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CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING AS A MEANS FOR IMPROVING SITUATIONAL FAVORABLENESS

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Communication, Cooperation, and Negotiation in Cultural Management Group Project Supported by the Advanced Research Projects Agency, AFPA Order No. 434 Under Office of Naval Research Contract N00017-67-2, Nons 1834(S)

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Principal Investigators

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Improving Situational Favorableness

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Technical Report No. 61 (68-6)

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Communication, Cooperation, and Negotiation
in Culturally Heterogeneous Groups

Project Supported by the

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Abstract

A field experiment was conducted in Iran to test the effects of cross-cultural training materials on leader behavior and effectiveness. 48 Americans living in Teheran were administered either the Culture Assimilator, a programmed self-instructional training program for Iranian culture, or a control training program on the physical geography of the Middle East. Cultural training was found to be quite effective in changing leader behavior contingent upon the S's original leadership style and the demand characteristics of the situation. The variables of situational favorableness and cultural role expectations were found to be significant determinants of leader effectiveness in culturally heterogeneous groups.

Cross-Cultural Training as a Means for
Improving Situational Favorableness¹

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The burgeoning of foreign travel, foreign aid programs and trans-national business and governmental organizations has multiplied contacts between individuals with diverse cultural backgrounds. These cross-cultural situations have frequently led to personal maladjustment as well as difficulties on the part of participants in working together harmoniously and effectively (Gardner, 1962; Hudson et al., 1959; Kelman, 1963; Lundstedt, 1963; Smith et al., 1963). These problems have stimulated research designed to improve the adjustment and effectiveness of hetero-cultural groups by means of cultural training (Chemers et al., 1966; Mitchell, 1967; Spector, 1966).

The present study is part of a larger project which seeks (a) to identify differences in concepts and behaviors which are critical for effective interactions with members from another culture, (b) to design an appropriate training program which alleviates these difficulties, and (c) to test the effects of the training in appropriate work contexts. One earlier study, conducted by Chemers et al. (1966), developed a training program for Arab Culture. The results of this experiment showed that groups whose American leaders had received cultural training had somewhat higher productivity and more positive interpersonal relations than did groups whose leaders had received training on physical geography.

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The subjects in this study were also measured on Fiedler's "esteem for the least preferred coworker" (LPC) score (Fiedler, 1967). Relationship-oriented (high LPC) leaders, regardless of training, led more productive and satisfied groups than did task-oriented (low LPC) leaders. However, task-oriented leaders who had received cultural training had a level of performance equal to, or higher than, that of relationship-oriented leaders. Leadership style, then, was found to be a moderator of the effects of cultural training.

A related study by Mitchell (1967) used a training program for Thai culture with students at the University of Illinois. Culture training was most beneficial to interpersonal relations although it had no apparent effects on group productivity in that study.

These early studies utilized a new method which involved the construction of self-administered programmed cultural training, the "Culture Assimilator." This training method suggested by Stolurow (1965)² is based on an empirical approach to the problems of cross-cultural interaction. The trainee is presented with episodes about problems related to common sources of cultural misunderstanding and conflict. He must assess the causes of misunderstanding in each episode and he is then given immediate positive or negative feedback on the basis of his analysis. Thus, the trainee symbolically becomes a participant in cross-cultural situations rather than remaining a passive reader. The preliminary findings have shown that this type of training can be an effective means of improving the productivity and adjustment of heterocultural groups.

We are concerned with effective work contacts rather than the problem of the tourist. Our problem is to design cultural training so that it will change the individual's work relations.

²Stolurow, L. M. Personal communication, 1965.

Fiedler (1967) has shown that the relationship between leadership style and group performance is moderated by the "situational favorableness" dimension. Situational favorableness is defined as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence and control over the group processes (pp. 181-186)." Task-oriented leaders of interacting groups performed more effectively in very favorable and very unfavorable situations; relationship-oriented leaders were more effective in situations of intermediate favorableness (Fiedler, 1967; Hunt, 1967). Culture Assimilator training is designed to give the individual new information and new behavior skills for the culture under study. This increased preparedness for the heterocultural situation should make it easier for the individual in the leadership position to influence and control his cross-cultural coworker than if he had been given no training at all. One relevant way of viewing Culture Assimilator training is, therefore, in terms of its effects on the situational favorableness dimension.

Fiedler (1967, pp. 189-191) has shown that changes in leader behavior take place as situational favorableness for a leader improves. Specifically, as the situation becomes more favorable for a leader, the low LPC, task-oriented leaders show an increasing frequency of consideration behavior while the high LPC, relationship-oriented leaders show a decreasing frequency of consideration acts. Thus, if cultural training does indeed improve situational favorableness, task-oriented leaders should become more considerate while relationship-oriented leaders should become less considerate in their behavior.

