

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING IN A CROSS-CULTURAL SETTING: THE IMPORTANCE OF
INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

by

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B.A., University of Colorado, 2005
M.S., Kansas State University, 2008

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Department of Psychology
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Abstract

The current study uses structural equation modeling to simultaneously test the relationships between cultural knowledge, rapport building, and counterpart receptiveness in a cross-cultural setting using military-advisors. Five-hundred-eighty-three Army soldiers and Marines deployed to either Iraq or Afghanistan as advisors to host-national soldiers were asked to complete a questionnaire about their job-tasks. Results indicate that advisors who use cultural knowledge are more effective building relationships, and as a result have counterparts who are more receptive to their advice. Limitations and implications of the model are discussed, as well as potential directions for future research.

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Jason M. Brunner

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CHAPTER 1 - Background

The concept of using American soldiers as advisors to foreign soldiers is not new. There have been numerous attempts by the Army to appoint soldiers to advise the host national soldiers in support of the American cause and to improve the host nation's soldiers. According to reviews conducted by Ramsey (2006), Hickey (1965), and Bailey (2004) among others, previous advisory efforts in Korea, Vietnam, and El Salvador were ineffective in varying degrees due to a lack of cultural training and language barriers.

Military-advisors advise and assist, not command, their counterparts (FM 3-24, 2006; FM 3-07, 2009) and without the ability to directly command their counterparts, advisors are instructed to use influence to compel their counterparts into action. The first large scale advisor mission occurred in Korea. In Korea advisors were assigned to train and develop soldiers capable of repelling North Korean forces. However, advisors were given no training or instruction on how to perform such duties or what to expect in their role. According to Ramsey (2006), the lack of guidance left advisors with the daunting task of learning on the job, through a system of trial and error, what it meant to be an advisor, all the while in combat. Often this strained the relationship between the advisor and counterpart. Furthermore, a lack of cultural understanding, amplified by ethnocentric beliefs of superiority, coupled with the inability to communicate effectively, led many Koreans and Americans to give up on one another (Ramsey, 2006). Despite these challenges, the advisor mission in Korea may be seen as effective in that advisors did prepare and improve the Korean army.

From Korea the Army was able to learn that effective advisory relationships were built over time and were based on trust and a willingness to work together (Ramsey, 2006). Also, research conducted by Hausrath (1957) emphasized that future advisors would need training that

focused on advisor duties and responsibilities, local culture and working with locals, and how the host nation's army operated. Hausrath also highlighted that it was necessary to select highly qualified advisors based on personality, experience, and temperament. This recommendation contradicted assignment procedures used in Korea in which ineffective soldiers were often sent to be advisors (Ramsey, 2006).

Vietnam proved to be a greater challenge than Korea. The war was much larger and required more troops than Korea. The U.S. also increased the number of advisors to train the Vietnamese forces. The increase in needed personnel for the war often meant that the larger advisor mission was once again underserved, and advisor positions were often left unfilled or filled with unqualified personnel (Ramsey, 2006). While the scope of the advisor mission increased in Vietnam, the problems remained the same, advisors were placed in an unfamiliar culture, with little training, and less role clarity (Hickey 1965; Ramsey, 2006).

Selection of advisors in Vietnam was not a primary concern for the Army since advisors were selected at random. Training, on the other hand, was given an emphasis not seen in Korea. Advisors went through cultural, language, and advisor-specific training to prepare them for their jobs. While this was an improvement from Army policy in Korea, the training program was instituted well after the war had begun, and only a select few went through the training program. The majority who did not go through training were briefed on their mission and sent on their way (Hickey 1965; Ramsey, 2006).

U.S. advisors were not successful in training or building an adequate Vietnamese army. Despite calls for an increase in specialized officers to handle similar missions and a realization that training and selection were needed for future advising missions, the U.S. military would be

hesitant to ever again have an advisor mission as large as the one undertaken in Vietnam (Ramsey, 2006).

The U.S. advisor mission in El Salvador was characterized as successful and as a model for how to conduct future advisory missions. U.S. advisors to El Salvador had a similar job to their predecessors, training and advising local military through influence and relationship building (Bailey, 2004; Ramsey, 2006). This long, but small-scale mission, utilized selection criteria that required language proficiency, experience in the country, rank, and other characteristics deemed necessary to adapt to a foreign and difficult environment (Bailey, 2004). Due to an in-depth selection process, training was seen as unnecessary and omitted. While the overall mission was deemed a success (Bailey, 2004; Childress, 1995), further analysis once again concluded that U.S. soldiers did a poor job of recognizing the importance of the local culture and applying this knowledge to achieve objectives (Ramsey, 2006).

Currently, the U.S. military finds itself performing ongoing advisory missions in Iraq and Afghanistan. After Saddam Hussein's army was disbanded in May 2003, there was a realization that the New Iraqi Army (NIA) would need to be rebuilt. As such, the NIA would need to complete training to eventually be proficient enough to independently protect Iraq (Committee on Armed Services, 2007). According to The United States House of Representatives Committee on Armed Services (2007), the original training program was contracted; however the resulting NIA was ill-prepared and refused to fight when called into action. Consequently, Coalition Forces were assigned the task of training the NIA and the entire training program was restructured into the current ongoing advisory mission. The advisors were either reassigned from their current deployments to be advisors or were selected before deployment to be advisors. These advisors form what are referred to as Transition Teams and their primary goal is preparing

host-national forces to take independent control of their country (Committee on Armed Services, 2007).

In Afghanistan advisors are performing the same tasks as advisors in Iraq, under slightly different circumstances. Advisors in Afghanistan help organize, train, equip, employ and support the Afghan National Security Force (ANSF) in order to defeat the insurgency, provide internal security, extend and enforce the rule of law, set conditions for economic development, and gain the trust and confidence of the citizens of Afghanistan (Combined Security Transition Command – Afghanistan, n.d.). The ultimate goal of Afghan advisors is to develop an ANSF that is professional, literate, ethnically diverse, tactically competent and capable of providing security throughout Afghanistan (Combined Security Transition Command – Afghanistan, n.d.).

Transition Teams are embedded with their counterparts to train them to be self-sustaining tactically, operationally, and logistically. This training includes advising, coaching, teaching, and mentoring their counterparts in communications, intelligence, infantry tactics, and logistics. Also, advisors develop and improve leadership, support training, and assist with logistics and battlefield support (Committee on Armed Services, 2007).

The current mission of the U.S. Advisors in Iraq and Afghanistan is critical to the success of the overall objectives in both countries. Additionally, as stated by Lieutenant Colonel John A. Nagl,

The need for well-trained, professional combat advisors is unlikely to go away any time soon. It is long past time for the Army to institutionalize and professionalize the manning and training of combat advisors in permanent Army force structure (Committee on Armed Services, 2007, p. 128).

Therefore, it seems vital to the success of the current U.S. mission, as well as the continuance of a successful advisory program, to understand the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities, as well as necessary behaviors, required of advisors to successfully perform their mission. This understanding will not only improve the performance of soldiers assigned to advisory roles, but will allow for successful training and selection of future advisors.

CHAPTER 2 - Introduction

Each time the U.S. military response to advisory requirements was an ad hoc, secondary endeavor. Each time results were expected. Each time advisors tried their best. Each time the results were mixed. Each time the experience was forgotten – relegated to that lesser important, not-to-be-done-again-anytime soon pile of military tasks (Ramsey, 2006, p. 107).

Ramsey’s concluding sentiments are true of previous advisory missions, as well as the current advisor missions in Iraq and Afghanistan. Until recently, advisors were selected haphazardly and provided, at most, insignificant training. With an emphasis on advising and utilizing what has been described as “human terrain,” the advisor mission has been given more direction and stated purpose. Additionally, the improvement of selection and training programs has been given more attention.

Currently, the Army describes the advisory mission in Army Field Manual 3-07.1, Security Force Assistance (FM 3-07, 2009) and Army Field Manual 3-24, Counterinsurgency (FM 3-24, 2006). According to FM 3-07 (2009),

Advisors are the most prominent group of U.S. personnel that serve with Foreign Security Forces (FSF). They live, work, and fight with their FSF. The relationship between advisors and FSF is vital. Advisors are not liaison officers, nor do they command FSF units (p. 7-1).

Advisors are given the task of living with a foreign counterpart in an attempt to teach, coach, and advise their counterparts to help achieve objectives. This is an extremely difficult mission, and for an advisor to be successful they must gain the trust and confidence of their counterpart to

influence their counterparts to effective action. The difficulty of this task is only further exasperated as differences between the cultures grow.

One objective of an advisor is to gain the trust and confidence of their counterpart so they can influence them, and to do this the advisor must have both cultural knowledge and relationship building ability (Ryan, 2008). FM 3-07 (2009) states advisors must have an understanding of, and be able to identify with, their counterparts' culture. Once an advisor is able to identify and understand their counterpart, they can begin building a relationship through trust, understanding, and mutual respect, which might result in a high level of cooperation, conformity, harmony, or affinity between the advisor and counterpart. Positive relationships such as these are said to have good rapport.

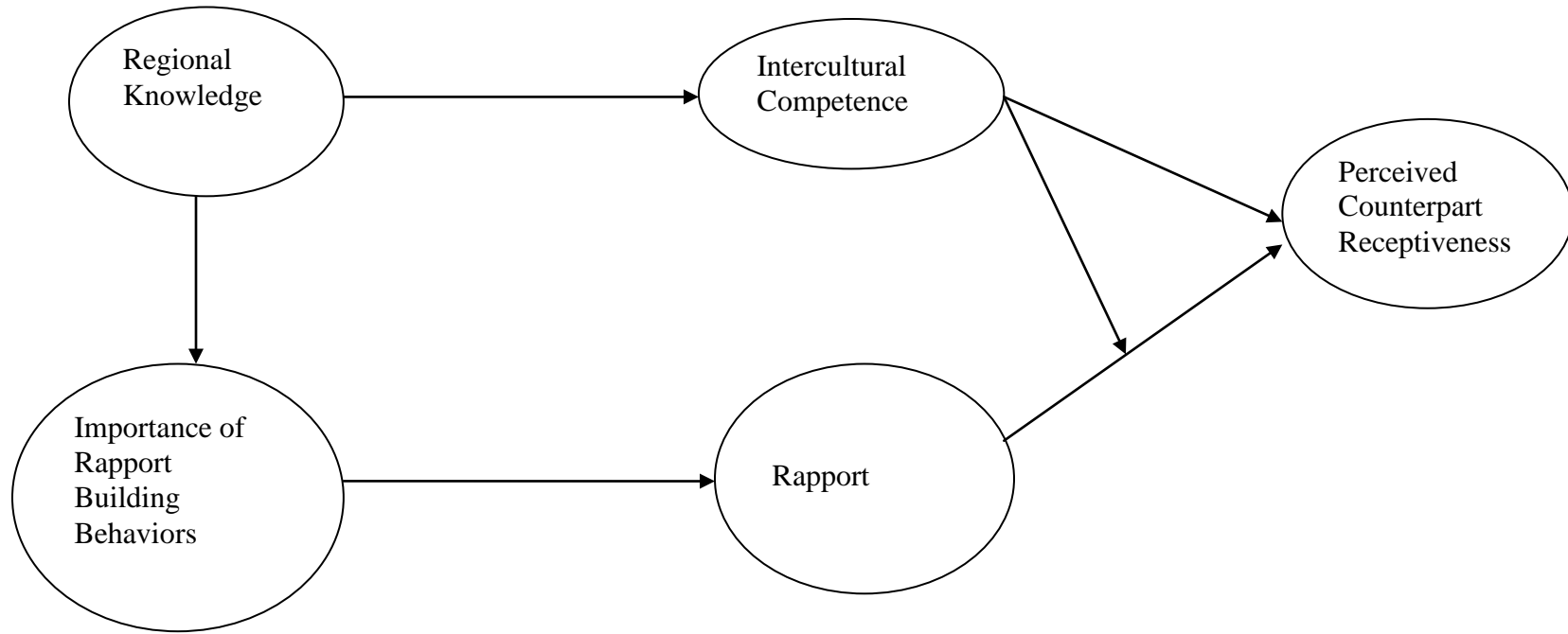
Understanding culture is critical for rapport to form between the advisor and their counterpart (FM 3-24, 2006). It is necessary for advisors to understand the history and current state of the counterpart's country, but culture, as it is referred to in this research, implies more than factual information. It is also necessary to understand how the counterpart socially interacts and works. To do this effectively, FM 3-07 (2009) and FM 3-24 (2006) indicate advisors must have a firm understanding of not only their counterpart's culture, but their own culture and behaviors as well.

Based on the Army description of an advisor, a basic model can be proposed. According to FM 3-07 (2009) and FM 3-24 (2006), rapport with one's counterpart leads to a more effective relationship. Furthermore, cultural knowledge seems to play a critical role in whether rapport can be used to increase the effectiveness of the advisor. FM 3-24 specifically states effective advisors recognize and use cultural factors to support host nation commitment and teamwork in order to

get the best performance out of their counterparts. While the Army has anecdotal evidence to support their implied model, it has yet to be theoretically supported or empirically tested.

It is the purpose of this paper to test a model of relationship building in a cross-cultural setting based upon a theoretical foundation, with a specific focus on different aspects of cultural knowledge. The aim of this research is to advance the understanding of the relationship between rapport, cultural knowledge, and effectiveness. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical model highlighting the variables of interest and major relationships between the variables. Previous research has demonstrated the dynamic relationships between rapport and performance, cultural knowledge and performance, and cultural knowledge and rapport. However, to the knowledge of the author, no research has looked at the relationships between the three constructs. Furthermore, the hypothesized model will be cross-validated in an attempt to show the generalizability of the model to other cultures.

Figure 1. Theoretical Model



Counterpart Receptiveness

In the case of advisors, one measure of success is counterpart receptiveness to advisor advice. When a counterpart is receptive to the advisor's mission, the counterpart is more likely influenced, accepting of advice, easy to communicate and get along with, and has a good relationship with their advisor (FM 3-07, 2009). These factors allow for a cooperative and positive relationship that might help maximize performance.

