work best once the manager arrives at his or her new assignment. Only one respondent working in the international tourist office thought that management training was not necessary due to the fact that they employ local personnel or expatriates.

Certain backgrounds provided the necessary epistemology for understanding the educational experiences and educational needs of the participants. These were four subjects who had the possibility to learn via vicarious experience in their own families as children or spouses.

Nationality did not make any difference in attitudes toward training. All of the subjects interviewed had been at least once assigned to a geographical area that was completely different from their own culture. Comparison of attitudes towards the perceived need for training and the degree of cultural distance of the countries of managers' overseas assignments did not show any significant distinction between adjustment to close and distant cultures. Therefore, all the managers regarded training as important to all subjects for a speedy adaptation and adjustment to a new environment and professional success. As one of the interviewees stated, travel industry should give their sojourning employees the same if not more comprehensive training as other industries are now doing for their international personnel.

Chapter V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was directed towards understanding of how well tourist and travel managers are prepared for cross-cultural communication, what training they have received in this area and what kind of training they need. Hence, the major research question this study posed was about the role training played in cross-cultural communication of travel and tourism managers and employees. The answer to this research question was sought through exploring the following subordinate areas, such as what training if any tourism managers received prior to their assignments abroad and how they perceived this training had affected or might have affected their cross-cultural communication.

The study was conducted by means of in-depth interviewing. The analysis of the research question and subordinate research areas was performed on the basis of information provided by 15 interviewees.

Conclusion

The data for the study was provided by 15 travel and tourism executives of different nationalities who had more than five years of experience working overseas. Besides, the selection of the participants of the study followed the purpose of representation of different branches of the travel and tourism industry, such as hospitality, tour operation, airlines, etc. This diverse group of interviewees provided sufficient ground to conclude that irrespective of their positions or nationalities all the participants shared similar experiences in training and cross-cultural communication. Commonalties shared by the participants in terms of their experiences, perceptions, and needs allow for

certain generalizability of conclusions with regards to training in the tourism and travel industry.

Understanding of the training needs of tourist and travel managers and appropriate educational means to meet those needs is achieved on the basis of data analysis from three approaches: first, received training and its assessment by managers, second, training envisioned, and, third, skills in cross-cultural communication utilized by the managers during their sojourn overseas.

Training Received

A relatively short history of professional education in tourism and travel can serve as a plausible explanation of the fact that none of the participants of the study had received it as their undergraduate schooling. However, this explanation holds true for those of them, who were in the senior age group. At the time of their undergraduate schooling college degrees in tourism and travel were not as widely spread as they are now. For those participants who were in the junior age group this explanation cannot be considered reliable as at the time when they went to college Tourism and Travel was already available as undergraduate major in a number of colleges. Another explanation of absence of professional undergraduate education in the surveyed group of managers can be derived from the fact that only one of the participants, Elizabeth, was planning on entering the field of tourism. Others while at college did not conceive tourism as their careers. Some of them even conscientiously rejected this choice, striving to break away from the family tradition. For Elizabeth, who did think of making tourism her career, the necessity to get education in this field did not occur at that time. Instead, she relied mostly on her education in foreign languages and international relations as well as on her experience in tourism received through the family background.

The study has revealed that only one of the subjects had a graduate degree in Travel and Tourism. This doctoral degree was obtained, however, to give credence to the subject's career move into college teaching and not to meet some specific professional

need for training. Steve, the American, stated that there was no need for him to get further education but he realized that he would benefit from it if he decided to make education his full-time job: "So in a certain sense education has validated my career moves and interests rather than initiated them for me" (Steve).

Also, there was only one subject among the participants who had not received any formal education but for the secondary school. It is interesting to note that this subject was, nevertheless, well-informed and professionally efficient thanks to self-education. He also felt very strongly about getting the appropriate education that would enable him to handle any complicated situation which might come up in his career. His need for education was so strong that he had been investing his personal money in his self-education, as he did not get much support or assistance from his company.

The study has also revealed that women subjects had more advanced education than male subjects had. Women at this research averaged 6.5 years of postsecondary education, while men 4.5. These data support similar findings about women's educational attainments in other professional fields (Astin, 1978; Chao & Malik, 1988, etc.).

In the assessment of professional needs that training in the tourism and travel industry should address, the respondents did not rely on any previous professionally relevant formal college education. As for Steve, who had received graduate education in tourism and travel, his opinion on content of education for the industry did not significantly differ from that of others. The only distinction which is worth noting at this point was his view of this education from the broad perspective of cultural diversity and cross-cultural communication rather than specific preparation for dealing with one particular culture or location. Steve expressed a strong opinion that it is impossible to prepare a person for all variants of cross-cultural contacts one can have in a new cultural environment. According to him. it is necessary for a person to be aware that manifestations of culture can be diverse and only from the position of developed cultural awareness and sensitivity can a person choose a right response to any unpredictable

stimulus generated in this culture. It should be the objective of professional education, in Steve's opinion, to develop this awareness and sensitivity in the employees of travel business.

It is possible to admit that this understanding of the essence of professionally directed education had developed in the context of Steve's broad educational experience. However, there were two other respondents who also considered that there are more commonalties than differences in the variety of the world cultures.