Another important factor for understanding the cross-cultural interaction is related to role theory. Expectations about appropriate role behavior are anticipatory. Individuals in every society expect the

occupants of a particular role to behave in a predictable and specifiable manner (Secord & Backman, 1964). When role occupants do not fulfill these expectations their role partners may feel dissatisfied and uneasy. Moreover, role expectations are normative in nature (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Rewards and sanctions for the role occupant depend, therefore, upon adequate fulfillment of role expectations. Increasing or decreasing consideration by a leader for his members should affect his interpersonal relations in accordance with the particular culture's normative expectations for the role of leader.

Foa and Chemers (1967) and Chemers and Chemers (1967) have reported that Middle Eastern cultures, generally, and Iranian culture, specifically, have very highly delineated and authoritarian status structures. Equally important for Iranian culture is the emphasis on friendship, politeness, and good interpersonal relations. Individuals in high status positions, such as a group leader, are expected to be firm and directive as well as warm and compassionate (Chemers & Chemers, 1967). In other words, an ideal leader for Iranian culture, in which the present study was conducted, is one whose behavior contains a high frequency of both structuring and consideration acts.

The present research project involved the development of a training program on Iranian culture for Americans working with native Iranians. The hypotheses of the present study are based on the effects of cultural training on leader behavior and the Iranian culture's expectations for the role of leaders.

Hypotheses

Under conditions of relatively greater situational favorableness (cultural training) task-oriented leaders should manifest a higher

frequency of consideration acts than relationship-oriented leaders. This consideration behavior should augment the low LPC leader's normally directive and structuring style. Therefore, task-oriented, low LPC, leaders who receive cultural training should behave in the manner most acceptable to their Iranian coworkers. These effects should be reflected in high ratings on measures of group atmosphere, satisfaction, and interpersonal relations by Iranian members of low LPC, culture trained leader. The low LPC, culture trained leaders should likewise have groups with the highest level of task productivity.

Method

Subjects

American. This experiment was conducted in Iran. Forty-eight Americans living in Teheran volunteered to serve as participants in this experiment. These individuals were recruited through a letter from the Iran-America cultural society explaining the nature of the Culture Assimilator training method and the cross-cultural research program. The total group of subjects consisted of 14 American members of the Iran-American cultural society, 12 American college students on a tour of Iran, 10 executives of an American oil company in Iran, and 12 teachers at an American run high school in Teheran; 28 were male and 20 were female.

Iranian participants. Ninety-six Iranians volunteered to participate. Fifty-two were students in Iran-America Society English classes; 20 were employees of the American oil company; and 24 were students at the American-run high school. All Iranian Ss were males.

The four groups of American and Iranian Ss were run separately. Demographic differences between the four sets of American Ss have been

eliminated by the standardization of all scores around the four separate group means. Examination of the four sets separately indicated that there were no appreciable differences between the groups of Ss.

Design and Procedures

Preliminary testing of leadership style. The American Ss, who served as group leaders, completed Fiedler's "esteem for least preferred coworker" (LPC) scale. These LPC scores were obtained by asking the men to think of all the coworkers they had ever had and to describe the one individual with whom they could work least well. Thus, the least preferred coworker would not need to be someone with whom the rater worked at the time of being tested. In fact, these scales were here administered before the teams were formed. The LPC scale consisted of eight-point graphic scale items modeled after the Semantic Differential (Osgood, 1957), and contained 17 items such as the following:

Cooperative	:	8	:	7	:	6	:	5	:	4	:	3	:	2	:	1	:	Uncooperative
Self-assured	:	8	:	7	:	6	:	5	:	4	:	3	:	2	:	1	:	Not Self-assured ³

The LPC score is the sum of the 17 item scores, with the most favorable scale position counted 8 and the least favorable scale position counted 1. The LPC score is best interpreted as a dynamic trait which results in different specific behaviors as the situation changes. The individual who perceives his least preferred coworker in a relatively favorable manner (high LPC) gains satisfaction and self-esteem from successful interpersonal relations. The person who perceives his least preferred coworker in a very unfavorable manner (low LPC) gains satisfaction

³Other items were pleasant-unpleasant, friendly-unfriendly, rejecting-accepting, helpful-frustrating, unenthusiastic-enthusiastic, lots of fun-serious, tense-relaxed, distant-close, cold-warm, supportive-hostile, boring-interesting, quarrelsome-harmonious, efficient-inefficient, gloomy-cheerful, open-guarded.

and self-esteem from successful task performance. High and low LPC leaders thus seek to satisfy different needs in the group situation. The LPC scores were used to dichotomize the group into high and low LPC leaders for this study.

