J. Fischer and J.L. Wildman

1). Beyond general intelligence elligence (CQ) on cross-border *al Issues*, 67(4), 825–840.

its relationship to workplace & *Organization Development*

motional intelligence: Factorial *al Journal of Cross Cultural*

L. V., & Richard, C. (2003). n emotional intelligence and *nal Analysis*, 11(3), 171–191. r: A cross cultural evaluation. .1016/S0191-8869(00)00047-7. ntegrative view of international 100.

: *Living and working globally*.

: A meta-analytic investigation *ional Behavior*, 65(1), 71–95.

intelligence: Sine qua non if *ives*, 25(1), 45.

Chapter 3
Considerations and Best Practices for Developing Cultural Competency Models in Applied Work Domains

Winston R. Sieck, Louise J. Rasmussen and Jasmine L. Duran

John has been preparing for his upcoming assignment in Thailand for months. He has a good grasp of the Thai language, customs, people, and political landscape. Ready as he's going to be. Then he get the news. The bottom falls out of his stomach. Leadership has changed direction. John is suddenly assigned to an office in Ouadda. "Where precisely is that again?"

How can we help professionals like John be less worried when their international assignments change? Or, when they inevitably end up working in places and with people they never expected? The first step is to identify the culture-general competencies that allow professionals to go anywhere in the world at a moment's notice and work effectively with members of diverse populations.

A large number and variety of abilities relevant to competence of this sort have been identified over the years. For example, in a review of intercultural competence models, Spitzberg and Chagnon (2009) identified approximately 300 potential constructs that might be included in models of general competence. These items, which Spitzberg extracted from the broad literature related to intercultural competence, range from characteristics such as openness and creativity, to cross-cultural difference dimensions such as power distance, and to admonitions such as "be friendly." The constructs vary a great deal in their degree of specificity. They include a mixture of personality traits and malleable knowledge and skills. Culture-specific concepts (e.g. "face") are listed alongside culture-general skills and processes. A possible reason for this diversity is that the items are drawn from models developed with very different problems in mind, such as people with different backgrounds getting along with one another in general, students having

W.R. Sieck (✉) · L.J. Rasmussen · J.L. Duran
Global Cognition, 1771 Southview Dr, Yellow Springs, OH 45387, USA
e-mail: sieck@globalcognition.org

L.J. Rasmussen
e-mail: louise@globalcognition.org

J.L. Duran
e-mail: duran@globalcognition.org

positive overseas enrichment experiences, and professionals needing to perform effectively in jobs that involve intercultural interactions.

The Spitzberg and Chagnon (2009) review was an important theoretical exercise. It gives a clear sense of a wide array of researcher's insights and results. Yet, how can we move from this wealth of big ideas to a competence model that supports professionals who have to work in a variety of cultures?

These lists distilled from the literature may loosely inform hypotheses about competencies that could be important to professionals working in different job sectors. However, although there is a temptation to stick closely to past literature, doing so is problematic for this purpose. Direct culling of ideas from the wider literature is unlikely to fare well for several reasons.

One problem with such an approach is that, in attempting to provide "foundational" solutions, academic studies often tend to ignore job context or demands. Another caveat is that the language used to define competencies includes academic jargon. This means that even if the competencies are useful, they are not presented in a format that professionals can readily comprehend and incorporate in their routines. A last limitation of direct translation from the literature is that research is rarely conducted with an eye towards practical implementation. For example, it would not be clear how to incorporate many of the concepts reviewed by Spitzberg and Chagnon in professional development programs.

An alternative to culling competencies directly from the literature is to undertake a field study of accomplished professionals who have experience working in a wide variety of cultures. Examining the competencies these professionals use in practice allows the researcher to identify and refine cultural knowledge and skills to include in an actionable model of culture-general competence for the associated work domain. We use the term "culture-general," to refer to the skills and knowledge that allow adaptation and interaction in any culture (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). This sense of the term culture-general broadens Cushner and Brislin's use of the term to describe cultural training that covers recurring themes of cultural difference (Cushner and Brislin 1996).

A premise of the field-study approach is that a model of culture-general competence for professionals ought to be grounded in study of what personnel actually do when they apply cultural skills and knowledge on the job. And in order to guide future practice, a model of culture-general competence should reflect current best practices. These principles are not arbitrary, but rather stem from the broader literature on competency model development.

A fundamental principle underlying the development and use of competency models as human resource management tools is that competency models describe behaviors that are associated with desired job performance. The ability of a competency model to successfully guide practice hinges on the faithfulness with which it describes actual behaviors that job holders can meaningfully engage to meet or exceed their organization's objectives. From this view, the goal of analysis aimed at developing competency models is to identify a realistic set of norms for behavior based on what superior performers do rather than to promote a romanticized vision

fashioned from what s
(McClelland 1973).

An established meth
involves interviewing c
handled challenging inc
Spencer and Spencer 1
people who are succes
enables researchers to
influence behavior and
possible to formulate c
rience instead of relyin
may or may not be eff

There are two prima
that is based on an ana
First, it ensures that the
sense within the job dor
practice that can feasibl
makes it a useful found
to train and educate
instruction demonstrati
context of the job. This
relevance of the compet
of adoption.