The other person who shared the same opinion was Frances who in general was not supportive of any form of formal education and relied very much on self-education, learning from her own experience, and on sharing experience through utilization of professional networks. "To listen" and "to look around" were her best learning recommendations together with relying on one's common sense and seeking good advice from the experienced others. However, when her concept of cross-cultural training was explored by probing she suggested a comprehensive cross-cultural approach built on the cultural universalism. The concept of education proposed by Francis was not coherently formulated in terms of "cultural globalization" and "diverse cross-cultural activity," used by Steve. Nevertheless, she meant the same speaking of a synopsis extracted from the numerous cultural "practical incidents" which experienced multinational trainers, according to her, should put into a comprehensive theory.

With regards to college education, it is possible to make conclusions about the relevance of other college majors for the tourism industry, but not about any professionally oriented college education as it was not experienced by the respondents. The major college degrees that were received by the participants of the research pertain to the following areas: law and commercial law, journalism, accounting, business administration and management, foreign languages and literature, international relations, economics. From the researcher's own experience in the travel and tourism industry, the above listed majors play a major role in today's travel and tourism curriculum. As

independent disciplines, these majors are primarily the types of concentrations that the industry would be looking for to recruit from. It is therefore understandable that all participants found education they had received at college applicable for their professional needs. Economics, for instance, helped one of the respondents "to look at business at the early stage in a more businesslike manner, and understand the management side in more responsible positions." Law and commercial degree for Burton, on the other hand, was a kind of general preparation for his career in airlines. Elizabeth and Helena found their education in languages and literature facilitating their understanding of foreign cultures and ways of communicating within them. The importance of marketing aspect of education was appreciated by Lilly who confessed that she did not have this knowledge prior to her assignment and therefore experienced initially some problems with getting to understanding current business operations of her company in the United States.

It is obvious that assessing their college majors from the perspectives of their professional experience managers were in the best position to suggest the way higher education can meet the needs of their trade. Summarizing their opinions of higher education it is possible to conclude that such areas as economics, management, business administration, and foreign languages have proved helpful in tourism business and should be included in the professional preparation of specialists for this industry.

Analysis of educational and training needs from the position of their satisfaction through on-job training did not prove to be fruitful in this research as none of the participating managers had received any consistent on-job training. It was found that, according to the management interviewed, training was a part of personnel development only in airlines. This training was usually done in a seminar fashion by company trainers, executive personnel or by outside consultants. Length of training varied from a day or two to a few months on the premises. When queried about the cross-cultural content of training, the sojourning management reported that there was little to none or very superficial cross-cultural component. It is also interesting to note that these training

sessions are designed only for the lower management and staff who are expected to have day-to-day contacts with traveling public.

Another interesting point is that five of the six airline managers did not receive any such training themselves, though they felt very strongly that training would have made them much more efficient on their overseas assignments if they had had this training prior to going to their new location. One of the five subjects, Antonio, thought that it would be advisable prior to a three-year assignment to send a manager for at least a month to see if he could adapt to the culture. Elizabeth, on the contrary, did not feel she needed training in the areas she was dealing with now because of her prior education in Japanese and South American cultures.

Nine other subjects were not offered or given training by their companies or governments which posted them abroad. These representatives were from travel and hospitality areas of the industry. They did not feel shortchanged by the lack of training as it has never been a part of personnel development in their companies. However, most all of them felt that they would have been facilitated in their professional functioning should this training had been provided. On the basis of this part of the respondents' experience it was impossible to draw any conclusions with respect to the effective on-job training in cross-cultural communication.

Another facilitator of learning was described as a hand-over method of passing cross-cultural knowledge from one employee to another. This learning process usually occurs between the predecessor on the assignment and a new employee appointed for take-over. According to the respondents, one airline and several tourist organizations used this method of semi-formal training. In the researcher's opinion, this method can be recognized as effective as effective has been the person who is handing the position over. If the reason for reallocation of the predecessor is his or her failure on the assignment no such training is possible. Besides, there are usually time constraints which do not allow the predecessor to spend sufficient time training a new employee. Also, in moving to new

markets and new localities the companies are starting business from a scratch and no previous experience is available. In case of our respondents, Kartar reported this kind of training to be extensively practiced by his company. However, since North America was a new venture for him, at the time of his assignment there was nobody to hand over the business to him. Thus, he had a very vague idea how to deal with the entirely new and different market here, and his adjustment to new environment was difficult and lengthy. However, he still feels that the hand-over method is effective if it has at least three months allotted to it.

On the job experience was perceived as a very important and for most respondents the only learning tool available. It was also conceived and agreed upon by all respondents that lessons learned were very effective in getting to understand the population of the country of assignment and its communicative environment. The sources of information and knowledge employed by the participants in their self-education were various, ranging from embassies, consulates and chambers of commerce of the country of assignment to local population with which the respondents managed to establish trust and friendship. Most cross-cultural experience was, however, acquired by "trial and error" method. Therefore, learning on the job takes its toll in time and professional efficiency. Moreover, not everyone can derive the necessary lesson as was proved both by the participants of the research and the literature on adjustment cited in Chapter II. It is this researcher's belief that the respondents were able to achieve top managerial positions in their companies thanks to a great extent to their cross-cultural sensitivity and the ability to learn from mistakes to communicate cross-culturally. Their stories about less fortunate colleagues showed that learning communicative skills is not an easy undertaking and not everyone can succeed in it without a proper guidance. It is obvious that if the lesson is not properly and promptly learned it can be very costly for the company.

Skills and Knowledge Facilitating Cross-Cultural Communication

Reporting their sojourning experiences and reflecting on the cross-cultural communication in different places of their assignment, managers provided rich data on the ways they utilized in making this communication effective.