Training. Each group of Americans was randomly dichotomized into a control group which received geographic information by means of a self-instructional training program, and an experimental group which received "culture assimilator" training. The "Culture Assimilator" as conceptualized by Stolurow (1965) is a self-instructional program with the primary objectives of teaching (a) verbal discriminations among culturally relevant cues and (b) semantic generalization within culturally relevant concepts. The preparation of a Culture Assimilator is a long and extensive process. The first concern is finding reliable and valid sets of culturally relevant materials requiring cue discrimination and concept generalization for the target culture. Several methods were used to get materials. One was the critical incident method (Flanagan, 1949). Individuals who had spent considerable time in the target culture were asked to report encounters which had caused them to alter their perception of the culture. The incidents were supplemented by relevant data obtained from a review of sociological and anthropological literature. Additional data were obtained from discrepancies in the ratings of American and Iranian Ss on a questionnaire measuring language meaning, value orientation, beliefs, and attitudes. In general, these questionnaires developed by Triandis et al. (1968) attempted to measure differences in the subjective cultures of America and Iran. Large differences in the ratings on any particular problem area were taken to indicate potential areas of conflict or misperception between members of the two cultures. Several content areas of social relations

were then chosen for this experiment. These formed the basis of a five-hour training program. The training material consisted of a self-instructional program based upon principles of idiographic programming (Stolurow, 1965). These areas were represented in 75 problem episodes which required the trainee to assess the causes of misperception or conflict. He was immediately informed of the significance of his choice in terms of basic cultural concepts. An example of one episode from the Iranian Culture Assimilator is shown below.

An American Peace Corpsman was working as an agricultural advisor in a small Iranian village. He often felt confused by the behavior of the villagers. At times a villager would ask for some advice on a certain technique. After thoughtful consideration, the Corpsman would give his opinion only to find later that it was ignored. In one particular instance, a peasant named Fereydoun, who owned a small piece of land, asked for some advice on plowing methods. The Corpsman was not sure of his answer and wanted to consult a few manuals, so he told Fereydoun to come to his office the next morning, and he would tell him what to do. However, the next morning Fereydoun did not come, and when the Corpsman sought him out, he found that Fereydoun had already started the plowing his own way.

Page 99

What do you think is the best explanation for Fereydoun's actions?

- A. When the Peace Corpsman said he was not sure of the plowing method, Fereydoun dismissed him as any valuable source of information.

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- B. Fereydoun was offended by being asked to come to the Corpsman's office and felt that the Corpsman should come to his farm.

Go to page 101

- C. The average Iranian is very impatient, even with short delays, and Fereydoun wanted to begin his plowing.

Go to page 102

- D. Iranian peasants believe that traditional ways are the only ways and will not listen to any advice.

Go to page 103

Page 100

You chose A: When the Peace Corpsman said he was not sure of the plowing method, Fereydoun dismissed him as any valuable source of information.

Correct. Very good! This was a subtle problem, but a very important one for anyone who lives or works in Iran. Since the Peace Corpsman was sent as an expert advisor, in the eyes of his subordinates, the village peasants, he is expected to know everything about his field. Any hesitation or delay to seek further knowledge is taken as a sign of weakness and lack of knowledge. Thus, a person who has no special knowledge need not be listened to. A more successful method for the Peace Corpsman might have been to provide a tentative answer which would have occupied the villager until the Corpsman could be sure of the definitely correct procedure. Indeed, his hesitation with other peasants, in an effort to give the best possible answer, may have been interpreted by them as uncertainty, and thus the advice ignored.

Go on to the next passage on page 104

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You chose B: Fereydoun was offended by being asked to come to the Corpsman's office and felt that the Corpsman should come to his farm.

Incorrect. In the evaluation of this alternative you should draw on your knowledge of the importance of status and role in such a situation. Since the Peace Corpsman is, in essence, a resident expert, his status would be higher than that of a peasant. Furthermore, the peasant was seeking a favor in the form of advice. Considering both of these facts, it would not be at all likely that Fereydoun was offended by the request, but rather that he considered it quite natural.

Reread the passage on page 98, and make another choice.

Page 102

You chose C: The average Iranian is very impatient, even with short delays, and Fereydoun wanted to begin his plowing.

Incorrect. You have made the common error of attributing American characteristics to the Iranian. In fact, the average Iranian is not greatly concerned with time and rigid schedules and is not usually impatient over a short delay. There is another, more important factor which accounts for Fereydoun's actions.

Reread the passage on page 98, and make another choice.

You chose D: Iranian peasants believe that traditional ways are the only ways and will not listen to any advice.

Incorrect. Although this answer seems possible at first glance, it is not completely accurate. While it is true that in most countries, the peasants are quite traditional and have a tendency to cling to the old ways, other factors must be taken into account. Agricultural advisers have generally been fairly well received by the Iranian peasants and their ideas put to use when feasible. Furthermore, the passage relates that Fereydoun asked for the Peace Corpsman's help, and probably, really wished to use it.

Reread the passage on page 98, and make another choice.

Control training program. In order to control such factors as the Hawthorne effect, a self-instructional program identical in form to the Culture Assimilator was constructed for the control Ss. This program was equal in length to the Culture Assimilator, and dealt with the physical geography of the Middle East.