Advisors are embedded with their counterparts to train them to be self-sustaining tactically, operationally, and logistically (Committee on Armed Services, 2007). To successfully train a self-sustaining force, the advisor must have the ability and resources necessary to teach, coach, and advise their counterpart. According to Kealey (1989), technical ability is not enough to be successful in cross-cultural assignments; expatriates must also have interpersonal and intercultural skills to train host-nationals. However, without a cooperative counterpart advisors, no matter the resources available to them or within themselves, will be unable to perform their mission. Therefore, it is necessary to build a positive relationship with their counterpart, showing the counterpart the value of the transition team mission, using their interpersonal and intercultural skills, in an attempt to make them more receptive (Ryan, 2008). As a result, counterparts should be more cooperative and work towards accomplishing goals put forth by their advisor.

The primary predictor of advisor success, according to the Army, is building rapport with a counterpart (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006). The Army states rapport is built through trust, confidence, and demonstrated ability (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006). Rapport allows advisors the ability to influence their counterparts, helping both parties achieve beneficial objectives (Allardice & Prather, 2008; Ryan, 2008).

Rapport

Rapport is the ability to maintain positive relationships with others based on mutual understanding of one another (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), or more simply, rapport is when people “click” with each other (Granitz, Koernig, & Harich, 2009; Tickle-Degnan & Rosenthal, 1990). Rapport is a cognitive evaluation of exchanges between interconnected individuals that is affect-driven (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000). Research on rapport spans a diverse spectrum of fields including education, business, psychology, and organizational management. However, results across these fields tend to be consistent in their findings: rapport leads to better relationships, which results in positive outcomes for both individuals in the relationship (Faranda & Clarke, 2004; Granitz, et al., 2009). Briefly (See Granitz, et al., 2009 provides an extensive review of the antecedents and outcomes), rapport has been found to affect learning (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), motivation (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), trust (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), loyalty (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000), positive word of mouth (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000), and satisfaction (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000).

According to Tickle-Degnen and Rosenthal (1990) rapport leads to powerful interpersonal influence and responsiveness, both of which are necessary in an advisor-host-national relationship. Ultimately, a high degree of rapport results in cohesiveness through the expression of mutual attention and involvement with one another. To arrive at this end state, the relationship must exhibit three components: mutual attentiveness, positivity, and coordination (Tickle-Degnen & Rosenthal, 1990).

Mutual attentiveness is an intense mutual interest in the behaviors and interests of one another (Tickle-Degnen & Rosenthal, 1990). As the individuals begin to know each other better, they become more involved and interested in what the other is saying and doing. Over time, the

interests of the individuals become more unified and behaviors and communication become more predictable and well-understood.

The second essential component of rapport is positivity. Rapport is affect driven, and as such there needs to be mutual friendliness and caring. Tickle-Degnen and Rosenthal (1990) explain that initially this component will be based on stereotypes and cultural norms in an effort to avoid offending one another. However, as the individuals begin to move beyond superficial understanding, they are more able to have “true” interactions based on the shared knowledge of one another.

The progression of time allows for the third component of rapport, coordination. Tickle-Degnen and Rosenthal (1990) state that rapport necessitates that the involved individuals share predictability of each other’s intentions and behaviors, which allows for a high degree of coordination in interactions. A higher degree of coordination will allow for greater understanding and prediction of motivation and behavior, making the individuals more effective.

As the previous paragraphs imply, time is a crucial element in the development of rapport. It takes time to develop genuine care for another person, as well as the ability to understand the person’s behavior and communication patterns. Initial interactions typically are focused on not offending the other person and being polite, and often are awkward due to misunderstandings. As interactions occur more frequently, much of the awkwardness subsides and more information and understanding is conveyed. Additionally, politeness, while still present, may become less of a focal point. The individuals may begin to feel open to express more of themselves (i.e., not only display their best qualities) and may express disagreement with one another. At this point it may be said that the individuals have some sort of relationship with each other. What can be interpreted as a high degree of rapport occurs when the individuals

have fewer misunderstandings, are more open with one another, are able to predict the behaviors and communication of the other, and there is increased efficiency and coordination as the two become more unified and develop their own interpersonal nuances.

The development of a high degree of rapport requires the individuals spend considerable time interacting with one another and learn to communicate effectively (Ryan, 2008). In a cross-cultural situation this is difficult due to cultural differences and language barriers (Altman, 1990). However, positivity in interpersonal interactions, shared understanding of nonverbal communication and some form of effective communication (e.g., through the use of a translator or illustrations), combined with a shared goal can be used to develop rapport despite cultural differences. Additionally, as the individuals interact more, cultural differences should become less important as understanding increases, and as a result can be used to show interest and concern for one another and may improve the relationship. The following paragraphs discuss outcomes relevant to the advisor mission that are the consequence of a high level of rapport.

Gremler and Gwinner (2000) were able to demonstrate that rapport is critical to customer satisfaction, loyalty, and positive communication about the service. When the service provider was enjoyable to interact with and there was a personal connection between the individuals, customers were more satisfied, had greater intentions to return to the service provider, and spoke positively of the service with others. For advisors, the outcomes of positive word of mouth, satisfaction, and loyalty are crucial. Advisors need counterparts who are committed to shared goals and loyal to their advisors. Furthermore, advisors need their counterparts to be satisfied with their performance and to speak positively of them to spread the importance of the mission.

Granitz and colleagues (2009) examined the scope of the beneficiaries of rapport, and were able to demonstrate that rapport is predictive of beneficial outcomes to each individual, of

relationship itself, and of the perceptions of others outside of the working relationship. Exploring the relationship between college students and professors, Granitz et al. (2009) found that when students and professors had rapport both parties benefited. Professors reported that these students comprehended class material better, showed greater confidence, motivation, and effort, were more involved in class, and were more willing to ask questions because of a reduction in fear and anxiety. Professors found the class more enjoyable, took a greater interest in these students, and found teaching rewarding. Outside of the classroom, teachers received greater respect, higher performance evaluations, and students spoke positively about the professor. Mutually, the professor and student experienced enhanced communication, honesty, trust, and goal alignment. The aforementioned shared outcomes of rapport are important for advisors because more motivated and confident counterparts will work harder and be more willing to learn, the advisor and counterpart will have a better relationship, and the advisor will enjoy his or her duties more.

In addition to improving performance, rapport can help compensate for shortcomings in performance. In a study investigating service failures, Worsfold, Worsfold, and Bradley (2007) found that having good rapport acted as a buffer against dissatisfaction and complaint intentions with the overall service experience. Furthermore, rapport was more predictive of satisfaction and patronage after a service failure than any form of monetary compensation, with rapport being even more crucial for severe service failures. Often advisors are faced with challenges they cannot meet, and having a high level of rapport with their counterpart will help to offset the disappointment of these failures.

Rapport is also important to overall perceptions of satisfaction. According to Gremler and Gwinner (2000), service interactions are difficult to assess and determining the quality of service may be more difficult; however, rapport positively affects the overall perceptions of the service.

In ambiguous situations, people look for other cues to base their judgments upon, and the interactions with the service provider become the foundation of the overall perceptions of the service. Advisors provide counterparts materials, advice, training, and other services to help counterparts achieve self-sustainment. Improvement in self-sustainment or training is often hard to assess, but rapport can substitute as an evaluative tool of advisor performance. Advisors who have rapport with their counterparts should have counterparts who are cooperative and work to achieve objectives. Additionally, rapport may serve as a gage of satisfaction for the overall advisor mission since it is impossible to have a complete picture of success, such as advisors who share positive rapport with their counterpart should have more satisfied counterparts.

Clearly, rapport is necessary to maximize a relationship. Rapport is built on mutual attentiveness (i.e., mutual interest in what the other person is saying or doing); positivity (i.e., mutual friendliness, approachability, empathy); and coordination (i.e., balance, accessibility, and synchronization in actions of participants) (Faranda & Clarke 2004; Tickle-Degnen & Rosenthal, 1990). The theoretical building-blocks of rapport are similar to trust, confidence, and demonstrated ability proposed by the Army (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006) because they demonstrate cooperation, empathy, and understanding between individuals. Having these elements in a relationship should build rapport.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive relationship between ratings of the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors and ratings of Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness.

Hypothesis 2: Advisors who rate the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors highly will engage in more Relationship Establishing Behaviors, Role Modeling behaviors, and treat their counterparts with greater Consideration and Respect predicting greater Rapport.

However, rapport may not be the only contributing factor to success, especially in a cross-cultural situation. Advisors fill many of the same roles as described in the cited studies such as teacher, service provider, and student, and as such it would appear rapport is crucial to advisor success. Without rapport, an advisor is going to be less capable of influencing their counterpart and achieving their objective. In addition to rapport, cultural knowledge may also play a critical role in determining successful performance. Both advisor field manuals (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006) state advisors must have an understanding of, and be able to identify with their counterparts' culture. The utilization of cultural knowledge is critical for advisors who not only have to build relationships, but have to adapt to their surroundings and exert influence across cultures (Abbe, Gulick, & Herman, 2007; Allardice & Prather, 2008; Ryan, 2008).

Cultural Knowledge

For advisors, a one-on-one relationship with their counterparts increases intelligence collection and helps to win the hearts and minds of the locals. To accomplish these objectives there needs to be an understanding of local interests, habits, intentions, beliefs, social organizations, and political symbols, or what is generally referred to as culture (McFate 2005; Wunderle, 2006). Cultural knowledge helps advisors establish realistic expectations about the culture they will be working in and about the people they be working with (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Greater cultural knowledge should help advisors build and maintain relationships because it provides a guide for respectful and inoffensive behaviors (Granitz et al, 2009). Accordingly, individuals placed in cross-cultural situations must be aware of the immediate culture and behave in an appropriate manner if they hope to accomplish their goals.

Chan, Bond, Spencer-Oatey, and Rojo-Laurilla (2004) state if individuals are to achieve their goals, they have to act in a culturally appropriate manner that promotes a positive exchange.

When one individual is relying on another for resources, service, or assistance, the person in need must behave considerately because the other person has control of the needed good. Additionally, positive exchanges can help create future interactions that have a similar positive feel. A thorough understanding of culture can help to ensure that advisors do not offend their counterparts, and that advisors can use their rapport more effectively to achieve their immediate and future goals.

There is a necessary distinction between cultural competencies for the purposes of cross-cultural research. Cross-cultural research has examined numerous frameworks in an attempt to understand what makes a person effective, adaptable, and comfortable in a cross-cultural situation. Two of the frameworks are regional knowledge, or declarative information about a specific geographic area (Bhawuk, 1998), and intercultural competence, which is knowledge, affect, motivation and skills to adapt to cross-cultural environments (Abbe, et al., 2007) or the degree to which the individual acculturates (Zakaria, 2000).

Regional Knowledge

Regional knowledge is seen as a static description of location-specific information such as language, time, political systems, customs, norms, etc. (Bhawuk, 1998; McFate 2005; Rentsch, Gunderson, Goodwin, & Abbe, 2007) and it is important for first impressions and establishing a relationship (Ryan, 2008). Regional cultural knowledge provides people with the fundamentals (e.g., the dos and don'ts, political formation, religion, etc.) of an area and may help them avoid offending locals (Wunderle, 2006). Regional knowledge is the foundation for a deeper and more dynamic form of cultural understanding that is developed over time and through continual interaction with the local population (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Bhawuk (1998) and Rentsch et al., (2007) state that regional cultural knowledge provides an expatriate with novice-

level expertise and is necessary to develop expert knowledge (i.e., the ability to fully interact and understand foreign cultures), which can only be gained through interaction. Regional knowledge is important, but not all people from a culture adopt all the cultural norms and rules in the same manner or to the same extent (Chan, et al., 2004) and when host-nationals act outside of these prescribed norms, an expatriate may experience confusion and not know how to respond (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999).

Additionally, regional cultural knowledge should provide basic guidelines (e.g., the dos and don'ts, political formation, religion, etc) that are culturally founded and help form a schema of appropriate behaviors and interactions. This foundation should facilitate quicker acquisition of intercultural competence because it provides a basic understanding of how to interact without offending a host national (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Regional cultural knowledge provides a basic explanation for certain behaviors or social nuances that may otherwise be unclear or unusual.

Intercultural Competence

Unlike regional knowledge, intercultural competence is dynamic and requires “mindset shifts” for the individual to be adaptive and successful in a cross-cultural setting (Deardorff, 2006; Zakaria, 2000). Intercultural competence can be summarized as, “awareness, valuing, and understanding of cultural differences; experiencing other cultures; and self-awareness of one’s own culture” (Deardorff, 2006, p. 247). Intercultural competence helps expatriates prevent misapplication of cultural knowledge through an increased awareness of culturally appropriate behaviors (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). According to Zakaria, this process is difficult because it requires adaption of foreign work culture, values, and norms while simultaneously relinquishing these aspects of one’s own culture. To aid expatriates in making this adaptation, organizations

have begun using training programs that focus on developing skills that teach people how to learn, which expatriates can then use to learn from their new surroundings and adapt. Being able to communicate and understand people from other cultures make an expatriate more effective, and according to Bhawuk (1998), an expert working in that culture. This expertise, again, is built through continual interaction with locals and behavioral adjustment, ultimately leading the expatriate to closely resemble a member of the local population.

Zakaria (2000) states that intercultural competence is composed of affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. The cognitive component of intercultural competence is cultural awareness. Cultural awareness is the changing of one's own thinking about the environment through the understanding that there are multiple perspectives, and that these perspectives have value. It is important to understand one's own culture (self-awareness) and the effects culture has on behavior (cultural awareness), so that adjustments can be made to one's behavior, allowing the individual to maintain multicultural coexistence (Chen & Starosta, 1996). These adjustments should be in response to the conditions of the foreign culture, and should allow the individual to be more effective in their cross-cultural interactions through perspective-taking and the development of a more detailed cultural schema.

The affective process of intercultural competence is termed cultural sensitivity and focuses on emotions and feelings based on changes in environment, people, and situations, while setting aside biases, judgmental attitudes, and ethnocentrism (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Perspective taking, open-mindedness, bias suppression, being nonjudgmental, and emotional control enable individuals to be culturally sensitive in their interactions, and being culturally sensitive signals respect and acknowledgement of cultural differences. Culturally sensitive people are able to project and receive positive emotional responses during interactions, which

allow for greater cultural understanding and positive relationships, making expatriates more effective in their new surroundings (Chen & Starosta, 1996).