Knowledge of the historical background of the country of sojourn helped some managers to arrive at understanding of the norms of social behavior of local employees and customers. Following these norms and complying with culturally determined rules of communication was found by sojourning managers to be more effective than imposing on employees their own managerial styles.

Thus, one of the subjects derived his understanding of the Brazilian people and ways of communication with them from his knowledge of the strong Jesuit background of culture of Brazil: "It's the background of Jesuit colonization for me that allows to go through informal procedures. . . . This is the main cause of people's feelings" (Martino). Thanks to this insight, the respondent was able to perceive the mechanism of communication in the culture as it was formed and influenced by an extensive list of social, cognitive, and emotive aspects (Dinges, 1983; Bennett, 1986a, 1986b; Howell, 1979).

Contextual variables of the culture which the sojourners encountered determined in their variety the very context of a new situation in which the managers found themselves and which they had to take into account to communicate successfully. Almost all different variables mentioned by Mendosa (1989), such as religion, respect for authority, conducting business face-to-face, feelings, legal system, etc., were described by the participants of the research as being important for their communication with another cultural reality.

General cultural awareness of these aspects of culture helped some participants to appreciate certain important cultural dimensions of a new society even without comprehensive knowledge of religious or historical reasons accounting for certain norms

of behavior. For instance, Ricardo realized specific manifestation of the power distance and respect for authority characteristic of Asian cultures even though he erroneously attributed certain norms of behavior of Thai people to their education. Besides adjusting his style to the power distance he also personalized in his behavior another important cultural dimension -- specific notion of time: "In South Asia you have to respect their own time. Don't you dare bring time from your culture into their culture" (Ricardo). Thus, in his experience, Ricardo actually encountered a very clear manifestation of at least two cultural dimensions mentioned by Hofstede (1980) -- power distance and uncertainty avoidance with respect to time.

Power distance dimension was also incorporated into a new managerial style developed by Burton with his South African employees. On the basis of his analysis of the cultural heritage of the system of apartheid he realized that to ensure support of his local personnel he needed to change their attitude to the administration of the company. Involving employees into decision-making process and creating a set of informal empowering experiences for them he succeeded in building up professional relationships based on trust.

This managing model did not work, however, for him in Germany, where independence and delegating of functions were not easily accepted by local personnel. This difference can be possibly attributed to the manifestation of Uncertainty Avoidance dimension of German culture. According to Hofstede (1991), avoidance strategies are used when people try to avoid difficult situations by strict rules of behavior, intolerance of deviants, and a belief in absolute truths. Those who want to avoid uncertainty prefer clear instructions and want to avoid conflict more than employees who do not avoid situations in which something is uncertain. Hierarchical framework and clarity in chain of command which are customary of German culture became the principles which Burton had to follow in a new cultural setting.

Another dimension -- Masculinity vs. Femininity -- which determines the way gender differences and sex roles affect people's self-concepts and norms of behavior was encountered and successfully accommodated by female participants of the research. They reported that communicating with the representatives of different cultures they adjusted their behavior to perceptions of the appropriate for women ways of conducting business that their partners from other cultures adhered to. Women had to emphasize their sublime dependence and appreciation of the other party to get to their needs. Though they themselves were not comfortable with these means and called them lie and manipulation they, nevertheless, had to resort to this devise to have their professional tasks successfully accomplished. This would have been impossible if they resorted to the communication from the position of equal power, as this stand is not accepted in the cultures where dimension of femininity and masculinity assign certain strict gender-biased norms of behavior.

Managers who worked in Asian countries encountered a number of peculiar social rules, which reflect elaborate and highly differentiated relationships characteristics of Confucian societies. "Defending face" is the principle which many researchers (Yum, 1988; Imahori & Cupach, 1994) perceived in a number of communicative mechanisms -- mediated communication, delegate communication and other forms of indirect communication designed for this purpose. No matter how strange and inexplicable to participants of the research as people from other cultures they seemed the respondents learned to deal with them successfully.

For instance, managers stationed in the South East Asia (e.g., Ricardo) found that power distance mechanism of the society does not allow for personal contact with any of the local authorities. So they had to learn the procedures of utilizing middlemen services in all their professional pursuits. On the other hand, in cultures of Middle East which other respondents encountered there is a tendency to mix personal relationships with public relationships. According to this principle of social reciprocity, an effective

business relationship is established on a solid personal and human basis. The difficulty of dealing with this principle is increased as it works counterfeit to the western sociolinguistic perception of time as money. Americans would tend to get to the point as quickly as possible. At the same time representatives of African and Middle Eastern cultures where time is not equated with money will take their own pace in establishing communication and dealing with professional matters (Ching-Yick Tse & Frayed, 1994). Business people need to work at creating long-term relationships and prove their sincerity by taking the time to cement their relationships. This conclusion was supported by Steve. He had an experience of dealing with partners in the Middle East and watched how this principle worked in life. He recalled how prospective partners were observing him "on a social level for a period of several days to determine whether or not they would do business with you." According to Steve, some American managers grew tired of doing no business and being involved instead in a number of informal social functions, and quit negotiations. His acute cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity prompted him to stay through the process of observation and he accomplished his business mission successfully.