Training procedure. The testing and training sessions took place on four days during one week. The first session was devoted to the administration of a pre-test to determine the Ss' beginning knowledge of Iranian culture and geography. The second and third sessions were used for training on Culture Assimilator and Geography programs. The program was designed to take, on the average, one and one-half hours per session; however, each individual was allowed to proceed at his own speed. The fourth session consisted of the completion of training and a re-administration of the test covering the training program material to determine amount learned.

Group tasks. After completion of the training period, each American S was appointed the leader of a three-man group composed of himself and two Iranians. Each group performed the following two tasks:

1. The unstructured cooperative task entailed the writing of a campaign plan to spread Western industrial and agricultural technological information to the provinces of Iran. This task is quite representative of the type of advisor-advisee relationship in which many Americans find themselves in foreign cultures. The American S was designated as the Western technologist, and the Iranian Ss as his expert advisers on Iranian culture. Instructions stressed the need for the cooperation of all group members to produce a satisfactory solution.

2. The negotiation task called for the Ss to decide on the proper solution to three problems of family relation on which Americans and Iranians held widely divergent positions. Six possible solutions were available for each problem. These six solutions ranged from an extreme Iranian position assigned the value of 1 to the extreme American position assigned the value of 6. The Ss marked their position before discussion, and the group then worked to a negotiated solution. Instructions stressed each individual's responsibility to his native culture's position. The group tasks were counterbalanced for order effects.

Thirty minutes were allowed for each task. After each task, the Ss filled out post-session questionnaires. These included several scales measuring various aspects of the task session, such as the leader's behavior and effectiveness, the interpersonal relations between leader and members, the satisfaction of members with the group, and the socio-emotional atmosphere of the group. All of these scales had been used extensively before and had been found to be reliable and valid measures (Chemers et al., 1966; Fiedler, 1966; 1967).

Effectiveness of Training

A test consisting of a number of items to measure prior familiarity with the material was included in both the culture and geography programs. This test was administered to all trainees before and after training, to determine if the material in the training programs had been learned. On the post test of culture knowledge, culture trained Ss performed significantly better than did geography trained Ss ($t = 7.73, p < .001$), indicating that learning did take place.

Evaluation of Group Climate

Group atmosphere and leader-member relations were measured by post-session questionnaires described above. The ratings of these scales were factor analyzed, and the relevant factors grouped into two scales.

Leader's report. The leader's report included scales assessing his feelings about his own behavior in the preceding task session. It yielded eight factors: (1) group atmosphere; (2) consideration behavior; (3) structuring behavior; (4) satisfaction with interpersonal relations; (5) satisfaction with task performance; (6) rating of members; (7) liking for the situation; (8) anxiety.

Members' report included the scales on which the Iranian group members rated the effectiveness of the American leader. The seven factors of this scale are measures of: (1) group atmosphere; (2) leader's consideration behavior; (3) leader's structuring behavior; (4) ideal leader behavior; (5) general evaluation of the leader; (6) liking for the situation; (7) anxiety.

Evaluation of Task Products

Cooperative task. The proposals for the campaign plan to spread technological information into the provinces of Iran were rated by four

American and four Iranian judges who were not subjects in the experiment. The ratings were made on eight scales measuring originality, clarity of thought, amount of detail, cultural acceptability, feasibility, practicality, relation of task instructions, and overall evaluation. The reliability of the American judges, corrected for number of raters, was .85, and for Iranian judges it was .55.

Three evaluative scores were used. These were the total of the eight scales, overall evaluation, and cultural acceptability. For each of these three scores, measures were taken for the American judgments, Iranian judgments, and the product of the American judgments multiplied by the Iranian judgments.

Negotiation task. The negotiation task required the group members to reach a negotiated solution to three family problems. Group members were instructed to bring the group decision as close to the position of their own culture as possible. The extreme American position was given a score of six with other solutions progressing downward to one at the extreme Iranian position.

Successful performance for the American leader was defined as the degree to which the group decision approached point six on the scale, and the amount of movement of the Iranian subjects from their pre-discussion position to the negotiated decision.

Results

Effects of Culture Assimilator Training

Group climate and leader-member relations. One major hypothesis of the present study was that changes in leader behavior would occur as a result of cultural training. The dimension of situational favorableness

in this study was based on the leader's training and the task under consideration. Previous work has shown that culture training results in a better leader-member relationship and greater situational favorableness for the leader. Likewise, in terms of the leader's potential for influence and control over group members, the cooperative task can be considered a more favorable situation for a leader than a negotiation task, which by definition and design reduces the leader's influence and control.

A dimension of favorableness was set up on this basis, and the relation of leadership style to consideration behavior plotted on this dimension. A positive correlation indicates that high LPC, relationship-oriented leaders had a higher relative level of consideration behavior than did low LPC leaders. A negative correlation indicates that low LPC, task-oriented leaders had a higher level of consideration behavior. This relationship is shown in Figure 1.