Second, basing a cor
makes it possible to ex
opposed to in the langu
ways the competency n
are already engaging in
they are doing the righ
continue to engage in th
can help experienced p
provides an accessible
Finally, a competency
language of job holders
their staff who are doin

In the remainder of t
practical competency m
successful on a last min
establish the specific pur
support training and edu
be specified for the in
Finally, suitable proced
the researchers to extra
context. We discuss eac

rofessionals needing to perform
ctions.
an important theoretical exercise.
's insights and results. Yet, how
competence model that supports
ultures?
osely inform hypotheses about
sionals working in different job
to stick closely to past literature,
culling of ideas from the wider
ns.
attempting to provide "founda-
ignore job context or demands.
competencies includes academic
are useful, they are not presented
rehend and incorporate in their
n the literature is that research is
implementation. For example, it
concepts reviewed by Spitzberg
ms.
from the literature is to undertake
ive experience working in a wide
ese professionals use in practice
l knowledge and skills to include
etence for the associated work
r to the skills and knowledge that
asmussen and Sieck 2015). This
r and Brislin's use of the term to
themes of cultural difference

a model of culture-general com-
study of what personnel actually
on the job. And in order to guide
tence should reflect current best
rather stem from the broader lit-

lopment and use of competency
hat competency models describe
formance. The ability of a com-
es on the faithfulness with which
meaningfully engage to meet or
iew, the goal of analysis aimed at
alistic set of norms for behavior
to promote a romanticized vision

fashioned from what someone thinks they should be doing in an idealized setting (McClelland 1973).

An established method for developing competency models in any work domain involves interviewing current skilled and experienced job holders about how they handled challenging incidents they encountered on their jobs (Campion et al. 2011; Spencer and Spencer 1993). Collecting and analyzing the thoughts and actions of people who are successful in their jobs as they cope with challenging situations enables researchers to more objectively examine the tacit characteristics that influence behavior and that result in excellent performance. This approach makes it possible to formulate competency requirements from an examination of job experience instead of relying on idealized attributes, characteristics, or activities that may or may not be effective.

There are two primary benefits for an organization to using a competency model that is based on an analysis of current best practices of experienced job holders. First, it ensures that the model identifies specific behaviors and strategies that make sense within the job domain. This enables the organization to provide guidelines for practice that can feasibly be carried out within the constraints of the job. This also makes it a useful foundation for developing or identifying content that can be used to train and educate novice personnel. It makes it easier to incorporate into instruction demonstrations of the ways competencies are practiced within the context of the job. This, in turn, ensures that instruction clearly communicates the relevance of the competencies to job objectives which in turn increases the chances of adoption.

Second, basing a competency model on analysis of what job holders already do makes it possible to express competencies in the language of the job holder, as opposed to in the language of the researcher. This has several implications for the ways the competency model can be used. For one, this means that personnel who are already engaging in desirable and productive behaviors will be able to recognize they are doing the right things. This in turn will serve as motivation for them to continue to engage in these behaviors. It can also serve as an external reference that can help experienced professionals influence others to engage in them too, as it provides an accessible vocabulary for communicating expectations for behavior. Finally, a competency model that is grounded in practice and expressed in the language of job holders makes it easier for supervisors to determine members of their staff who are doing well, and ones who need training or refreshers.

In the remainder of this chapter, we prescribe a general approach for developing practical competency models that describe the skills and knowledge needed to be successful on a last minute assignment to, for instance, Ouadda. A first step is to establish the specific purpose of the model. We focus here on developing a model to support training and education of culture-general competence. Next, criteria need to be specified for the inclusion of Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) in the study. Finally, suitable procedures for data collection and analysis are needed that allow the researchers to extract applications of cultural skills and knowledge in the job context. We discuss each of these activities in turn.

The Purpose of the Model Is to Set Standards for Training Culture-General Competence

There are many interesting questions cultural researchers might ask related to competence, such as, "What is necessary for people from different cultural backgrounds to get along with each other?" and how can we, "define intercultural competence from a variety of cultural perspectives." (Deardorff 2009, p. 264).

When developing a competence model in service of working professionals, the purpose needs to be more clearly focused on aiding them. In the case of our efforts to support professionals in the military, the purpose of the model is to set standards for training that supports the ability of personnel to interact effectively with members of foreign populations no matter where they might be assigned. The purpose of the model is not to provide guidance for working in specific cultures. Although culture-specific information is not included, competencies in the model foster the ongoing development of regional knowledge to further enhance comprehensive cultural competence across a person's career.

Two crucial aspects of the model are thus the focus on culture-general competence, in contrast to region-specific knowledge, and on training and education, as opposed to personnel selection for instance.