Finally, cultural adroitness, the behavioral process of intercultural competence, is the ability to interact appropriately and effectively in a foreign culture and corresponds to communication skills (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Cultural adroitness includes being able to speak the host language, behavioral flexibility, self-disclosure, interaction management, and social skills. Cultural adroitness emphasizes the ability to act appropriate and effectively in interpersonal communication to achieve the desired objectives. It is important to note that cultural adroitness, cultural sensitivity, and cultural awareness are all equally important and inseparable.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a positive relationship between advisors' ratings of Regional Knowledge and ratings of the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors.

Hypothesis 4: Regional Knowledge will be positively related to Intercultural Competence.

Hypothesis 5: Intercultural Competence will be positively related to Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness.

The following sections will discuss the components of intercultural competence and their importance to cross-cultural performance and relationship building. Also, the hypothesized moderation effect intercultural competence has on the relationship between rapport and counterpart receptiveness will be discussed.

Intercultural Competence as Interpersonal Skills

A major part of intercultural competence is the ability to effectively deal with diverse communication styles, social customs, correct miscommunication, and understand and interpret

feelings (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Culture and communication are very closely related, such that culture greatly influences who is communicated with, the mode of communication, and what is communicated (Gertsen, 1990). Deardorff (2006) states the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately, based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, may result in personal change (e.g., shifts in frames of reference), goal achievement, and appropriate, effective behavior. In the cross-culture literature this has been termed as intercultural communication competence and is the knowledge, motivation, and skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures (Wiseman, 2001) and is largely dependent upon one's interpersonal skills. Advisors have to be able to learn from their environment and the people they interact with to shape their own behaviors in a culturally appropriate manner. Failure to do so may result in offending someone and decreased performance or compromise the relationship; however, being adaptive may increase the performance of an already established relationship.

The research on interpersonal skills in the workplace supports their importance in the prediction of contextual, task, and overall performance (Ferris, Perrew, & Douglas, 2002; Ferris, Witt, & Hochwater 2001; Witt & Ferris, 2003). Wisecarver et al. (2007) found that interpersonal skills were necessary for working with indigenous populations in a sample of soldiers. Additionally, Kealey (1998) found that Canadian advisors with better interpersonal skills, according to self- and peer-ratings, were more effective in transferring knowledge. Individuals with better interpersonal skills are better at using influence appropriately and managing impressions (Witt & Ferris, 2003), both of which are important aspects of the military advising function (Ramsden Zbylut, Metcalf, McGowan, Beemer, Brunner, & Vowels, 2009). According to Ferris, et al., "social skills reflect interpersonal perceptiveness and the capacity to

adjust one's behavior to different situational demands and to effectively influence and control the responses of others” (p.1076).

As individuals interact and try to succeed in a foreign culture, they should become more aware of which interpersonal skills are necessary and appropriate in a given situation to improve their interactions and subsequent performance (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Interpersonal skills are essential to building trust, forming meaningful relationships, and improving cultural understanding (Rentsch et al., 2007). Three interpersonal skills that demonstrate intercultural competence are perspective taking, bias suppression, and leveraging cultural knowledge. Utilizing these interpersonal skills will allow an advisor the opportunity to capture more cultural cues, interpret their meaning, and utilize the information to achieve his or her objectives.

Perspective Taking

Perspective taking is a cognitive process by which an individual is able to see one’s self and the world through the perspective of another (Rentsch et al., 2007; Weber & Carter, 1998), and is recognized as a crucial element of proper social functioning and social competence (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000), as well as collaboration and coordination (Rentsch et al., 2007). According to Weber and Carter (1998) the ability to take the other’s perspective develops slowly as two people continually interact and share information, gradually learning how the other person perceives the world around them.

Perspective taking requires an individual to reject the notion that his or her perspective of the world is the only viable perspective. Once an individual understands that each person has his or her own perspective and interpretation of the world, he or she can begin to build a shared perspective with other individuals. Perspective taking allows for the formation of trust and stability in the relationship, and the ability to anticipate feelings, thoughts and behaviors.

Additionally, the ability to take on multiple perspectives creates greater understanding of others, decreases the likelihood of hurting others, and is a necessary requirement for a positive relationship (Weber & Carter, 1998). Perspective taking also facilitates greater cultural understanding because the individual is able to apply an appropriate “cultural lens” and extract, interpret, and understand cultural information more effectively and efficiently (Rentsch et al., 2007).

In a series of studies, Galinsky and Moskowitz (2000) demonstrated that perspective taking is a crucial element to reducing out-group prejudice. Out-group prejudice is reduced because perspective taking eliminates biases from thought, increases evaluations of out-group members, and reduces the thought and expression of stereotypes. The authors explain that perspective taking allows for increased overlap between the individual and out-group members. Subsequently, the individual begins to identify more with the out-group and to understand their vantage point, reducing hostility and promoting cooperation. However, perspective taking necessitates a sustained relationship to truly become an effective component of a working relationship.

Self-awareness is also important to perspective taking (Rentsch et al., 2007). Self-awareness is the ability to understand one’s own strengths and weaknesses, abilities, skills, and knowledge. More importantly, self-awareness is also the awareness of one’s own cultural values, behaviors, communication practices, and biases. This information can be useful in helping advisors modify their own behavior to be more effective in their interactions with host-nationals and, if necessary, may help them to conceal or eliminate biases they may have.

Bias Suppression

Another interpersonal skill to help individuals be more effective in cross-cultural situations is thought suppression, which is an active and purposeful process to avoid or prevent biased behaviors or feelings from being demonstrated. When examining individuals from an out-group, an individual has two forms of information available. The first is cultural stereotypes, which are culturally formulated attributions of the person based on group membership (Devine, 1989). The second available source of information is the individual's own personal beliefs (Devine, 1989). While individuals may be aware of the stereotypes ascribed to members of a certain group, their own personal beliefs may not align with the stereotype. Although these two sources of information may overlap, they have separate implications for the evaluation of, feelings towards, and interactions with members of different groups.

Stereotypes are well-established in children before they have the ability or resources to form their own impressions of out-group members, and as a result stereotypes become an automatic response to out-group members (Devine, 1989). Automatic processes are unintentional activations of well-learned associations developed through repeated activation in memory (Devine, 1989). When an individual comes into contact with an out-group member, these automatic processes occur and create feelings, evaluations, and perceptions of appropriate behavior for interacting with this out-group member. Depending upon the stereotypes, the reactions generated by the automatic process may be appropriate or inappropriate.

Over time individuals may realize the stereotypes they have learned are inaccurate and result in inappropriate feelings and behavior. As a result individuals may alter their opinions based on personal interactions and available information culminating in a new set of personal beliefs about out-group members (Monteith, Ashburn-Nardo, Voils, & Czopp, 2002). Since automatic processes are inescapable, individuals must intentionally suppress the inaccurate

stereotypes and actively control their thoughts (Devine, 1989; Monteith et al., 2002). The active control of personal beliefs and suppression of biases is called a controlled process (Devine, 1989). Controlled processes allow individuals to suppress their negative biases and act in an acceptable, inoffensive manner with out-group members.

In a series of three studies Devine (1989) was able to show that everyone has stereotypes, that these stereotypes affect evaluations and perceptions, but also that these stereotypes can be controlled. First, Devine was able to show through a series of word-association tasks that both high- and low-prejudice individuals share equal knowledge of cultural stereotypes. Next, Devine primed participants to negative cultural stereotypes and asked them to read a short paragraph where the character engages in ambiguously hostile behaviors (i.e., the character refuses to pay his rent because his apartment needs to be painted). Devine found both high- and low-prejudice individuals produced prejudice responses by evaluating the character as negative and hostile, congruent with the primed stereotypes. Finally, when given the opportunity to suppress these automatic responses low-prejudice individuals controlled their cultural stereotypes and expressed non-prejudiced values. Conversely, high-prejudice individuals were consistent in applying negative cultural stereotypes to out-group members. Equally important, high-prejudice individuals were more likely to ascribe stereotypes to the entire out-group, whereas low-prejudice individuals were reluctant to describe the out-group as a whole in any way.

These findings have practical implications because they demonstrate that individuals can learn about their own biases and can make adjustments to control these biases to behave appropriately (Monteith et al., 2002). In situations with diverse populations there is a basic necessity to at least hide biases to successfully function in intergroup interactions (Plant & Devine, 2009). Plant and Devine demonstrated that individuals who were motivated to overcome

either overt or covert prejudice were more likely to learn how to reduce or rid themselves of their prejudices than those who were not motivated to do so. Therefore, individuals who are motivated to successfully interact in intercultural situations and are aware of their own biases and how these affect behavior, are going to be more successful at suppressing their biases and overall be more effective. However, for thought suppression to be effective it must occur in an attempt to effectively interact with out-group members. Otherwise, individuals may withdrawal from out-group interactions altogether as method of avoiding prejudiced behavior (Devine, 1998; Plant & Devin, 2009).

Leveraging Cultural Knowledge

The ability to leverage cultural knowledge is also important to advisor success. Without direct authority over their counterparts, advisors have to rely on their influence abilities to achieve their objectives (Allardice & Prather, 2008; Ryan, 2008). Using various influence tactics that capitalize on cultural knowledge provides advisors multiple avenues in which to achieve their objectives cooperatively with their counterpart (Rentsch et al., 2007). Various influence tactics can be used in different situations to accomplish a goal, especially in cases where there is no legitimate authority (Yukl, Seiffert, & Chavez, 2008). For example, an advisor can use cultural knowledge as an inspirational influence tactic to garner cooperation where a counterpart may have been hesitant to act. The use of cultural customs and understanding to an advisor's benefit can lead to goal achievement and more importantly improve the relationship through shared success and an expression of understanding and concern for the counterpart on the part of the advisor.

Intercultural Competence as a Moderator

Intercultural competence includes knowledge, affect, motivation, and skills, all of which are necessary to a varying extent in predicting the success of an advisor. In a study comparing intercultural versus intracultural negotiation tactics, Adair, Okumura, and Brett (2001) found intracultural negotiation resulted in greater joint gains than did intercultural negotiations. According to the authors, understanding of cultural norms and behaviors leads to more effective communication, higher motivation to cooperate, and mutual gains. Conversely, intercultural communication is often difficult, ineffective, and frustrating which may result in clashing of normative behaviors, lower motivation, and may hinder mutual gains. As a result, and as predicted, the visiting nationals – in this case Japanese negotiators in America – adopted the hosts' cultural norms and correctly modified their behaviors. However, these pairs were still unable to work as effectively as the intracultural groups. The authors hypothesize that the ineffectiveness, despite correctly adopting the host culture's negotiation techniques, was due to not fully understanding their counterpart and a lack of motivation.

The findings and explanations offered by Adair and colleagues (2001) have implications for the proposed model and why it is hypothesized that Intercultural Competence will moderate the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. First, Adair et al. (2001) found that when the expatriates did exhibit culturally adaptive behaviors they also asked more clarifying questions. The repetitive questions and clarifying statements indicated the expatriate did not fully understand what their counterpart was trying to accomplish, often leading to frustration and less beneficial results. Second, when the expatriate was able to understand the objectives of their counterpart, the expatriate often did not put forth the effort to achieve mutual gains, indicating a lack of motivation.

These two findings suggest that rapport and intercultural competence are necessary for a successful relationship. Without vested interest, an advisor is less likely to put forth the necessary effort to achieve host-national-American goals, and rapport, being a vested and sincere interest in the wellbeing of the counterpart, is part of that motivating factor. According to Imahori and Lanigan (1989) without motivation, an expatriate is more likely to experience ineffective communication, and may not be willing to acquire the necessary knowledge or skills to be competent in the cross-cultural setting. Additionally, basic cultural understanding is insufficient for an individual to fully grasp the goals, decipher behaviors, and interpret meaning from their counterpart. Therefore, continual interaction in a positive relationship will help to create a more advanced cultural schema. The more expert-like schema should then allow advisors to understand how and why their counterparts act as they do, and subsequently use this information to achieve their own goals, making the advisors more effective.

The proposition that rapport must exist for an advisor to fully utilize intercultural competency is further supported by differences between expert cultural understanding and novice cultural understanding. A schema, or knowledge structure, is a conceptualization based upon information and patterns of relationships between concepts that guide behaviors, set expectations, and facilitate learning (Day, Arthur, & Gettman, 2001; Rentsch, Mot, & Abbe, 2009; Nishida, 1999). In cross-cultural situations, a more developed schema will enhance the expatriate's ability to interpret, extract, and utilize more sources of information, in a more effective manner maximizing performance (Rentsch et al., 2007). According to Rentsch et al., a schema of cultural understanding contains knowledge about communication, respect, face saving, trust, and interpersonal skills. A greater understanding of these components of cultural knowledge will make an expatriate more effective working in a foreign culture.

Similarly, relational schemas are generic knowledge structures about specific relationships between individuals or groups of people (Frey & Smith, 1993). Relationship schemas allow an individual to go beyond basic descriptions of other people and help guide appropriate behavior, feelings, and thoughts for the relationship. These types of schemas help form a shared understanding of feelings, behaviors, perceptions, goals, values, and communication styles that form the basis of a functioning relationship (Frey & Smith, 1993). More advanced relational and cultural schemas provide an advisor the ability to be more effective with host-nationals in unfamiliar surroundings, but cultural and relational schemas take time to develop.

To develop cultural expertise and a complete schema, an expatriate must spend adequate time in the host-nation and interact with the host-nationals (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Nishida, 1999; Rentsch et al., 2007). Nishida explains that cross-cultural interaction schemas are developed over time and are based on one's past experiences and interactions, but are dynamic in nature. As an individual encounters new situations and gathers new information, changes to specific knowledge structures may occur to better facilitate behavior and understanding. Thus, for advisors to develop an expert cultural schema, they must have extensive experience in the host culture to be able to extract new information and link it to their previous experiences, modifying and building upon their current cultural knowledge structure (Dorsey, Campbell, Foster, & Miles, 1999). As individuals continue to develop their schema towards the level of an expert, they will become quicker in knowledge acquisition and will have a deeper, multileveled understanding of culture, enabling them to correctly determine effective courses of action (Day et al., 2001; Rentsch et al., 2007).