Quite clearly, as situational favorableness increased, low LPC, task-oriented leaders exhibited increasingly more consideration behavior relative to high LPC, relationship-oriented leaders. The measures of consideration behavior were the group members' ratings of the leader's behavior.

Analysis of the leader's structuring behavior indicated that low LPC leaders maintained a somewhat higher level of structuring behavior over all situations than did high LPC leaders. This relationship was not significant ($r = -.20$ between LPC and structuring behavior).

The premise was made earlier that the Iranians would expect a group leader to behave both in a structuring and in a considerate manner. This assumption was supported. Factor analyses of the post session leader behavior description questionnaires completed by the Iranian Ss showed a

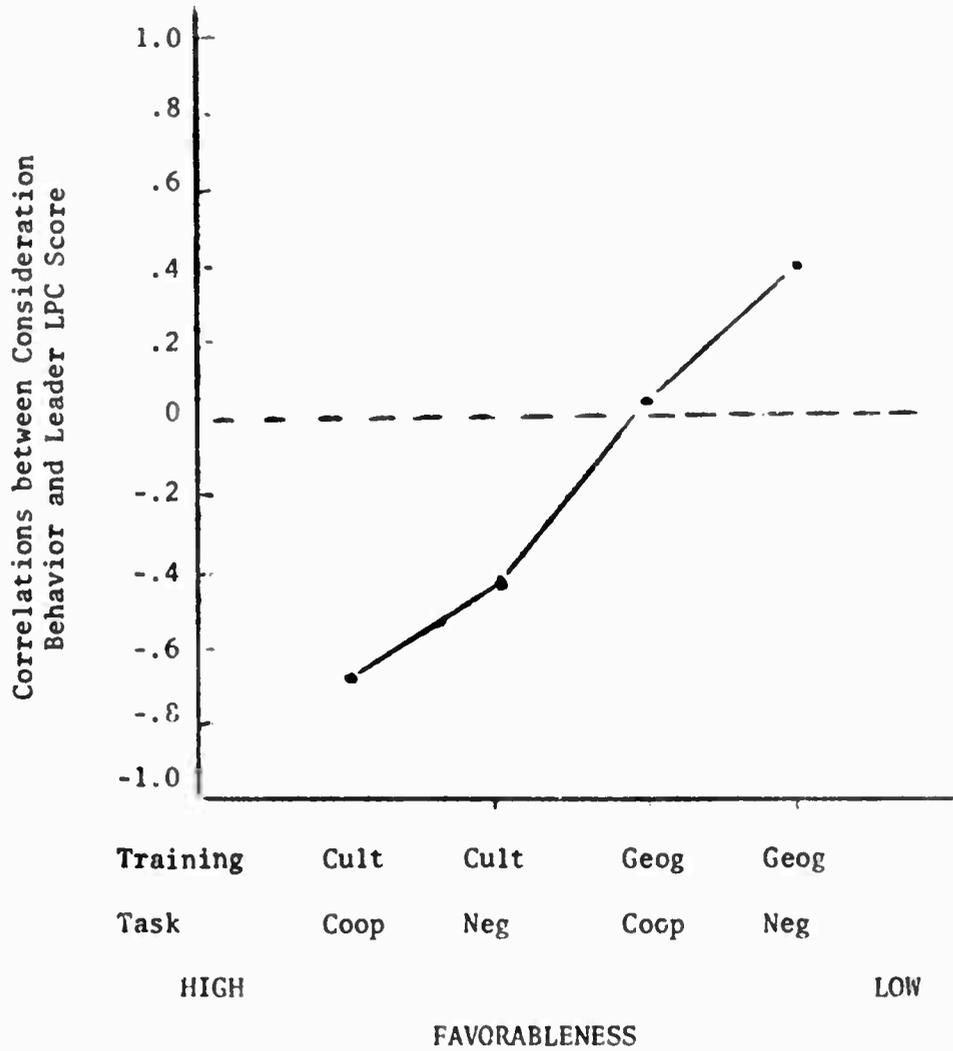


Figure 1. Relationship of leader behavior to situational favorableness

factor structure entirely different from that obtained from the ratings by American Ss. The factor structure yielded by the American ratings had two clear factors, initiation of structure and consideration. The Iranian Ss' ratings yielded only one factor which contained items related both to directive, structuring behavior and to supportive, considerate behavior.

It has heretofore been shown that culture trained, low LPC leaders exhibit a higher level of both structuring and consideration behavior. Further, Iranian ratings of an ideal leader include both structuring and consideration behaviors. Given these conditions, culture trained, low LPC leaders should receive the highest ratings on measures of group climate and leader-member relations while leaders not exhibiting these behavior patterns should be rated less highly.