Thus, various cross-cultural experiences of the participants of the research proved once again that Hofstede's cultural dimensions determine different attitudes in different countries towards discipline, obedience, initiative of subordinates, politeness, ways of expressing emotions and other issues. The ability to perceive the manifestations of these dimensions in various aspects of a new culture and to learn to communicate effectively across these dimensions served as a key to professional success of tourism and travel managers in other cultural contexts. Analysis of the skills and insights that allowed the participants of the research to successfully navigate in the complex social environment of new cultures allows to conclude that a proper training for the industry should pursue two of the following outcomes. First of all, it must ensure the development of cross-cultural awareness in the trainees which would allow them to reflect on and appreciate cultural

differences rather than reject and criticize them. And, secondly, it must expose trainees to the basic fundamental cultural dimensions and a variety of their different manifestations. This cannot cover, of course, the limitless repertoire of specific cross-cultural encounters but it is able to provide the sojourners with a cognitive and perceptual framework of their interpretation and internalization.

Participants' Suggestions for Training

The starting point of this part of analysis is the unanimous agreement on the side of all participants that cross-cultural training should be an integral part of the professional preparation of tourism and travel managerial personnel. Though they all rightfully considered themselves to be accomplished veterans of their perceived fields they expressed an opinion that had they been trained in various aspects of cross-cultural communication it would have made their work less time consuming and more efficient.

Twelve of the subjects felt they would like to have training in various cross-cultural communication aspects for their next assignment if it was in the area where they had not worked before. Those three subjects who did not feel an imperative need for training shared one common feature that can explain this attitude towards training. They all, Elizabeth, Frances, and Sergio, came from families with a strong background in tourism industry. It is possible that through vicarious learning in the family they had developed cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity, sufficient for their easier adjustment to new cultural environments. This assumption can be supported by two observations. On the one hand, they strongly emphasized the importance of family learning in their professional lives and attributed their successful adaptation to the demands of a new culture to their early, family, experiences. On the other hand, they supported the necessity of cross-cultural training for new recruits. Thus, irrespective of their own needs their general attitude towards training was positive.

With regards to the form and content of training, that the participants suggested, no relevant distinction between professional orientation, national background and cultural

experience of the participants was determined. Therefore, the suggestions the participants made can be summarized into common conceptual framework within which they perceived efficient comprehensive professionally oriented training for the industry. Six areas of training were identified.

Culture. Twelve of the fifteen subjects felt cultural training was important to their quick adjustment to a new environment and establishing successful communication with the representatives of this culture. Not only did they feel it was important for themselves to adjust to the working environment, but for their families which accompanied them as well. Because they are managers it is important how the family reacts to the new cultural environment and how well it fits into it. According to Ricardo, family contributes to the positive image the company has to establish on the new site.

Adjustment to a new cultural environment has been identified in the literature as a factor of great significance in business and personal interrelationships (Kim, 1984, 1988; Ruben, 1989; etc.). The research has tried to understand the role which poor cross-cultural communication has played in the early return of some employees in a variety of industries from their appointments overseas: their burnout, their inability to negotiate well, loss of their money and time, adjustment difficulties and lack of cultural participation. According to Hoopes and Pusch (1979), any communication which may take place among individuals of different cultural backgrounds or between social, political or economic entities in different cultures, such as government agencies, business, educational institutions or the media is considered to be cross-cultural communication. This communication requires certain amount of skills and knowledge about cultural norms of the country. Philosophical, social and moral values involved in this communication move into the spotlight, and require significant degree of cross-cultural sensitivity (Dunbar, 1992).

Culture Sensitivity. Thirteen of the fifteen subjects felt strongly about culture sensitivity as a necessary skill in communication. Martino felt being culturally sensitive

about the work environment would allow him to obtain the most efficient results from the employees. Armand addressed other sensitive issues about cultural sensitivity and used his present assignment in New York as an example of how multiethnic, racial, women's, handicap, and other issues can be detrimental to one's career if ignored. Ricardo also felt that cultural sensitivity training is important as, according to him, it is within the culture that people are doing business every day.

The individualism-collectivism dichotomy's impact on business communication is shown by many authors to be one of the major causes of premature termination of the assignment. The dominant paradigm used in American communication is an individualistic one. Each communicator is perceived to be a separate individual engaging in diverse communicative activities to maximize his/her own self-interest. In the United States there is a sharp dichotomy between private and public life (Yum, 1988). In other cultures this dichotomy is not so rigorously expressed. Therefore, it is equally difficult for American managers overseas as it is for foreign managers assigned to the USA to continue following their customary ways of doing business without a proper adjustment to the local norms. It is impossible to provide a guide for appropriate behavior in each given situation. Moreover, the rules of such a guide may serve well in one situation but be totally inappropriate for the other one, even within the framework of the same culture. For instance, there is no prohibition in asking a female employee for dinner, a custom approved in Europe and socially acceptable in the American culture as well. However, this behavior almost cost one of Armand's French colleagues his position as it was interpreted by the woman as harassment. It is cultural sensitivity rather than knowledge of cultural norms that prompts appropriate behavior in a foreign cultural setting.

Language. Ten of the fifteen subjects felt language was very crucial in cross-cultural communications. These respondents considered that it is necessary to concentrate on language learning prior to the assignment and suggested to allocate from three to twelve months for this.

The argument of these participants was that language is the major way of coming to terms with the culture and people. It is also the means of understanding the media and via it the way of knowing people's expectations and needs. Martino, for instance, recounted his frustration working with the English-speaking staff in his New York office, while his own English was limited to a few words. It took him a considerable length of time before he could address his market freely.

The need for language proficiency is supported by Kim (1988), who believes that since a great deal of communication consists in responses to stimuli from the environment, communication activities function as instrumental, interpretative, and expressive means of coming to terms with our physical and social environment. He emphasizes that the communication process underlies any adaptation process. In his opinion, "adaptation occurs through the identification and the internalization of the significant symbols of the host society" (Kim, 1988, p.383). As "one learns to communicate by communicating" (Kim, 1988, p.384), then with practice, the sojourners may get better in recognizing verbal and nonverbal cues initially denied to them.