Experts, due to their greater experience and interactions, are capable of going beyond stereotypical and surface-level cultural knowledge to a more abstract level of understanding. Rentsch et al. (2009) found a more expert or abstract level of understanding takes a soldier beyond the “what” of cultural knowledge and into the “why” and “how” of cultural understanding and application. As explained by Day et al. (2001), as people become more like an expert they are better at using their knowledge structure to achieve their goals, while novices do not progress beyond superficial understanding. Experts not only attempt to learn about culture, they attempt to understand why people behave as they do and then utilize this knowledge to achieve their own objectives. Additionally, experts may affect the performance of other people they are working with because of a greater sense of shared understanding (Dorsey et al., 1999).

Liu, Pham, and Holyoak (1997) explain that goals are an integral part in how people find, organize, and incorporate information about others into their own schemas. Often in cross-cultural situations the goal of the expatriate is to learn how to interact with host-nationals so to not offend them. Liu et al. (1997) found that individuals will learn what is appropriate or inappropriate and adjust their own behavior accordingly so they can achieve the goal of not offending the host-national. Even the most basic level of cultural knowledge (e.g., status is important) shapes an individual’s behavior to better facilitate goal acquisition. Given more time and greater interaction, an individual will increase the difficulty or move on to a different set of goals and will adjust what they learn in attempt to achieve their new goals.

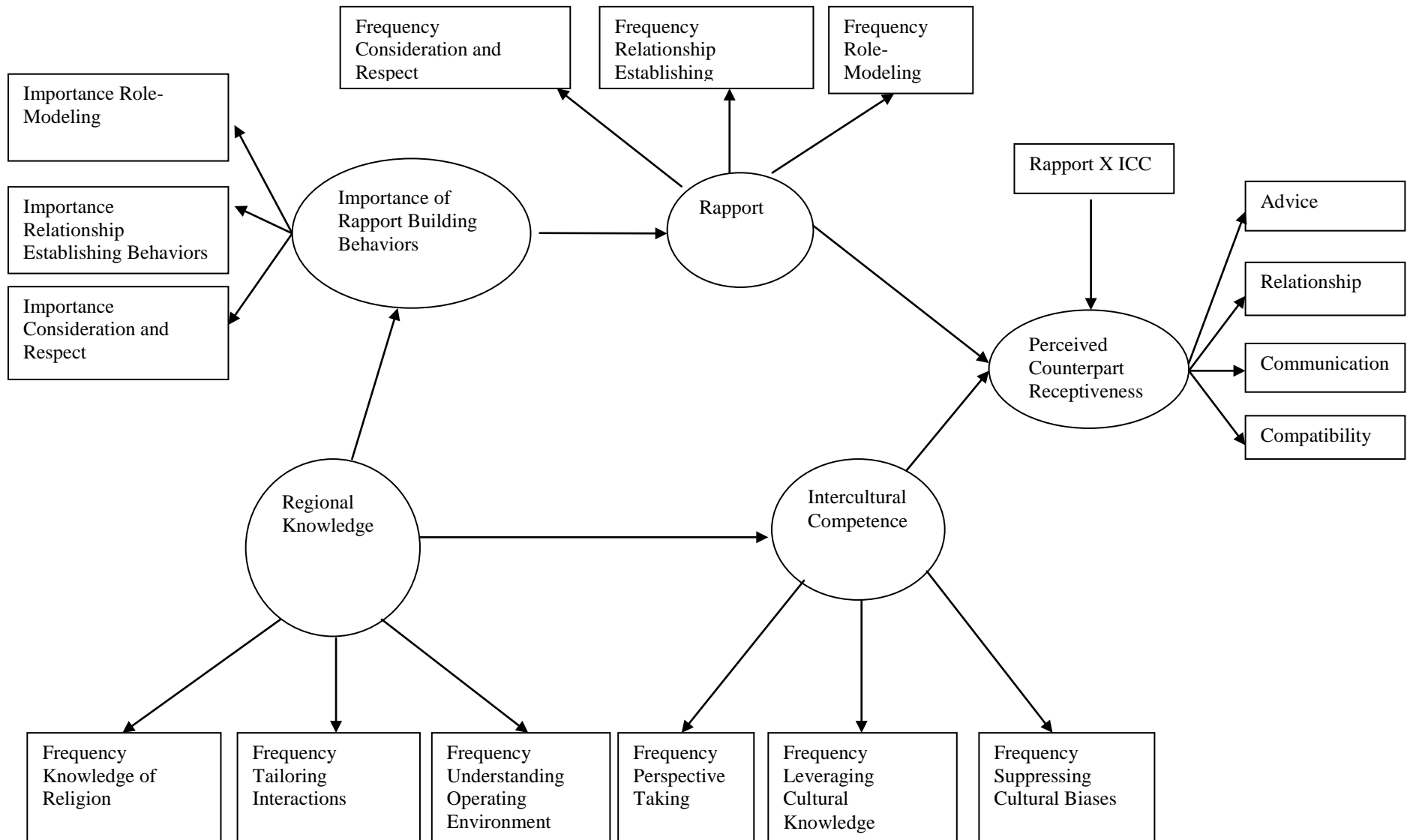
When two individuals share rapport they should be more receptive to each other. In a cross-cultural situation, receptiveness should be enhanced when the advisor has a greater ability to learn about and adapt to the culture of their host-national counterpart. As explained in the previous paragraphs, the ability to maximize intercultural competence comes from extended time

in the culture and with the people. This provides the opportunity to develop an expert-type schema of the host-culture and then learn how to use the knowledge to achieve objectives. Therefore, it is hypothesized that the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness will be moderated by Intercultural Competence.

Hypothesis 6: Intercultural Competence will moderate the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. Advisors who share rapport with their counterparts and have a greater understanding of the culture will have more receptive counterparts; whereas, an advisor with good rapport, but less intercultural competence will have a counterpart who is receptive, but less so. Conversely, less rapport will result in a less receptive counterpart, but having some intercultural competence will increase the receptiveness to a minimal extent.

Based on the literature and the hypotheses a theoretical model can be proposed for analysis. Figure 2 presents the hypothesized model and the relationships between the variables. As illustrated in Figure 2, Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors is predicted by Regional Knowledge (Hypothesis 3), which provides a foundation for Intercultural Competence (Hypothesis 4). Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors is hypothesized to predict Rapport (Hypothesis 2). Rapport (Hypothesis 1) and Intercultural Competence (Hypothesis 5) are predictive of Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness and the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness is moderated by Intercultural Competence (Hypothesis 6).

Figure 2. Proposed Model Including Interaction Term



CHAPTER 3 - Method

Participants and Procedure

Five-hundred-eighty-three advisors returning from deployment in Iraq (n = 317) and Afghanistan (n = 258) completed the post-deployment questionnaire. Respondents were from the Army and Marines. Researchers administered the questionnaire to the Army respondents at Fort Riley when they returned from deployment. Marine respondents completed the questionnaire at their home station and mailed the survey to the researchers.

Materials and Measures

The Cross-Cultural Behaviors Post-Deployment Questionnaire consisted of 151 questions that asked advisors to rate behaviors potentially relevant to the advisor mission. Advisors were asked to rate the behaviors on an importance scale and a frequency scale. The importance scale asked the advisors how important the behavior was to their performance as advisor. The frequency scale asked advisors how frequently they engaged in the behavior as an advisor. Both the frequency and importance scales ranged from 0 (Did not perform or None) to 5 (More than once a day or Extremely important). The constructs and measures used in the hypothesized model follow below and can be found in their entirety in Appendix A.

Regional Cultural Knowledge

Knowledge of Religion. Five items measured the frequency advisor's used religious knowledge in their counterpart's culture. A sample item is "Identify and manage potential divisions among religious groups."

Tailoring Interactions to Cultural Demographics. Five items asked advisors how frequently they adjusted their interactions with host nationals based on their demographic group.

A sample item is “Adjust the way you treated individuals from the other culture, depending on their gender.”

Understanding the Operating Environment. Twelve items asked how frequently advisors needed general understanding (i.e., social, military, religious, cultural) of the region deployed. A sample item is “Use knowledge about customs and traditions to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.”

Rapport and Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors

Consideration and Respect. Six items measured the frequency and importance of using respectful and considerate behaviors. A sample item is “Communicate to your counterpart that you respect him.”

Relationship Establishing Behaviors. Six items measured the importance and frequency of relationship establishing behaviors useful in a cross-cultural situation. A sample item is “Share your personal history or information with your counterpart.”

Role-Modeling. Six items examined the frequency and importance of role modeling behaviors. A sample items is “Demonstrate a strong work ethic.”

Intercultural Competence

Perspective Taking. Nine items addressed the frequency advisors take their counterpart’s perspective and understand the similarities and differences between the cultures. For example, advisors were asked if they “Predict how your counterpart will behave” and “Capitalize on what motivates your counterpart.”

Suppressing Cultural Biases. Five items measured the frequency in which advisors suppressed their cultural biases to become comfortable interacting with their counterparts. One

of the suppressing cultural biases items was “Become comfortable with eating the food of another culture.”

Leveraging Cultural Knowledge. Eight items measured the frequency in which advisors leverage their cultural knowledge while interacting with their counterparts. A sample item is “Take advantage of the concept of hospitality in your counterpart’s culture.”

Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness

Four items anchored on a seven point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree) measured how receptive the advisor’s counterpart was to the advisor’s advice or influence. As stated in the introduction, part of the advisor’s job is to influence and provide advice to their counterparts, and their counterpart’s acceptance of this advice can be used as an indication of the advisor’s ability to create a cooperative and effective relationship; as such, counterpart receptiveness can be used as one indication of advisor success or effectiveness. A sample item from this scale is “My Host Nation Counterpart accepted and acted on my advice.”

CHAPTER 4 - Results

Prior to conducting analyses, the data were screened for entry errors, patterns of missing data, multivariate outliers, skewness and kurtosis. Means and standard deviations are found in Table 1 and correlations with reliability coefficients are in Table 2. Analysis of the item descriptive statistics revealed no data entry errors. The data set was screened for nonrandom patterns of missing data without any being found. Since there are no clear guidelines for how best to handle missing data (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 1998) it was determined that cases with large amounts of missing data (more than 30%) should be removed from the dataset. Next, cases with more than 10% of missing data were screened for patterns of missing data indicating that the participant missed a page, quit taking the survey, or were missing multiple items within a scale and were deleted on a case-by-case judgment. As a result 64 participants were removed from the sample and for the remaining cases mean replacement was used to complete the dataset resulting in 519 advisors from Iraq ($n = 294$) and Afghanistan ($n = 225$) in the final sample.

With a complete dataset in place, the data were screened for outliers. Calculating Mahalanobis' distance for all variables of interest, 12 outliers were found ($D(13) \geq 34.53, p < .001$). Cook's distance was then calculated to determine the influence each outlier had on the data, with values greater than 1.00 considered to be outliers (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). The Cook's distance for each case was less than one indicating that the cases did not have a significant influence on the data and it was decided to leave them in the dataset. Finally, skewness and kurtosis were judged through examination of the histograms due to this being the preferred method with large sample sizes (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). While there were some indication of skew and kurtosis, Tabachnick and Fidel state these effects are minimal on larger samples ($n > 200$).

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Knowledge of Religion	2.45	1.36
2. Tailoring Interactions to Cultural Demographics	2.31	1.26
3. Understanding the Operating Environment	2.22	1.28
4. Consideration and Respect (frequency)	3.56	0.99
5. Consideration and Respect (importance)	3.98	0.94
6. Relationship Establishing Behaviors(frequency)	2.98	1.03
7. Relationship Establishing Behaviors (importance)	3.71	0.98
8. Role-Modeling (frequency)	3.64	1.03
9. Role-Modeling (importance)	4.09	0.96
10. Perspective Taking	2.98	1.09
11. Suppressing Cultural Biases	2.75	1.19
12. Leveraging Cultural Knowledge	1.98	1.18
13. My host nation counterpart accepted and acted on my advice.	4.94	1.46
14. My host nation counterpart had a good relationship with me.	5.79	1.30
15. My host nation counterpart communicated effectively with me.	5.21	1.45
16. My host nation counterpart was easy to get along with.	5.59	1.32

Table 2. Intercorrelations and Reliability Coefficients

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Role-Modeling (frequency)	.89															
2. Consideration and Respect (frequency)	.73**	.85														
3. Relationship Establishing Behaviors (frequency)	.77**	.75**	.81													
4. Consideration and Respect (importance)	.49**	.70**	.52**	.87												
5. Role-Modeling (importance)	.63**	.50**	.49**	.71**	.89											
6. Relationship Establishing Behaviors (importance)	.56**	.60**	.70**	.78**	.75**	.82										
7. Tailoring Interactions to Cultural Demographics	.39**	.45**	.50**	.32**	.28**	.31**	.83									
8. Understanding the Operating Environment	.46**	.50**	.55**	.32**	.28**	.36**	.47**	.96								
9. Knowledge of Religion	.42**	.50**	.50**	.32**	.24**	.32**	.49**	.69**	.90							
10. Suppressing Cultural Biases	.58**	.64**	.67**	.42**	.36**	.49**	.35**	.41**	.36**	.78						
11. Leveraging Cultural Knowledge	.41**	.46**	.55**	.32**	.24**	.35**	.59**	.57**	.59**	.46**	.87					
12. Perspective Taking	.72**	.73**	.76**	.50**	.48**	.55**	.56**	.62**	.59**	.66**	.68**	.90				
13. My host nation counterpart had a good relationship with me.	.34**	.33**	.35**	.34**	.33**	.40**	.09*	.14**	.11*	.24**	.08	.26**	-			
14. My host nation counterpart communicated effectively with me.	.32**	.32**	.35**	.32**	.31**	.39**	.14**	.15**	.14**	.26**	.13**	.28**	.68**	-		
15. My host nation counterpart was easy to get along with.	.28**	.29**	.28**	.32**	.29**	.32**	.11*	.16**	.13**	.21**	.09*	.23**	.62**	.60**	-	
16. My host nation counterpart accepted and acted on my advice.	.32**	.32**	.35**	.28**	.24**	.36**	.12**	.23**	.12**	.24**	.10*	.26**	.53**	.57**	.42**	-