Table 1 indicates that these hypotheses were supported. On each of these measures the highest ratings are given to the culture trained, low LPC leader who most accurately fulfills the Iranian role expectations for a small group leader. This effect is shown graphically in Figure 2. In addition to the interaction effects described above, no main effects for training or leadership style were obtained.

Task productivity. No main effects or interaction effects were found on any measure of cooperative task productivity.

No main effects were noted on measures of productivity for the negotiation task. However, a strong interaction was found for cultural training and task order. The negotiation task required a group decision on three problems of family relations. As mentioned above, the three problems were related to care of elders, nepotism, and discipline of children. Only the nepotism issue had the significant interaction effect. The effect was found both for the group's final decision and the Iranian members' movement. The interaction between training and task order is shown graphically in Figure 3.

Table 1
 Interaction of Training and Leadership Style on
 Several Measures of Interpersonal Relations

Scale	Culture		Geography		F	p
	High LPC	Low LPC	High LPC	Low LPC		
Member Ratings of:						
Group Atmosphere	-.354	.118	.091	-.029	5.00	.05
Leader's Consideration Behavior	-.366	.342	.033	-.216	11.00	.01
Evaluation of Leader	-.403	.205	.037	-.001	6.73	.025
Climate: Liking for Situation	-.421	.231	.002	.017	6.27	.025

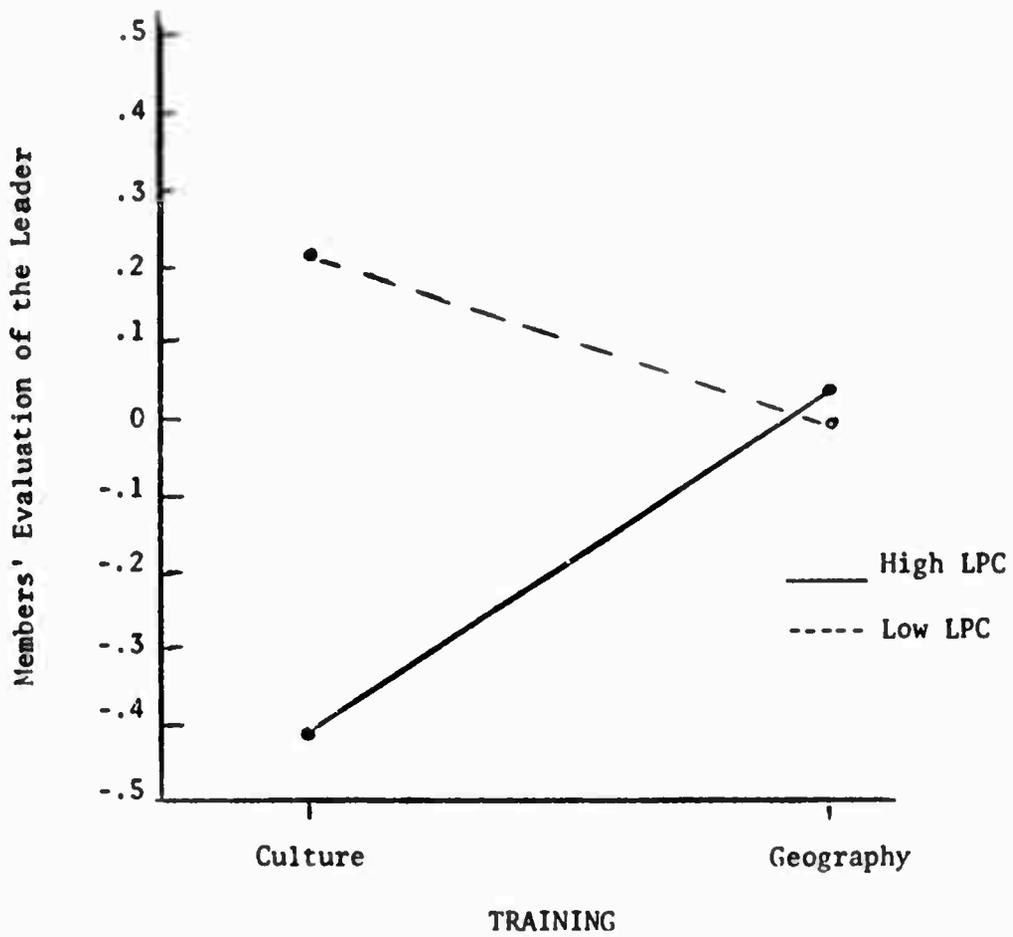


Figure 2. Interaction of training and leadership style.