Other respondents also encountered difficulties in dealing with linguistic deviations in professional communication. Yum (1988) noted that contrary to the American "tough talk" (strait, precise and explicit manner of direct communication), Asian people prefer subdued tones of voice and indirect communication. The experiences of Lilly in the United States and Ricardo in Thailand serve as a good confirmation of this linguistic discrepancy.

Marketing. Marketing was the other leader in the choice of cross-cultural aspects for training, supported by thirteen out of 15 participants of the research.

Personal experiences recounted by the participants showed a variety of different ways of doing business in different markets. These ways ranged from the third party for the Asian markets to just a handshake to conclude a business transaction in good faith in the markets of South America. Even various geographical locations of business sites

within the United States exposed the respondents to different cultural values relevant for efficient marketing. It took some time for some respondents to learn that in northern states a deal is completed when a contract is drawn up by an attorney while a letter of intent has no value or commitment there. At the same time in the southern and Midwestern as well as north western states a verbal agreement will suffice without any legal ramifications on either side.

History. History for bridging cross-cultural communication was mentioned only by a few respondents as a component of training. However, these five participants had a strong positive attitude towards inclusion of this area. Helena, for instance, perceived the culture evolving from the history of that particular geographical area, and therefore thought that history should become the foundation of the training process.

Management. Nine of the fifteen subjects discussed a need for cross-cultural management training. The way of how employees will respond to the management depends, in their opinion, on how the management understands the culture of the employees. Burton realized the importance of this factor while working in Germany, Switzerland, and the United States. Lilly, as a representative of South Asia, stressed the directness and straightforward way she had to use while passing her orders in the United States which was totally different from South East Asia where a gentle hint or suggestion would get the job accomplished. Martino recalled how his management style had become informal and less formal when he was assigned to Brazil to accomplish the running of his airlines office.

It is interesting to note that six subjects who did not perceive cross-cultural complexity in their professional communication were the directors of the governmental tourist boards. The staff of these offices is usually made up of their own nationals or expatriates. Therefore, the managers of these offices do hot have much experience in managing employees of other nationalities.

Recommendations for Training

The results of the research and the data provided by fifteen top tourism and travel managers show a consistent need for professionally oriented cross-cultural training. The need for training perceived by the respondents did not depend on the country of assignment or on the country of managers' origin. Cultural distance was not revealed by this research as a category significantly related to the degree of the need for or the content of training. The participants of the research indicated that even in the communication of cultures that are not seemingly distant, such as American and Western European societies, considerable discrepancies are still observed and they demand certain awareness for the sake of successful communication. This finding strongly supports the conclusion made by Kopper's (1993) that supposedly similar cultures show differences which are often underestimated and can cause a cultural clash.

Specific characteristics of any given culture are very important because the cultural priorities of people have a great deal of influence on their behavior and interactions with others in both formal and informal settings. These cultural priorities also influence management, attitudes towards management, and communication of people within organizations and with organizations (Mead, 1990). Understanding these characteristics and their implications for professional functioning should become the major objective of cross-cultural training in the tourism and travel industry.

The very nature of the travel and tourism industry is oriented towards people crossing national borders and experiencing a "new" culture. The participants of the research revealed a very high degree of exposure to cross-cultural contacts and that exposure, according to the available predictions, will be growing.

The research has also supported the finding by Miller (1972) that most travel and tourism companies assign little or no importance to individuals' abilities to adapt to foreign environments and cultures when selecting employees for international

assignment. Participants have confirmed that irrespective of their technical skills training would have helped them to be better prepared for interaction with the other culture and its representatives. Intercultural training is perceived as one of the most efficient ways to help internationally bound individuals to improve their ability to understand their personal reactions to people in a foreign culture and to assist them in adapting to customs different from their own, which in turn, enables them to function more effectively on the job (Tung, 1979). As increased globalization drives the diversity of the workforce, organizations must also increase their effort to help workers understand cultural differences. They must learn how to incorporate diverse values, ethics, and work styles into their practices, products, and services (Odenwald & Matheny, 1996).

Analysis of the perceived needs in cross-cultural training that the participants of the research expressed showed that cultural awareness approach to training appears to be best suited for the needs of the industry. In contrast to the self-awareness model, which perpetuates and elaborates on American norms, the cultural awareness model makes an emphasis on cultural insight, with individual awareness being an expected by-product. The respondents confirmed the value of increasing the participant's awareness of the role culture plays in influencing their thoughts, attitudes and behaviors (Bennett, 1986b).

Of all models favoring cultural awareness approach the one proposed by Hoopes (1981) seems to answer the needs of the participants in the most adequate way. This model is based on the assumption that intercultural learning is not based so much on one's knowledge of culture, but rather on the degree to which the process of cross-cultural learning, communication and human relations has been mastered. With this focus, Hoopes lists the following categories of the "spectrum" of intercultural learning: ethnocentrism; awareness: understanding; acceptance/respect; appreciation/valuing; selective adoption: assimilation/adaptation; biculturalism/multiculturalism. This sequence listed by Hoopes seems to be most consistent with the way the participants of the research developed their cultural awareness.