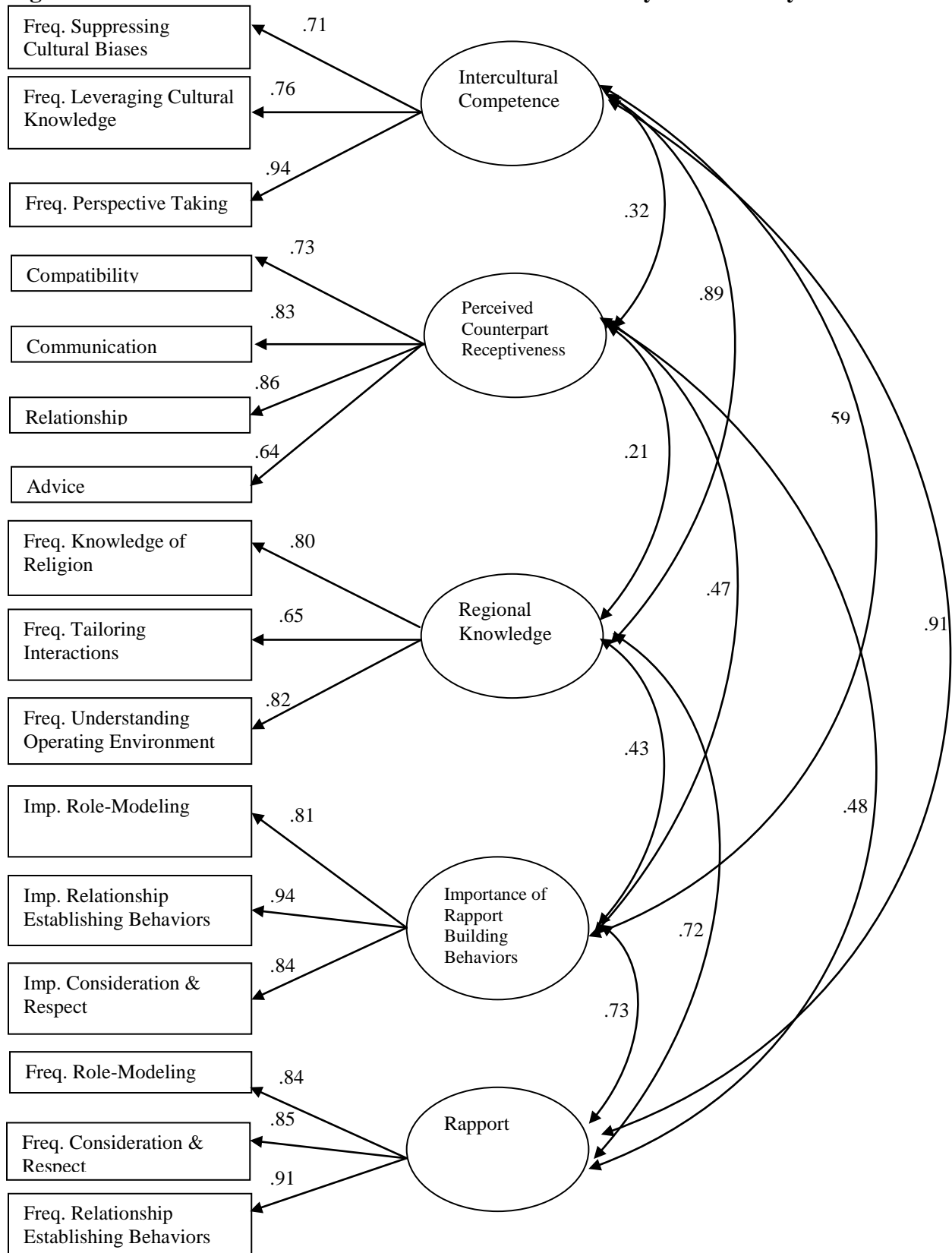
Note. Reliability coefficients are presented in boldface along the diagonal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Kline (1998) recommend that models be tested in a two step procedure. The first step analyzes a single measurement model in which all latent constructs and indentifies are examined simultaneously and is followed by making necessary adjustments until an acceptable model is found. Analyzing all latent constructs and their identifiers simultaneously allows for analysis of crossloadings and covariance terms, or what has been termed as factorial validity and discriminant validity. Second, the hypothesized structural model is tested and compared to different structural models until the best fit for the data is found. Following this procedure, the measurement model was tested using AMOS 16 (Arbuckle, 2005) using the advisors deployed to Iraq as the calibration sample.

A confirmatory factor analysis utilizing the calibration sample was run to test the factorial validity and discriminant validity of the constructs in the hypothesized model. Figure 3 shows the model and corresponding standardized estimates. The overall fit of the model, $\chi^2 (94) = 506.2, p < .001$, was poor (GFI = .84; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .11) indicating modifications may improve the fit of the model to the data. To determine where modifications could be made to improve the fit of the model the indicator and covariance estimates along with the modification indices were examined.

Figure 3. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Confirmatory Factor Analysis



*All factor loadings are significant at the .05 level.

First, to determine the factorial validity of the model the indicators were examined. The standardized loadings show that the model explains a good deal of the variance for each of the indicators. Only two indicators (Advice, $r^2 = .41$; Tailoring Interactions, $r^2 = .43$) had less than 50% of their variance explained in the model. In a separate analysis it was determined that all of the scales had adequate reliability (see Table 2) and no items needed to be dropped from further analyses. Since reliability of a single item cannot be established, particular attention was given to the four single-item indicators of Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness to ensure they had appropriate and significant relationships with their construct and did load onto another construct. Examination of the relationships between these variables, the amount of variance accounted for, and potential crossloadings led to the conclusion that these variables were adequately accounted for and did not require any changes. Next, the modification indices for all other variables were examined for potential crossloadings and no large crossloadings ($MI < 10$) were found. Therefore, it was concluded that potential problems of fit were not the result of inadequacies within the scales and there was support for the factorial validity of the constructs.

Next, the discriminate validity of the model was examined. Examination of the covariance terms between the latent constructs showed that there were discriminant validity problems. It was hypothesized there would be significant relationships between ICC, Rapport, and Regional Knowledge; however the substantial relationship between Rapport and ICC ($r = .91$) may indicate the two constructs are not unique and measure a single construct. While the significant relationship indicates they measure the same or a similar construct, theoretically they have been shown to be unique, both playing a significant role in the formation of relationships in cross-cultural settings, especially in the role of military advisors. Therefore, it is recognized that

this may be problematic and hinder finding the best possible solution for the data, but it was decided to leave both variables in the model as they were hypothesized.

The relationship between Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors and Rapport was also considered to be potentially problematic. It was explained in the introduction that a belief in the importance of building rapport with one's counterpart would lead to more rapport building behaviors on the part of the advisor. However, including two similar constructs only distinguished by wording and rating scale anchors may result in a strong relationship and delude the variance explained by other constructs. The moderate relationship ($r = .73$) would indicate that the variables are closely related, but they are unique. However, review of the modification indices revealed that many of the suggested paths be added between the indicators of these constructs. Thus, it was decided to test a model without the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors construct and indicators. This construct was removed from model instead of the Rapport construct to remain consistent with the measurement scale (i.e., frequency of behaviors) used to measure the other indicators.

The second measurement model (Figure 4) without the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors construct, $\chi^2 (59) = 227.7, p < .001$, provided a better fit (GFI = .90; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .10). The chi-square difference test indicated that this model did fit the data significantly better than the previous confirmatory factor analysis, $\Delta\chi^2 (35) = 278.5, p < .001$. Table 3 presents the comparative statistics between the measurement models. The indicator loadings and covariance terms remained the same and were considered to be acceptable as explained previously in the results of the first model. However, it is important to examine the modification indices for possible crossloadings. Based on the small crossloadings (MI < 10), improvement in fit, and adequate fit indices, it was decided that this measurement model was the

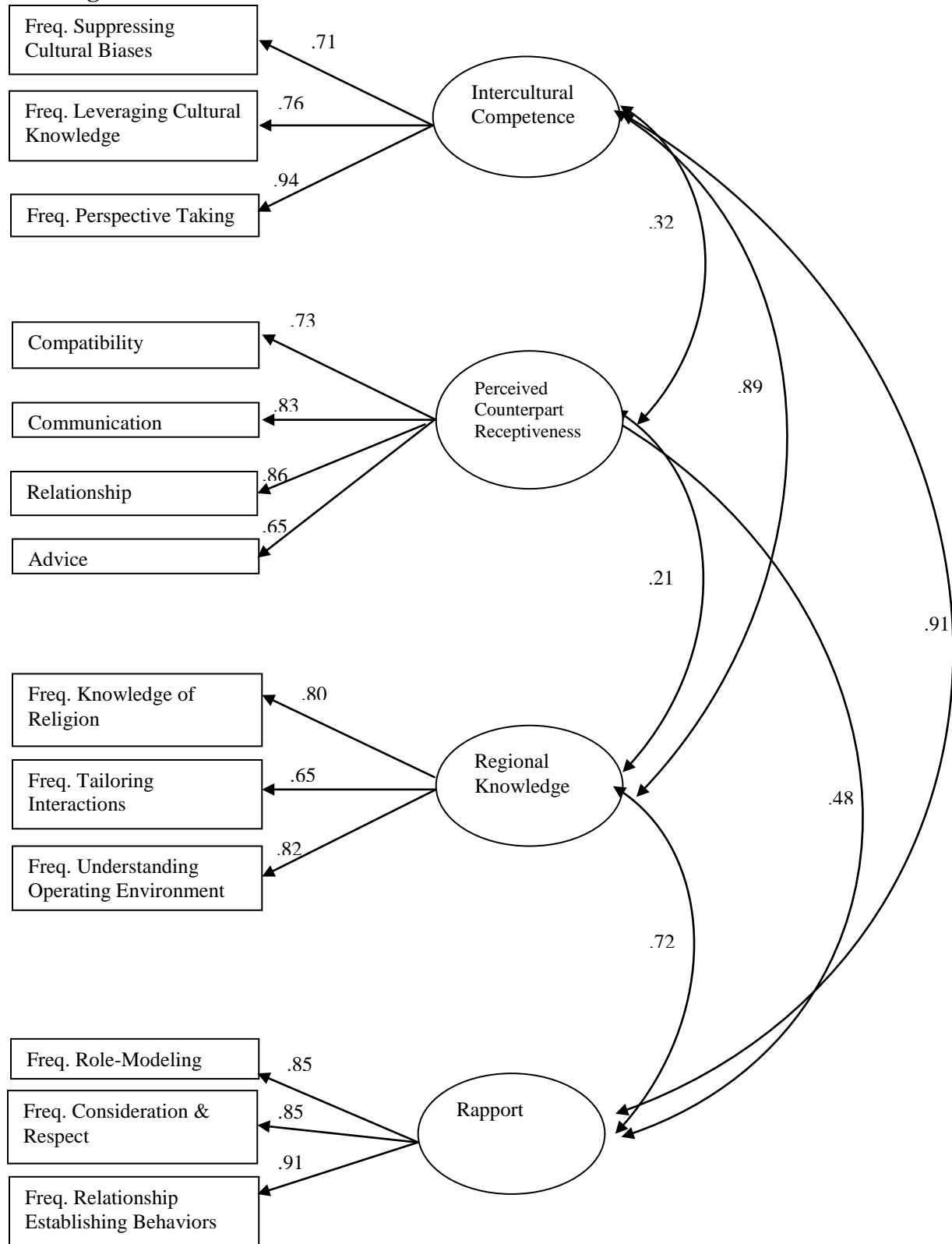
best possible fit for the data that also allowed for the stated hypotheses to be tested; thus, the hypothesized structural model was modified according to the results (Figure 5) of the factor analysis and then tested.

Table 3. Measurement Model Comparisons

<i>Model Description</i>	<i>Comparative Model</i>	X^2	df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	ΔX^2	Δdf	<i>Statistical Significance</i>
1. Confirmatory factor analysis (Figure 3)		506.2	94	.84	.88	.11	-	-	-
2. Factor analysis without Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors Construct (Figure 4)	Confirmatory factor analysis	227.7	59	.90	.93	.10	278.5	35	$p < .001$

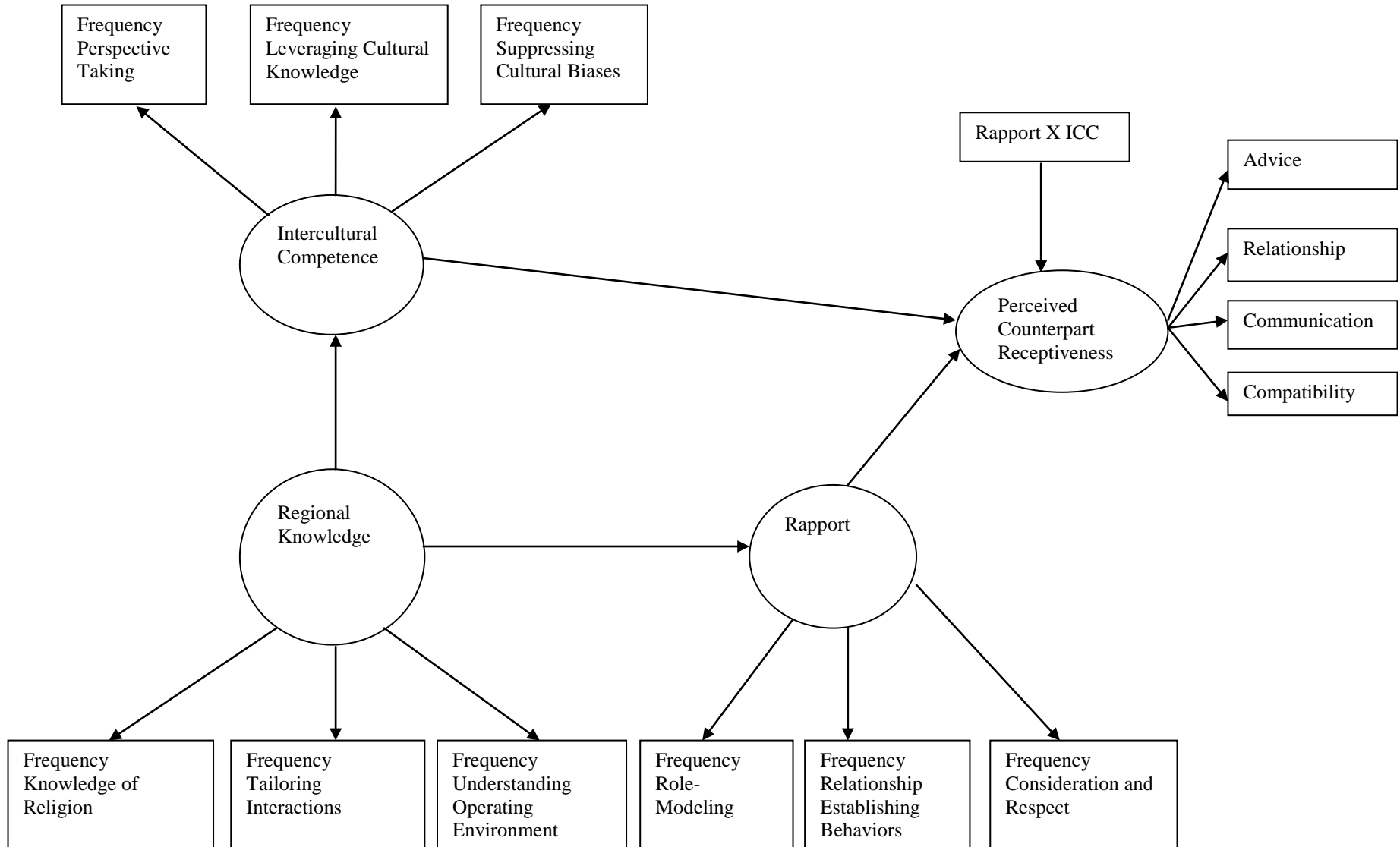
Figure 4. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Factor Analysis without Importance of Rapport

Building Behaviors



*All factor loadings are significant at the .05 level.