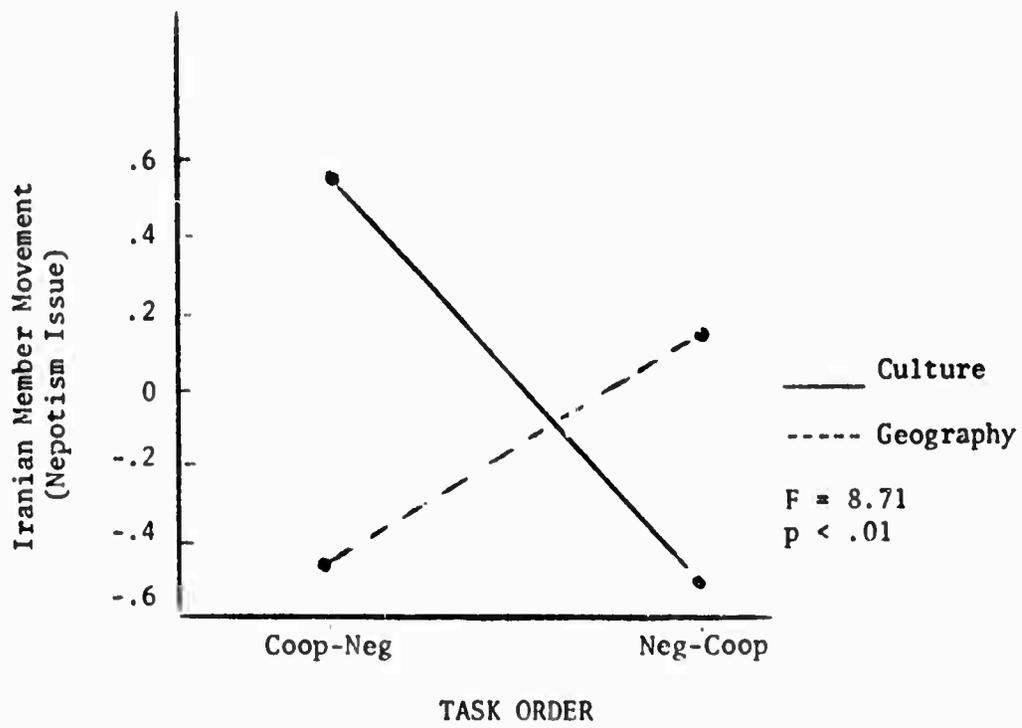


Figure 3. Interaction of training and task order on negotiation task effectiveness.

This relationship indicates that cultural training can strongly effect leadership performance. Specifically, when the cooperative task occurred before the negotiation task, culture trained leaders achieved a negotiated decision closer to the American position. When the negotiation task came before the cooperative task, the geography trained leader performed more effectively than did the culture trained leader.

One plausible explanation for this finding is as follows. The cooperative task situation allowed for a maximum of unstructured interaction. A leader whose behavior in this situation conformed to his members' expectations would be expected to build a positive rapport with his members. This good rapport would enable him to be more effective later on in the negotiation task. A leader whose behavior was deemed inappropriate by his group members might be expected to create a negative rapport, leading to ineffective negotiations later on. Thus, a cooperative unstructured session preceding the negotiation should be beneficial for some leaders and detrimental for others. It should also be noted that not all culture trained Ss received high ratings on measures of interpersonal relations. Low LPC, culture trained leaders, alone, were expected to benefit from the cooperative-negotiation order, and the improved group functioning to which it gives rise. Figure 4, illustrating the three-way interaction of training, task order, and leadership style, supports this contention.

Discussion

The theoretical position and empirical methodology which guided the present study stem from the research of leadership, cultural training, cross-cultural interaction, and role theory. The results of this research, therefore, have implications for a number of areas. Two points merit particular attention.