Cultural awareness model seems to be the most appropriate as a basis for the training design as it can be both detail specific and conceptually general. That is why it has been largely integrated into other existing training models. Its design is built on the principle of the increased complexity and diversity within the dimensions of cross-cultural behavior. This design is close to the natural evolution of cross-cultural awareness that the participants of the research reported. This gradual increase in cultural awareness can be also achieved through training in the way suggested by Paige and Martin (1983). The training model advocated by these researchers incorporates both theoretical acquisition of cultural knowledge and practical behavioral approach to the development of cultural awareness.

The emphasis that the participants of the research made on the development of cultural sensitivity grants special support of this research to the training model proposed by Bennett (1986a). Cultural sensitivity as a way to better communication was placed by Bennett in the center of any training designed for international employees. In a more or less explicit way the participants of the research also emphasized the role of cultural sensitivity in the successful cross-cultural communication.

Attention to the development of cultural sensitivity was perceived by some of the participants as a way to overcome ethnocentrism, a tendency often displayed, in their opinion, by American tourism and travel employees, as well as by their customers, American tourists. Some participants of the research, as was shown above, mentioned that often American tourists are not cognitively prepared for acceptance and appreciation of new cultures. Therefore, the need for cross-cultural education in the industry is perceived as urgent. Not only more information about various destinations should be available to the agents and through them to the customers, but transformation of cultural ethnocentrism into ethnorelativism will be beneficial for both groups. Training concentrating on the development of ethnorelativism and sensitivity is perceived as capable of overcoming negative evaluation of dissimilar cultures which was shown by

many researchers (Samovar, Porter, & Jaim, 1981; Blubaugh & Pennington, 1976; and others) is incompatible with the nature of tourism and travel. Following Hall's and Gudykunst's (1989) approach to the interconnection of the degree of organization's ethnocentrism and professional training it offers to its employees prior to overseas assignments, it is evident that the degree of ethnocentrism in many of tourist companies is very high. The findings of this research indicated that there was either no training offered by the organizations which the participants represented or this training was limited mostly to environmental debriefing. This approach to training, according to Hall and Gudykunst, indicates a high degree of ethnocentrism in the industry which like no other international business should conceptualize itself on the positions of ethnorelativism. The change of this attitude in its turn will introduce a new approach to training, which would be primarily oriented towards engendering cultural sensitivity and awareness in its employees.

One more argument is necessary in support of the cultural sensitivity and awareness models which this research can offer. The variety of aspects, which the participants of the research proposed to include into professionally oriented training, had one common feature accentuated by all participants – Cultural orientation. Whether it was management, marketing or history that the participants thought was most necessary for the successful functioning of tourism managers abroad this training should incorporate cross-cultural bias. For instance, talking about the need for management training the participants indicated that their own experience called for understanding of the culturally specific norms of dealing with their local employees rather than general conceptual knowledge of management. The same need was expressed for marketing and other aspects of suggested training.

However, in this researcher's opinion, not many companies and organizations can be expected to go into diverse multi-aspect training while operating under very tight and close budgets. Therefore, if the choice between different models and syllabi for training

is to be made the training model which is primarily directed towards cross-cultural sensitivity and awareness development presents the most effective and professionally appropriate option. According to the findings of this research, most significant difficulties as well as the most helpful insights were experienced by the participants in the area of cross-cultural differences while communicating with their local employees and clients. None of the participants admitted that he or she was lacking general management or marketing skills. Rather, telling about their confrontations with unknown culture and its representatives they spoke about culturally related issues, which determined professional communication in a new cultural environment. As was shown above, the participants of the research encountered specific manifestations of different cultures along the four cultural dimensions outlined by Hofstede (1980). In this researcher's opinion, professional training for tourism and travel managers should be primarily designed along these lines. The orientation of this training should be made towards introducing trainees into these dimensions and helping them to explore possible manifestations and implications of these dimensions in their communication abroad.

Such preparation for overseas allocation may appear to be more suitable for educational pursuits rather than training sessions. Training, as was indicated by Harrison and Hopkins (1967) should meet specific skills and specified objectives in the most cost-efficient manner. This perception of training is probably responsible for the predominant types of training within the travel and tourism industry when sojourners are being prepared for a definite country or location of their new assignment. However, the typical experience of travel and tourism employees, as was demonstrated by the participants of this research, is the exposure to several different and diverse cultural settings during their professional life. Therefore, preparation for each particular assignment or each specific location each time anew does not look cost-efficient. With respect to this, training which would be more generalized and lengthy but which would result in a broader vision of cultural diversity, more profound cultural awareness, and more developed cultural

sensitivity is sure to be more effective and efficient in the long run. With this kind of knowledge trainees would be prepared for diverse cross-cultural settings which would allow to cut on the duration or completely eliminate specific pre-departure training sessions.

One more consideration seems to be appropriate. Observing the development of cross-cultural sensitivity in the respondents through their stories about exploration of new cultures it is easy to perceive significant personal and moral empowerment that the participants of the research reported. This conclusion provides confirmation to the statement made by Rhinesmith (1996). According to this researcher, development of cross-cultural sensitivity and cultural self-awareness has a great human resources development potential which would allow a specialist to operate effectively in any country of the world. This objective is possible if the training unites mastering the whole spectrum of intercultural learning with developing cultural awareness. Only such training will help the international tourism management to transgress from "ant's sight" view of the culture, as one participant stated, to "a bird's sight." Only with this perspective the effective functioning of tourism professional in the global community is possible.

Recommendations for Further Research

The recommendations for the further study are based both on the results of this research and the review of the related literature. As the first attempt to explore the importance of cross-cultural communication in tourism and travel, this study has outlined a number of possibilities for further exploration.