Figure 5. Respecified Structural Model



The respecified hypothesized model (Model A) for the Iraq deployment sample (Figure 6) was tested to determine the goodness of fit and to develop a better fitting model if the hypothesized model was found to be inadequate. Model A, $\chi^2 (73) = 333.4, p < .001$, was tested and determined to be a poor fit (GFI = .86, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .11). Evaluation of the standardized regression weights, as seen in Figure 6, revealed several problems. First, the relationships between Regional Knowledge and ICC ($r = 1.02$) and the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness ($r = 1.04$) are greater than 1. Also, the relationship between ICC and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness is in the wrong direction ($r = -.63$) according to previous research and as hypothesized in this paper. Based upon standardized estimates and the goodness-of-fit indices, it was determined that Model A is not the best fitting model for the data and changes were necessary.

The sixth hypothesis stated that Intercultural Competence would moderate the relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. To test this hypothesis an interaction term was created by computing scale scores (i.e., summing the item values and dividing the total by the number of items) for each indicator. The scale scores were then combined and divided by the total number of scales comprising the latent construct. These values were then centered and labeled as values for Rapport and Intercultural Competence. Finally, the centered values for Intercultural Competence and Rapport were multiplied creating a product term to be used as the interaction term for each case. This interaction term was then entered as observed variable predicting Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. The correlation between the moderation term and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness ($r = .02, p > .05$) was nonsignificant, indicating that Intercultural Competence does not moderate the relationship between Rapport and

Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness, and hypothesis six should be rejected. Therefore, the first change made Model A was the deletion of the moderator.

The moderating effect was not a significant predictor of Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness and it was decided to improve the fit of the model it would be beneficial to remove the moderation effect from subsequent analyses (Figure 7). Model B ($\chi^2 (61) = 269.7, p < .001$), was a better fit, $\Delta\chi^2 (12) = 63.7, p < .001$, than Model A. Table 4 shows the comparisons between the Model A and all subsequent models. While Model B was a better fit than Model A, examination of the goodness of fit indices (GFI = .87; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .11) indicated that the model is a poor fit to the data. Additionally, the problems in magnitude and directionality discussed in regard to Model A were still present in the Model B. Based upon these results it was determined another model needed to be tested that redefined the relationships between the latent constructs.

The overarching research question of this paper is that to truly form a deeper cultural understanding in a cross-cultural environment an advisor must first have a relationship with their counterpart to learn the nuances of the culture. Previous research (Abbey, et al., 2007; Chan, et al., 2004; Deardorff, 2006) and the Army (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006; Ryan, 2008) have speculated that the relationship between cultural knowledge and performance is mediated by the rapport an advisor shares with their counterpart. As such, the model was modified so that the relationship between ICC and Counterpart Receptivity was mediated by Rapport.

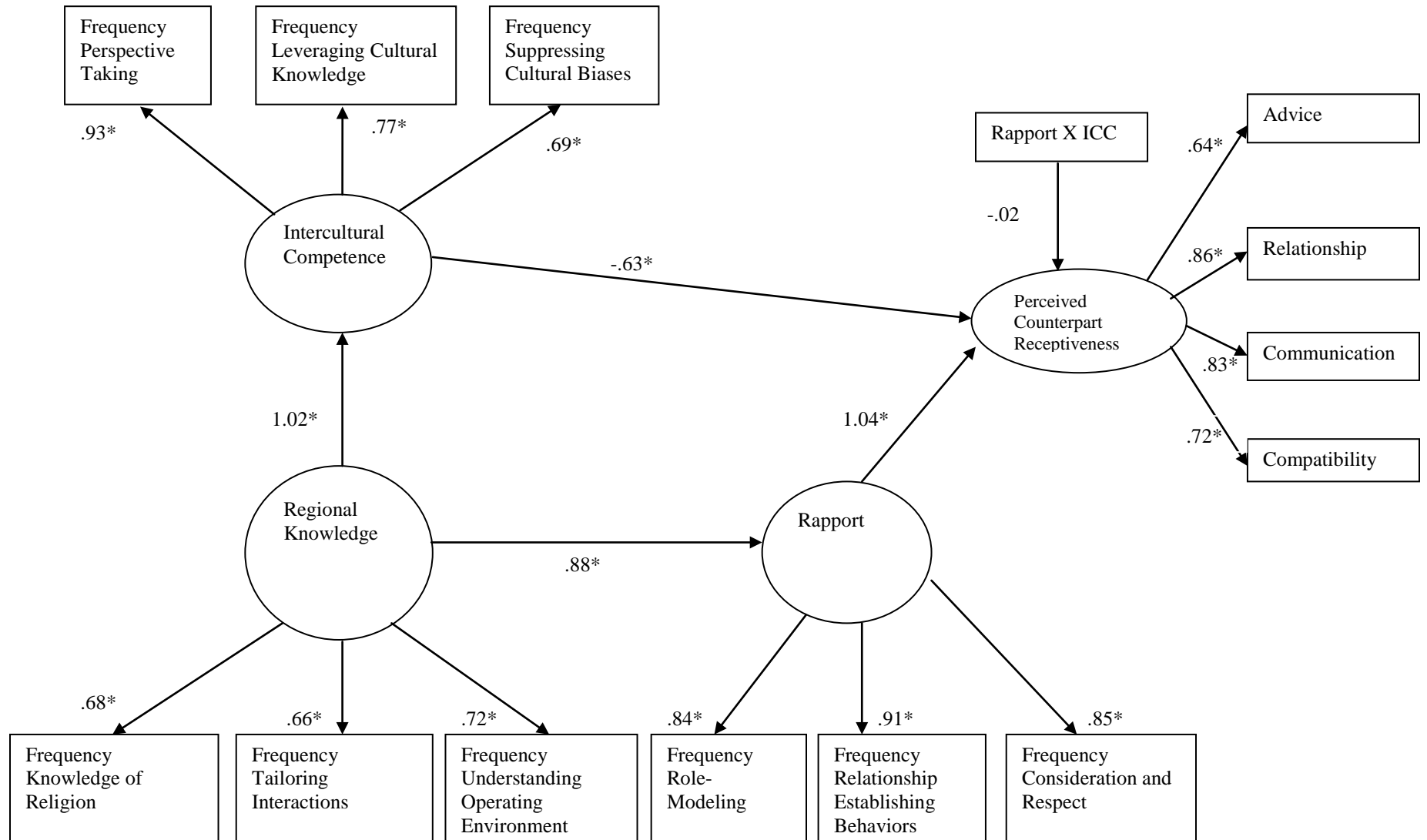
As seen in Figure 8, the new model (Model C) was tested by adding a path between ICC and Rapport and dropping the path between ICC and Counterpart Receptivity. Model C, $\chi^2 (61) = 241.4, p < .001$, was a better fit than the previous models (Table 4) as indicated by the lower chi-square and improvement in the goodness of fit statistics (GFI = .90; CFI = .93; RMSEA =

.10). However, the standardized estimates again were problematic. First, the relationship between Regional Knowledge and Rapport ($r = -.39$) was negative, contrary to previous research. Also, the added relationship between ICC and Rapport ($r = 1.05$) was greater than one indicating misfit in the model. Therefore, a model was tested where Regional Knowledge was predictive of ICC, but not Rapport. The path between Regional Knowledge and Rapport was trimmed for two reasons. First, the direction of the relationship was incorrect. Cultural knowledge has been shown to help a person's understanding of their counterpart and improve their relationship. Second, it is possible that all forms of cultural knowledge are related to effectiveness through rapport. In the case of regional cultural knowledge, the relationship between this form of cultural knowledge and rapport may run through ICC, where regional cultural knowledge may provide a foundation for a deeper cultural understanding, as indicated by the strong relationship between ICC and Regional Knowledge ($r = .88$), ultimately resulting in a better relationship.

Table 4. Structural Model Comparisons

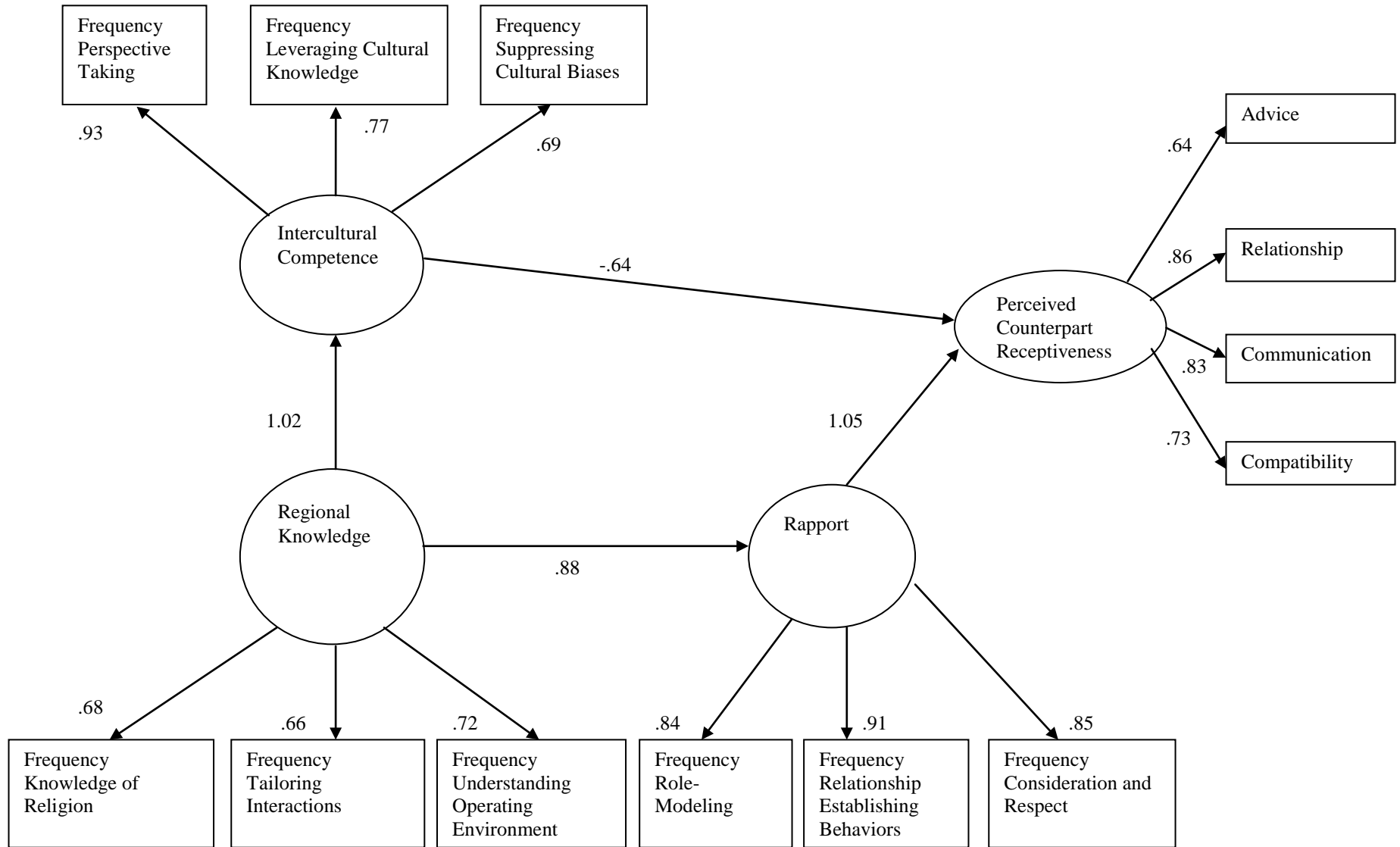
<i>Model Description</i>	<i>Comparative Model</i>	X^2	df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	ΔX^2	Δdf	<i>Statistical Significance</i>
1. Model A: Respecified structural model (Figure 6)		333.4	73	.86	.90	.11	-	-	-
2. Model B: Model without moderator (Figure 7)	Model A	269.7	61	.87	.92	.11	63.7	12	$p < .001$
3. Model C: Rapport as mediator (Figure 8)	Model B	241.4	61	.90	.93	.10	-	-	-
4. Model D: Final model (Figure 9)	Model C	249.2	62	.89	.93	.10	7.8	1	$p < .01$

Figure 6. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Respecified Structural Model