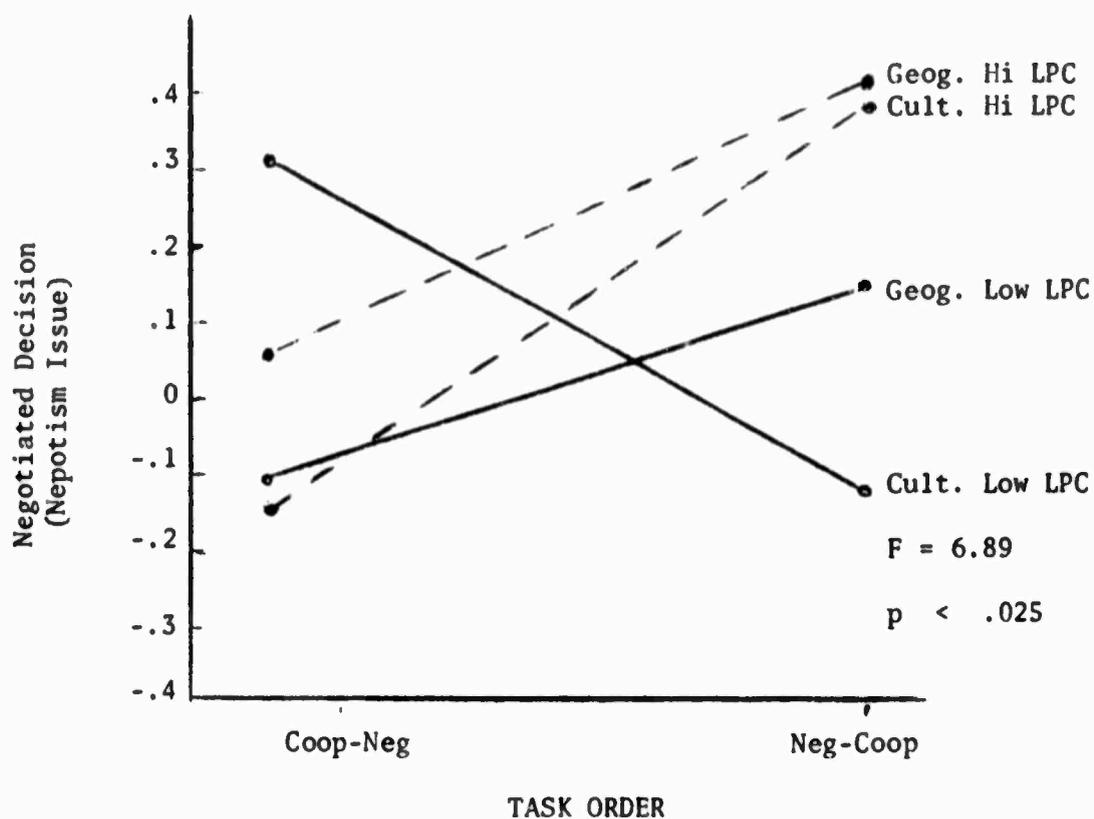


Figure 4. Effects of training, task order, and leadership style on negotiation task performance.

First, the present study clearly indicates that Culture Assimilator training modified the group task situation for the leader. When the situation was relatively more favorable, task-oriented leaders exhibited more consideration behavior than did relationship-oriented leaders. This study, therefore, validated a new type of cultural training by showing that it affected the leader's behavior. It immediately sets the Culture Assimilator apart from many earlier cultural training attempts which, with a few notable exceptions, (e.g., Spector, 1966), have not been very promising. However, the implications of these findings do not stop with the area of cultural training, but extend to the field of leadership training, in general.

The most important implication of this study is that the effect of culture training on leader behavior must be considered in relation to the favorableness of the leadership situation and the style of leadership.

Fiedler (1967) recently noted that leader behavior varies as the conditions of situational favorableness vary. He reported a study in which a dimension of situational favorableness was specified on the basis of leader-member affect and situational stress (Fiedler & Barron, 1967). Changes in situational favorableness were related to changes in leader behavior in a pattern similar to the findings obtained in the present experiment.

Thus, to a certain extent, the findings of the present study replicate Fiedler's findings. They suggest that the culture training program reduced the stressfulness of the heterocultural situation and thus add an important point for the study of leadership. The concept of leadership style as defined by a static behavior pattern cannot be maintained. Leadership style must be seen as an orientation to the group

situation which can give rise to various patterns of behavior under differing conditions, depending upon the favorableness of the situation.

The second major implication of the present research for role theory is equally important. Recent research has reported that the role expectations for several types of leadership positions vary across different organizations (Mitchell & Porter, 1967; Porter & Henry, 1964). This variation in the perception of appropriate role behaviors is even more pronounced across cultural groups. In the introduction of this paper the fulfillment of the role expectations of one's relevant role partners was considered a pre-requisite to successful group functioning. The data showed that the Iranian culture's expectations for the role of small group leader included a high level of both structuring and consideration behavior. The task-oriented, culture-trained leaders best fulfilled these expectations and received the highest ratings on almost all measures of group atmosphere and interpersonal relations. Secord and Backman (1964) maintained that role expectations are anticipatory. When such expectations are not fulfilled the role partners may feel uneasy and dissatisfied. The results of the present research supported this position.

Thus, in order to predict the interpersonal effectiveness of a particular behavior pattern, one must first be aware of the expectations of the group members.⁴ The accurate perception of the expectations surrounding one's position may be instrumental in successful interpersonal relations. Here again, a cultural training program may provide an individual with a better understanding of the complex role relationships with which he is confronted in a cross-cultural situation.

⁴Foa (1957) reported that workers who expected authoritarian supervisors were more satisfied when they received authoritarian supervisors than when they received democratic ones.

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13. ABSTRACT

A field experiment was conducted in Iran to test the effects of cross-cultural training materials on leader behavior and effectiveness. 48 Americans living in Teheran were administered either the Culture Assimilator, a programmed self-instructional training program for Iranian culture, or a control training program on the physical geography of the Middle East. Cultural training was found to be quite effective in changing leader behavior contingent upon the S's original leadership style and the demand characteristics of the situation. The variables of situational favorableness and cultural role expectations were found to be significant determinants of leader effectiveness in culturally heterogeneous groups.

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