As this study has made a snapshot of training needs of tourism managers at a particular moment of their professional development, the need for a longitudinal study is evident. One of the approaches of longitudinal study might be the observation over the

time period of the development of cross-cultural skills and cross-cultural awareness in managers starting with their first assignment abroad.

Within the longitudinal perspective it will be possible to perceive how cross-cultural sensitivity is conceived and developed and which factors influence this development. This approach will also allow investigation in greater detail of the mechanism of cross-cultural communicative competence and its relationship to the change in managerial style.

Another important direction that further study may pursue is connected with the experimental exploration of the role of training in successful cross-cultural communication. With the focus on this problem it is necessary to conduct a comparative study directed towards the parallel investigation of two groups of managers -- those who have received cross-cultural training and those who have not. This approach can also be used with regards to different models of training. Communication skills demonstrated by the members of different groups can be assessed via various simulated cross-cultural communicative situations.

It would be also useful to explore the opinion of employees about communicative skills and cross-cultural managerial style of their international management. A survey incorporating a large sample size may be a helpful solution in this sensitive matter.

An interesting and fruitful line of research can be a study contrasting two types of tourism managers, successful and not-so-successful, those who were noticeably successful in adjusting to new cultural setting and effective functioning in them and those who had to terminate their assignments abroad due to the difficulties in adjustment, burn-out or failure in communication. Investigation of these groups in a similar setting will provide a helpful insight into the role of cross-cultural knowledge and awareness in professional functioning abroad.

As the study of cross-cultural communication in tourism has just started, it is almost impossible to enumerate at this stage all the valuable directions further

investigation of the area may acquire. The only thing this researcher is confident in is that such research is necessary. Tourism which as no other industry contributes to integration of different countries and peoples into the world community should be in the hands of culturally and communicationally sensitive, educated, and competent professionals.

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APPENDIX A

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CONTACT LETTER

Dear Ms. _____,

As a doctoral student of Teachers College, Columbia University. I am performing dissertation research on the topic: "Role of Training in the Cross-Cultural Communication of the Tourism and Travel Mangers." My purpose is to analyze the patterns of cross-cultural communication experienced by the tourism and travel managers on their assignments abroad and to analyses the role which training played in this experience. I will also explore issues of how cross-cultural competence is achieved and what training may serve this aim.

This research will be conducted by means of in-depth interviews which last about and hour and a half. Your name, as well as the names of other participants of the interview. was selected by random design from the list of managers registered with your organization.

I am very much interested in your opinion and experience in these areas. I would appreciate very much if you agree to be interviewed. Your participation in this research is entirely voluntarily, and you are free to refuse to answer any question and to withdraw from the interview at any time. I want to assure you of the absolute confidentiality and anonymity of the interview. The results of the interview will be reported in the research document only in aggregate form or with all identifiable attributes masked. Under no circumstances will your name or identifiable characteristics be included in the report or other publications emanating from the study.

Please, let me know of your decision as soon as possible. If you agree to be interviewed. please let me know when and how to contact you to discuss the time and place of the interview.

Thank you for your cooperation.
Sincerely,

Charles Gladstone

APPENDIX B

Charles Gladstone
International Education Department
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, New York 10027

Respondent's Consent Statement

Description of Research Study on Sojourning Managers in the Travel and Tourism Industry

The purpose of this study is to look at cross-cultural communication between managers and their staff in foreign assignments.

Respondent's Understanding

I agree to participate in this study and be interviewed about my experiences and perceptions as a manager living and working abroad. I understand this research will be a part of the dissertation written by Charles Gladstone at Teachers College, Columbia University, one of the requirements in attaining the Doctor of Education Degree.

I understand that the information that I provide will be limited to this use or other research-related use that is authorized by Teachers College, Columbia University.

Respondent's Rights

I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous and I will not be identified by name. I also understand that I am volunteering to participate in this research and that I may stop participating at any time. If I have any problems, concerns or complaints about this research, I have the right to voice them at the Institutional Review Committee at Teachers College.

In case I have any questions regarding this research project, I can contact Charles Gladstone directly, or either of his faculty advisors Dr. Gita Steiner-Khamsi at (212) 678-3184 or Dr. Victoria Marsick at (212) 678-3762, both at Teachers College, Columbia University.

I understand that when I agree to participate in this study, I agree to do so with the stipulation that I will receive feedback about this study. The researcher will share the conclusions and recommendations about the efficient training that will be derived from this study.

Date _____

Respondent's Signature _____

Researcher's Signature _____ _____

(Please sign two copies, one for the respondent and one for the researcher.)

Appendix C

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Today's Date:
Place:
Time the interview started:
Time the interview finished:

Could you begin by introducing yourself to my tape-recorder, telling me your name, position, and organization you belong to?

Could you tell me how old you are and how long have been with the tourism and travel industry?

What is your education and how is it related to your career moves?
Can you list all your major assignments abroad and the time you spent in each location?

What is your attitude towards assignments abroad? Have you planned this kind of a career with the extended allocations oversees, or if it was not your plan, what events have led you to this career path?

Of your international overseas allocations, which cultures did you find more similar to yours and which more distant? What is your impression of the way professional communication worked in both of these settings, most similar and most different?

Did you find one location to be easier to adopt to than the other? Can you list your job allocations from easiest to most difficult? Can you explain the difference between them?

I am particularly interested in your communication with the local employees on your overseas assignments. Did you have to adopt your management style to the new locale? How and why?