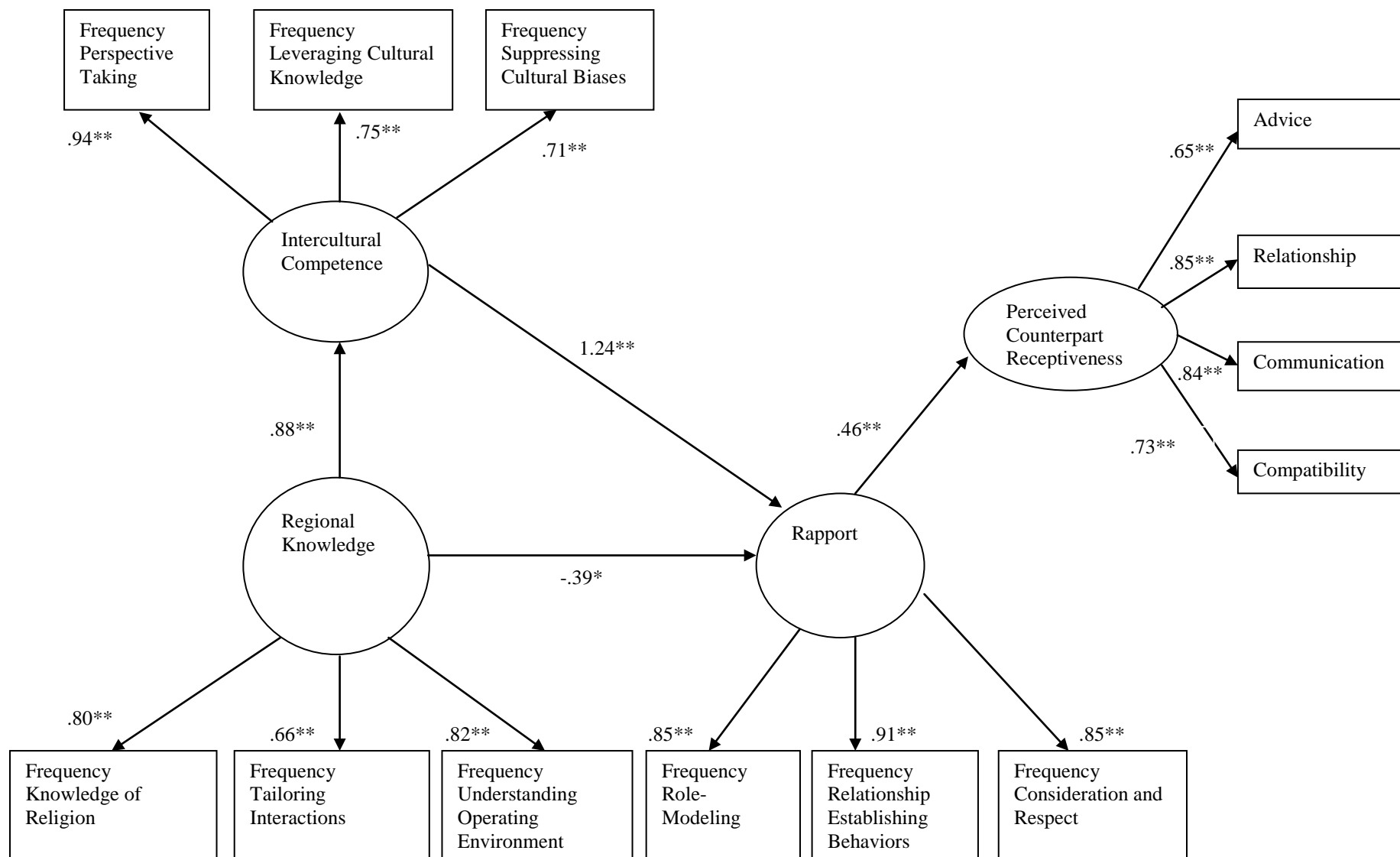
* $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Figure 7. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Respecified Structural Model without Moderator



* All factor loadings are significant at the .001 level.

Figure 8. Standardized Path Coefficients for Rapport as a Mediator between ICC and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness



* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .001$, two-tailed.

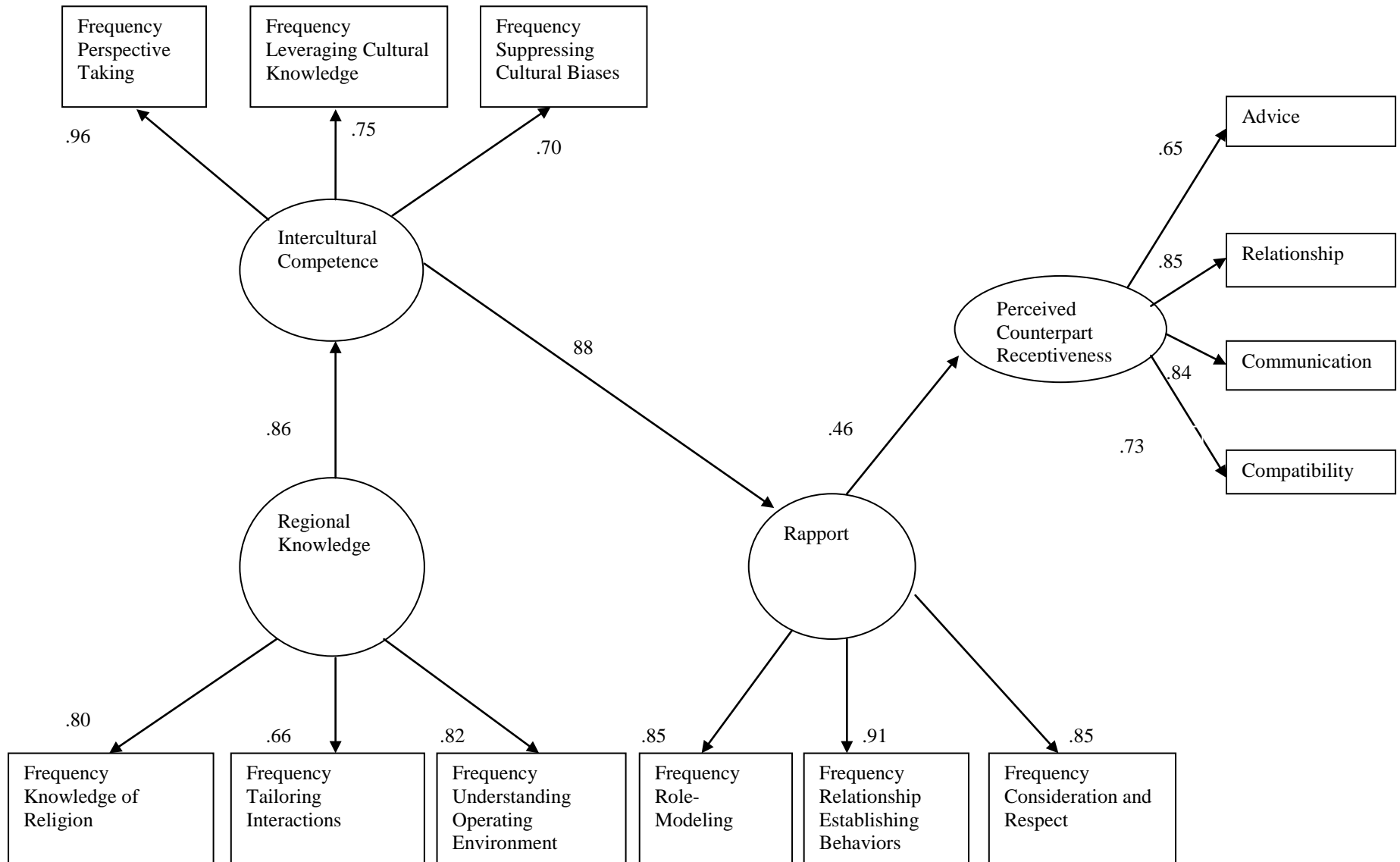
A model (Model D) where Regional Knowledge predicts Intercultural Competence which predicts Rapport leading to Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness (Figure 9) was tested. The chi-square, $\chi^2(62) = 249.2, p < .001$, for Model D was similar to that of Model C, however comparison of the chi-square difference, $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 7.8, p < .01$, indicated that Model C was a better fit than any of the other models. The GFI (.89), CFI (.93) and RMSEA (.10) all remained virtually the same. While the chi-square difference test indicates that Model D is a slightly worse fit to the data than the Model C, the fit statistics indicate the model is a decent fit. Additionally, the most significant change occurred in the relationships between the latent constructs. The paths of the Model D were all within expected values and are the appropriate direction. The relationship between Regional Knowledge and ICC ($r = .86$), ICC and Rapport ($r = .88$), and Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness ($r = .46$) were all significant at $p < .001$. Also, the predictors explain a significant portion of the variance associated with the latent construct. 74% of the variance of ICC is explained by its identifiers and relationships with the other variables. Similarly, 78% of the variance associated with Rapport is explained by its predictors. Finally, Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness had 22% of its variance explained by its identifiers and relationships with Rapport, Intercultural Competence, and Regional Knowledge.

In an attempt to fill a gap in the cross-cultural performance literature the purpose of this paper was to test the relationships between rapport, cultural knowledge, and effectiveness (i.e., counterpart receptiveness) simultaneously. In doing so a model has been developed that demonstrates how advisors can use cultural knowledge and rapport to compel their counterpart into action. With the rejection of the hypothesized model, the analyses became purely exploratory in nature. While this is an accepted practice in using structural equation modeling in testing and developing theory, it is important to show the validity of conclusions through

additional studies and/or cross-validation samples. To meet this standard, data from a second group of advisors in Afghanistan was identified to test the validity of the model. Iraqi and Afghan advisors perform similar jobs, in similar conditions, but in different locations and cultures. Similar results across samples would provide strong support for the model derived from the previous analyses.

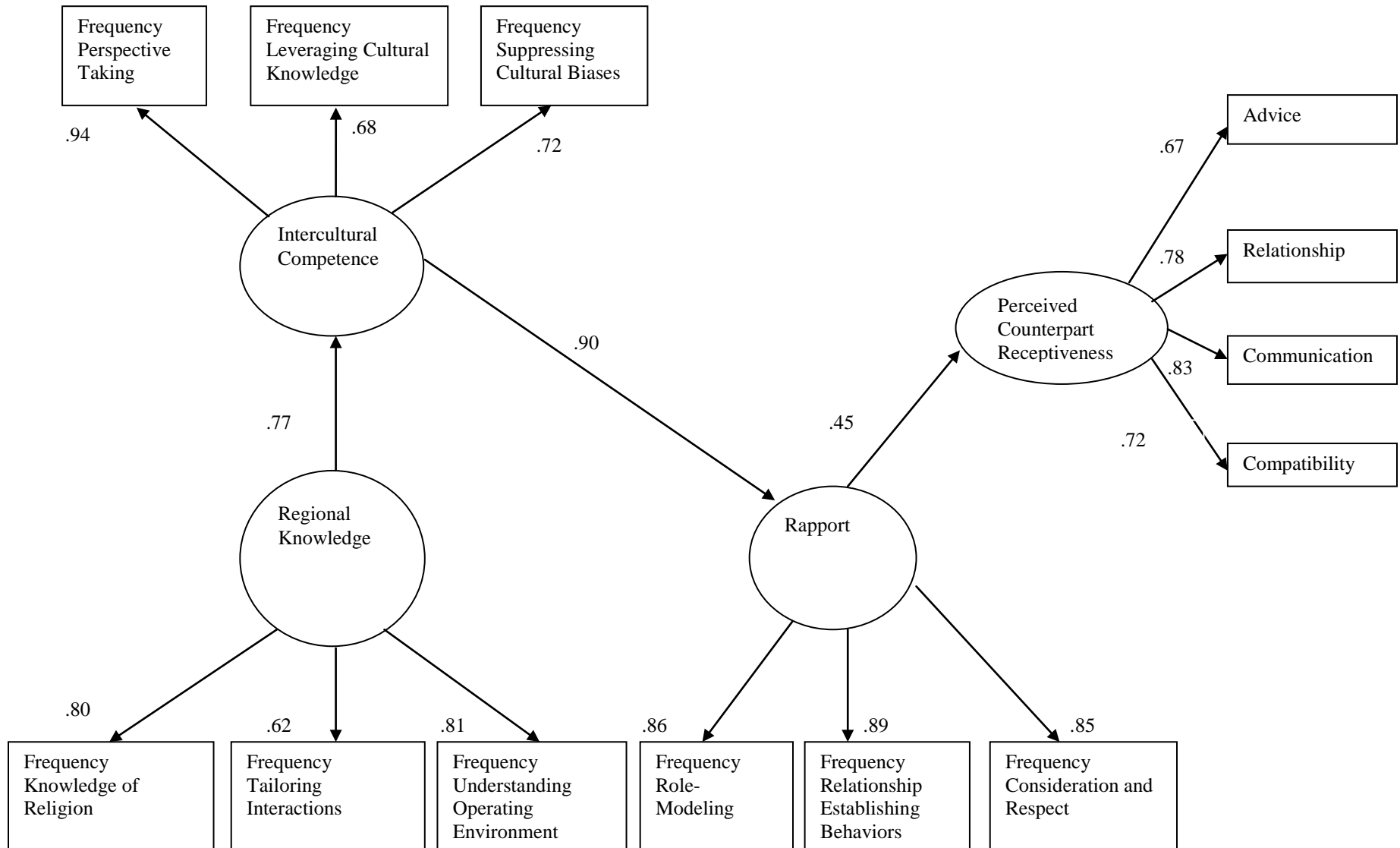
Testing a fully constrained model against the unconstrained model allowed for potential discrepancies between the samples to be identified and tested. First, the unconstrained model ($\chi^2(127) = 374.2, p < .001$) was analyzed to provide a baseline for comparison. Next, the structural paths were constrained to be equal across groups ($\chi^2(124) = 372.8, p < .001$). To determine if the model is equivalent across groups chi-square difference was calculated ($\Delta\chi^2(3) = 1.4, p > .05$). Based on the nonsignificant chi-square difference it can be concluded that structural model is equivalent across the samples and serves as strong support for the final model. Figure 10 presents the standardized estimates for the Afghan advisors.

Figure 9. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Final Model



* All factor loadings are significant at the .001 level.

Figure 10. Standardized Path Coefficients for the Afghan Sample



* All factor loadings are significant at the .001 level.

Based on the model specification process the hypotheses can be evaluated. Hypothesis one stated that Rapport would be predictive of Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness and Model D confirms this hypothesis. The relationship between Rapport and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness was significant, $r = .46, p < .001$. This indicates that as advisors partake in rapport building behaviors and establish a meaningful relationship with their counterpart, the counterpart becomes more receptive to the advisor.

Hypothesis two predicted that advisors who rated rapport-building behaviors as important would engage in more rapport-building behaviors. This relationship was never tested in the structural part of the analysis. Although, in testing the measurement models (Figure 3) the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors and rapport had a significant relationship ($r = .73$). Ultimately, due to the high relationship between the constructs and the relationships between the indicators the decision was made to drop the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors construct and this hypothesis could not be formally tested in the structural model.