What difficulties in professional communication have you encountered on your overseas assignments? Did you anticipate any of these difficulties? What countries were the most challenging in terms of the professional communication?

How did you respond to those difficulties and what have you learned from this experience?

Can you recall any episode, contact, or encounter, either positive or negative, where your knowledge of how to communicate with your local employees or the lack of this knowledge played the most crucial role?

Which of your skills, knowledge or characteristics facilitated successful professional communication with local employees? Which, on the contrary, interfered with this communication making you adapt and change your styles?

I am interested in the training you have in cross-cultural communication. Did you have any of this training at school or at college?

When you were assigned overseas, did your company provide you with any cross-cultural training course?

If yes, what kind of training was it? Was it career or environment related? Could you relate any detail about its content and length?

Did you find this training adequate and useful for your performance overseas? Why so?

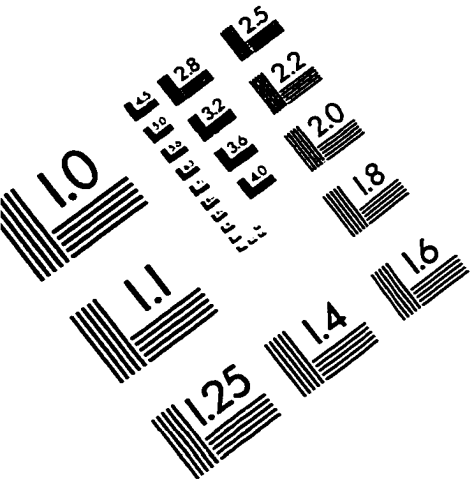
Did you experience any situations which were not covered in the training program? Can you recall what they were?

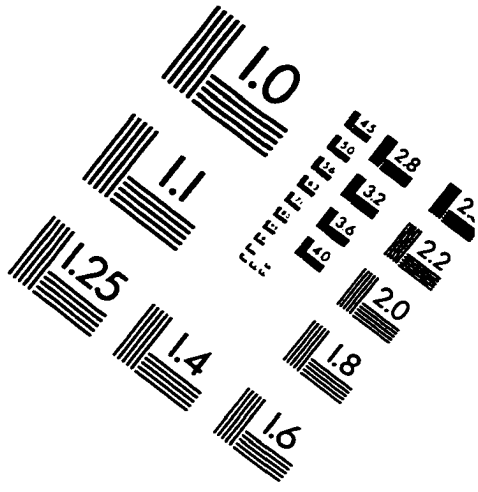
What kind of training and information do you feel would assist you and others who make similar career moves globally?

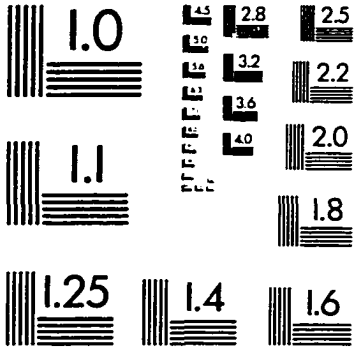
What advice to trainers who design these programs would you like to make?

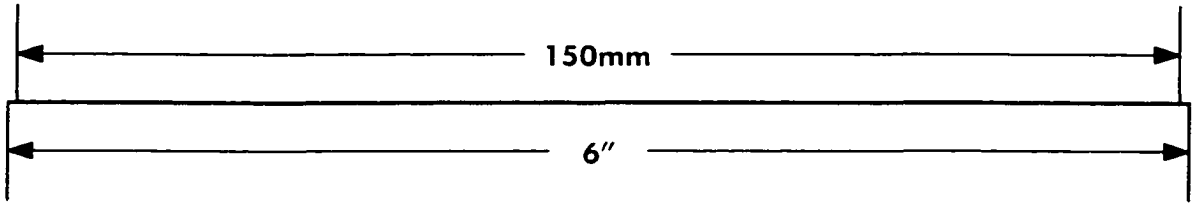
Thank you very much for sharing all this most interesting information and useful thoughts with me.

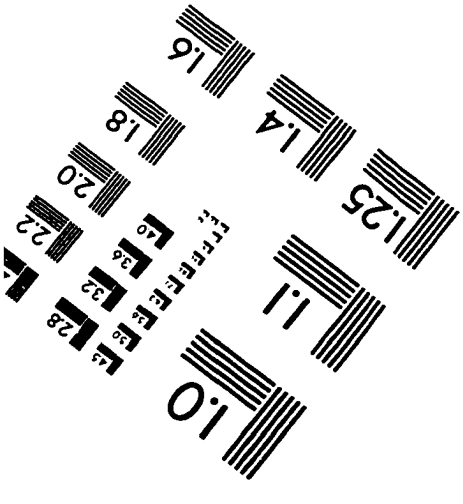
IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

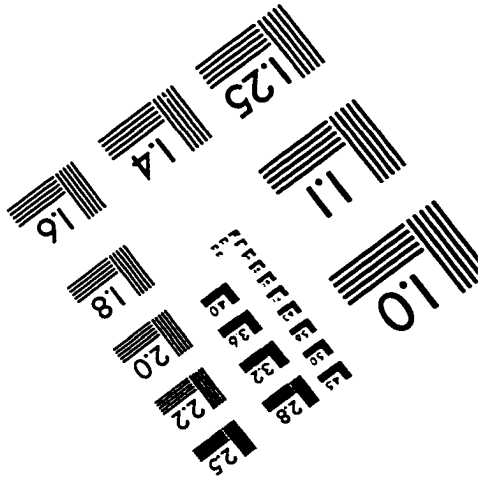












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