The third hypothesis stated there would be a positive relationship between advisor ratings of Regional Knowledge and the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors. For the same reasons provided in the previous paragraph, this hypothesis was not tested in the structural model. However, examination of the original confirmatory factor analysis (Figure 3) found that advisors' ratings Regional Knowledge did relate ($r = .43$) to their ratings of the Importance of Rapport Building Behaviors. While this relationship was not tested in the structural model, it would suggest that advisors who are more willing to apply regional cultural knowledge may do so in an effort to build rapport because they perceive this as important to their job.

Hypothesis four predicted that the use of Regional Knowledge would be related to Intercultural Competence. This hypothesis was supported in the results of Model D for the Iraqi

sample ($r = .86, p < .001$) and Afghan sample ($r = .77, p < .001$). These results suggest that advisors who are more likely to use regional knowledge are also more likely to have and apply advanced types of cultural knowledge. Also, it has been suggested that regional cultural knowledge provides the foundation for intercultural competence by developing a basic understanding of where the advisors will be working and the people with whom they will be working.

Hypothesis five predicted Intercultural Competence would be positively related to Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. First, the measurement model (Figure 3) suggests that there is a significant correlation between the two variables, $r = .30, p < .001$. However, Model D suggests that there is not a direct relationship between ICC and Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness, rather that this relationship is mediated by Rapport with an indirect effect of .40 for both samples. This finding was contrary to the supposition of this paper that to truly form a deeper cultural understanding in a cross-cultural environment an advisor must first have a relationship with their counterpart to learn the nuances of the culture. While this finding does not support the hypothesis, it is supported by research (Abbey, et al., 2007; Chan, et al., 2004; Deardorff, 2006) and Army doctrine (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006) which state that cultural knowledge helps an advisor build a relationship, which subsequently helps the advisor be more effective in a foreign environment.

CHAPTER 5 - Discussion

The results of the analyses demonstrated that the hypothesized model was not supported, indicating that the overall hypothesis of the paper, that advisors must have a relationship with their host-national counterparts to truly develop greater cultural knowledge, should be rejected. Based upon the respecification process, the findings suggest that military advisors need both regional cultural knowledge as well as general cultural knowledge to form a relationship with host-national counterparts. This relationship is then the facilitator of receptivity and, potentially, effectiveness. Model D (Figure 9) and the aforementioned relationships were then cross-validated with a second sample from a distinct culture, Afghanistan, providing further support for the respecified model and the conclusion that rapport mediates the relationship between cultural knowledge and effectiveness.

According to Army doctrine (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006) and previous research (Abbey, et al., 2007; Chan, et al., 2004; Deardorff, 2006; Ryan, 2008; Tucker, 2008) cultural knowledge helps advisors build relationships, which they then utilize to accomplish objectives. This alternative hypothesis is supported by the fit of the data to the final model and further supported by the cross-validation sample. According to Army doctrine, advisors use regional cultural knowledge to adjust to their new environment, and as source of information as to why host-nationals behave and think in their own way. Intercultural competence then allows advisors to form a deeper understanding of their counterparts and their culture, and then utilize this knowledge to build relationships. The advisor can then use the relationship and cultural knowledge to build receptivity with their counterpart, and then use this relationship to achieve objectives.

This model has important theoretical implications in that this is the first attempt, to the knowledge of the author, to provide a simultaneous description of how cultural knowledge, rapport, and counterpart receptiveness (i.e., effectiveness) are related. Using the results illustrated in Figures 9 and 10, Regional Knowledge provides a basis for Intercultural Competence ($r = .86$ and $r = .77$, respectively). As hypothesized, regional cultural knowledge provides advisors with basic descriptions of the people, area, culture, and government they are entering and how it should impact their behaviors. Advisors who utilized this descriptive information were more likely to engage in behaviors demonstrating intercultural competence. This relationship can be interpreted as an indication that advisors who recognize the value of behaving in a manner appropriate to the local culture also attempt to engage in deeper cultural understanding and utilize this knowledge as function of their job, specifically relationship building.

Model D shows that Intercultural Competence predicts an advisor's propensity to build Rapport ($r = .88$ and $r = .90$). Advisors in Iraq and Afghanistan appear to use cultural knowledge to build relationships with their host-national counterparts. This relationship is in agreement with Army (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006) documents, which claim that building rapport is one of the most important aspects of being an advisor. Building rapport should increase a counterpart's willingness to listen, learn, take advice, and follow their advisor. Greater cultural knowledge of both varieties should allow advisors to make more informed and appropriate decisions for the culture in which they are immersed. More frequent and appropriate uses of cultural knowledge should decrease social miscues and increase goal alignment, understanding, cooperation, and performance.

Contrary to the fifth hypothesis, Intercultural Competence did not directly predict Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. Intercultural Competence was hypothesized to predict Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness because greater cultural understanding should lead to greater understanding and cooperation. However, this relationship did not fit in the model and instead was found to be mediated by rapport. Therefore, it appears that while regional cultural knowledge and intercultural competence are both important in military-advisor settings, neither has a direct impact on counterpart receptiveness. The lack of a relationship may be due to the outcome variable of interest, Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness. Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness may be a variable that is closely linked to both effectiveness and interpersonal relationships, quite possibly as a mediator. It is possible that Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness mediates the relationship between rapport and performance, bridging the gap between cooperation and action. If so, Intercultural Competence may not directly relate to Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness because the variable does not measure effectiveness or the relationship, but rather the previously described mediated connection.

In sum, the results of the research suggest that rapport, intercultural competence, and more generally relationship building, are interrelated and important predictors of effectiveness in a cross-cultural setting. Additionally, intercultural competence and rapport are believed to uniquely contribute to cross-cultural effectiveness. However, in an applied setting the extent to which these variables are distinct from one another is less clear. The results of this research suggest that intercultural competence and rapport are highly related, if not measures of the same construct. If these findings are further supported in additional research efforts conducted in applied settings with different samples, this may suggest that intercultural competence and rapport building are a single construct. Similar results may also suggest that cross-cultural

interactions are not as distinct from intercultural interactions as previously hypothesized. Both of these possibilities warrant further study to increase the understanding of how relationship building occurs in applied, cross-cultural settings and how this process affects cross-cultural effectiveness.

As envisioned by the Army, the results of the study indicate that advisors who use cultural knowledge to build a relationship with their counterparts have counterparts who are more receptive, supporting the second hypothesis. Advisors who report engaging in more rapport-building behaviors also reported having more receptive counterparts. Overall, this means that advisors who engage in more culturally attentive and appropriate behaviors will also work to build better relationships, and as a result, should have more receptive counterparts, possibly increasing performance.

Practical Implications

The results of the study have practical implications for organizations operating internationally. The Army and other organizations alike, the research indicates that there should be a focus on both regional and general cultural training for employees who will work internationally. Cultural training provides expatriates pre-departure expectations, helping them adjust to their new surroundings, and perform better (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Expatriates, like military advisors, have to form relationships within the culture in which they are working, and to do this they have to be able to exhibit cultural understanding and avoid social faux pas (Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999). Regional knowledge provides a general description of the culture the expatriate will be entering. This may include basic information about climate, politics, religion, gender roles, and dos and don'ts. These basic descriptions help the expatriate learn what to expect in their interactions and in the culture. However, training also needs to focus on more

general intercultural competencies such as perspective taking, utilizing cultural knowledge, and understanding and suppressing biases. These competencies allow for a higher level understanding of culture, how it affects behavior, and provides guidance to expatriates on changes they may need to make to be effective. Also, employees who show a greater predisposition for these elements of cultural competency could be selected for international assignments and then provided supplemental training. Combining selection and training may allow organizations to fill international assignments with the best possible candidates, at a lower cost to the organization.

Limitations and Future Research

The study is not without limitations. First, Intercultural Competence and Rapport ($r = .91$) shared a considerable amount of variance. Such a substantial correlation indicates that the two constructs are similar in what they measure. This is problematic, and as such the results of the study must be interpreted with caution. The two constructs are theoretically considered unique and relevant to successful cross-cultural interactions for military-advisors (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006); however, the constructs as conceptualized here do not support this claim. Future research should examine if these constructs are unique in predicating success in cross-cultural situations, possibly by using different operationalizations of the constructs.

Additionally, more research should examine the relationships among the more general forms of cultural knowledge and relationship building. It is possible that general forms of cultural understanding are closely related to relationship building because they are methods used to form relationships independent of culture. For example, perspective taking is a useful method in conflict management, leadership, and relationship building because it teaches people that there are more views to the world than their own, which fosters cooperation and understanding. While

the intercultural competence measures may be useful for increasing success in intercultural relationship building, they may also be successful in intracultural relationship building, explaining the strong overlap between ICC and Rapport Building. Future research should examine the unique contributions of relationship building and intercultural competence in both intercultural and intracultural situations.

A final limitation of the study is the lack of objective measures of performance and counterpart measures. Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness was used as a measure of advisor success because advisors who have more receptive counterparts should be able to get their counterparts to cooperate with their own objectives and be willing to learn from the advisor. However, this is not an objective measure of performance. The Army recognizes the difficulty of measuring advisor success. Accordingly, the Army states the first objective and step towards success for an advisor is the ability to establish a relationship with their counterpart (FM 3-07, 2009; FM 3-24, 2006). The results of the study show that for the advisors to have a better chance of gaining their counterpart's cooperation, they have to establish a relationship first. However, only the advisor's perspective was measured for the study. Advisors may have reported that their counterparts were receptive to reinforce their own feelings of accomplishment, as can be seen with the high ratings in Table 1 for these items. Advisors may report receptiveness despite a reality in which counterparts were uncooperative, or alternatively, behaving politely by listening to their advisor but not following through with action. While there is research that shows peer- and self-ratings of effectiveness for advisors are similar (Kealey, 1989), not having the counterpart's perspective only allows for half of the relationship to be analyzed and interpreted. Future research should attempt to measure the perspective of both individuals in the dyad.

The hypothesized model and results present multiple avenues for future research. The relationships among the constructs of rapport, the various types of cultural knowledge, and performance may be dynamic in nature and very well could vary between more distinct cultures. Further research in other cultures may find that relationship building and cultural knowledge are differently related and may necessitate changes to the model in those situations. The possibility for more appropriate models or different measures of the constructs warrant further research; however, the results of this study suggest that different forms of cultural knowledge impact relationship building in cross-cultural settings and these results are culturally generalizable.

CHAPTER 6 - References

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Appendix A - Cross-Cultural Behaviors Post-Deployment Questionnaire

Knowledge of Religion

1. Understand how religion impacts the current operating environment.
2. Understand the implications of religion for military operations.
3. Understand the general theology of different religions found in your operating area.
4. Understand the history of different religions found in your operating area.
5. Identify and manage potential divisions among religious groups.

Tailoring Interactions to Cultural Demographics

1. Adjust the way you treated individuals from the other culture, depending on their age.
2. Adjust the way you treated individuals from the other culture, depending on their rank.
3. Adjust the way you treated individuals from the other culture, depending on their social status.
4. Adjust the way you treated individuals from the other culture, depending on their gender.
5. Adjust the way you treat an individual from the other culture, depending on his/her tribal affiliation.

Understanding the Operating Environment

1. Use knowledge about social influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.

2. Use knowledge about religious influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
3. Use knowledge about military influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
4. Use knowledge about customs and traditions to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
5. Use knowledge about tribal influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
6. Use knowledge about professional influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
7. Use knowledge about criminal influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
8. Use knowledge about historical influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
9. Use knowledge about geography to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
10. Use knowledge about educational influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
11. Use knowledge about economic influences to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.
12. Use knowledge about demographic influences (e.g., age, sex) to understand the behavior of an individual from the relevant culture.

Consideration and Respect

1. Actively listen to individuals from another culture.
2. Be tactful toward individuals from another culture.
3. Demonstrate tolerance toward individuals from another culture.
4. Communicate to your counterpart that you respect him.
5. Behave respectfully within the constraints of the relevant culture.
6. Express compassion toward individuals of a different culture.

Relationship Establishing Behaviors

1. Ask about your counterpart's family.
2. Share your personal history or information with your counterpart.
3. Build a close relationship with your counterpart.
4. Gain the trust of individuals from the relevant culture.
5. Spend "unstructured time" with your counterpart.
6. Be supportive of a counterpart's decisions and activities.

Role-Modeling

1. Demonstrate a positive attitude.
2. Exhibit a strong work ethic.
3. Serve as a role model for your counterpart.
4. Demonstrate enthusiasm of the transition team work to your counterpart.
5. Establish your credibility with your counterpart.
6. Demonstrate to your counterpart that the transition team provides something of value.

Perspective Taking

1. Capitalize on the similarities between your beliefs, values, and goals and those of your counterpart.
2. Recognize differences between US military culture and your counterpart's military culture.
3. Recognize differences between Western culture and your counterpart's culture.
4. Capitalize on your counterpart's perspective or point of view.
5. Capitalize on your counterpart's belief system.
6. Predict how your counterpart will behave.
7. Recognize how your counterpart's understanding of time impacts his behavior and decisions.
8. Understand the background of your counterpart.
9. Capitalize on what motivates your counterpart.

Suppressing Cultural Biases

1. Become comfortable with non-Western cultural norms.
2. Become comfortable with same-sex activities (e.g., male-male hand holding, kissing during greetings).
3. Become comfortable with eating the food of another culture.
4. Prevent personal feelings toward your counterpart from interfering with the transition team mission.
5. Limit how your cultural bias affects your perceptions of your counterpart's behavior.

Leveraging Cultural Knowledge

1. Take advantage of the role of power and authority in the relevant culture.

2. Take advantage of the social hierarchy of the relevant culture.
3. Take advantage of the host nation's military culture.
4. Take advantage of the concept of honor in your counterpart's culture.
5. Take advantage of the role of reconciliation in your counterpart's culture.
6. Capitalize on the concept of "revenge" in your counterpart's culture.
7. Take advantage of the concept of hospitality in your counterpart's culture.
8. Take advantage of how historical events relate to the current operating environment.

Perceived Counterpart Receptiveness

1. My host nation counterpart accepted and acted on my advice.
2. My host nation counterpart had a good relationship with me.
3. My host nation counterpart communicated effectively with me.
4. My host nation counterpart was easy to get along with.