Not all definitions related to intercultural competence sharply discriminate the concept of culture-general competence, as complementary to regional expertise. For example, Spitzberg defines intercultural competence as, "the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioral orientations to the world." (Spitzberg and Chagnon 2009). Cultural intelligence presents another interesting example. Although the concept itself appears to promise culture-general, standard definitions are not completely obvious in this regard: "... an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings, CQ is a multidimensional construct targeted at situations involving cross-cultural interactions arising from differences in race, ethnicity and nationality." (Ang et al. 2007, p. 336). In both of these definitions, the culture-general and culture-specific aspects of the proposed ability are ambiguous. Either would seem to include enhanced functioning with members of particular cultural groups due to increased knowledge of the ways of those groups.

On the other hand, a few descriptions that hone in on aspects of culture-general competence include:

> The skill that allows individuals to learn about new and different cultures, to analyze the cultural underpinnings of context, and to understand intentions and behaviors from different cultural perspectives. Important aspects of this ability, include being free of an over attachment to previous ways of thinking that have worked in the past, the generation of rival hypotheses that explain conflict other than those from their own cultural framework, and the creation of a new set of ideas about social interaction. (Matsumoto et al. 2001, p. 505).

> Metacognitive CQ refers to the processes individuals use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge. (Ang et al. 2007, p. 338).

For instance, some general
be willing to seek out more
based on the most colorful
(Cushner and Brislin 1996,

The value of a model o
of cultural content that cou
with people from all over
such diverse topics as dem
food, or distinctive custon

In attempt to arrive a
frameworks for thinking
tures, such as value diffe
Schwartz 1992), or on cul
organization, and subsiste
consist of content knowle
describe cultural differenc

Cultural frameworks
understanding national cu
oped to provide theoretica
not for the purpose of m
cultures in particular situa
such frameworks for pr
question (Earley and Pete
latter purpose may additio
suggesting that difference
research results (Osland a

These considerations
culture-general competen
ences. Instead, the behavic
interact effectively in new
that we delineate as clearl
any region, as distinct fro

The challenge in distin
ciency is that although th
together in practice. To th
is clearly exhibited, it's u
lacking. For regional expe
when they are operating i
subject matter expert (SM
region may not exhibit the
multiple diverse locations

Given that the focus
remains the question of f
petency model developme

ndards for Training

esearchers might ask related to
ple from different cultural back-
w can we, "define intercultural
:s." (Deardorff 2009, p. 264).
ice of working professionals, the
1g them. In the case of our efforts
ie of the model is to set standards
mel to interact effectively with
re they might be assigned. The
for working in specific cultures.
ided, competencies in the model
wledge to further enhance com-
career.
focus on culture-general compe-
nd on training and education, as

petence sharply discriminate the
mentary to regional expertise. For
tence as, "the appropriate and
eople who, to some degree or
:, cognitive, and behavioral ori-
2009). Cultural intelligence pre-
:oncept itself appears to promise
letely obvious in this regard: "…
: effectively in culturally diverse
targeted at situations involving
s in race, ethnicity and national-
:finitions, the culture-general and
ambiguous. Either would seem to
particular cultural groups due to
t.

: in on aspects of culture-general

id different cultures, to analyze the
ations and behaviors from different
y, include being free of an over
id in the past, the generation of rival
eir own cultural framework, and the
Matsumoto et al. 2001, p. 505).

: to acquire and understand cultural

For instance, some general skills might be to avoid stereotyped thinking about a problem, to be willing to seek out more information, and to be unsatisfied with an obvious explanation based on the most colorful or vivid (not necessarily the most important) part of a problem. (Cushner and Brislin 1996, p. 28).

The value of a model of culture-general competence stems from the vast amount of cultural content that could be provided to professionals who are required to work with people from all over the world. Candidate topics for any region might include such diverse topics as demographics and political divisions, religion, local clothing, food, or distinctive customs and communication preferences.

In attempt to arrive at the essentials, on could draw on the abundance of frameworks for thinking about similarities and differences between national cultures, such as value differences identified by cross-cultural psychologists (e.g., Schwartz 1992), or on cultural anthropology topics, such as kinship systems, social organization, and subsistence patterns. Some culture-general instruction appears to consist of content knowledge primarily grounded in theoretical frameworks that describe cultural differences (e.g., Bhawuk 1998; Cushner and Brislin 1996).

Cultural frameworks provide a systematic starting point for analyzing and understanding national cultures. However, the frameworks were primarily developed to provide theoretical support to investigations of cultural comparisons, and not for the purpose of making sense of specific behaviors of members of other cultures in particular situations. These distinct purposes call the value of applying such frameworks for preparing professionals for intercultural interaction into question (Earley and Peterson 2004). The employment of such dimensions for the latter purpose may additionally encourage a sophisticated form of stereotyping by suggesting that differences are more regular and systematic than as indicated in research results (Osland and Bird 2000; Schwartz 2014).

These considerations suggest that the starting point for a practical model of culture-general competence should not be research frameworks of cultural differences. Instead, the behaviors and strategies that enable personnel to learn, think, and interact effectively in new cultures ought to be the main ingredient. This requires that we delineate as clearly as possible the knowledge and skills that are useful in any region, as distinct from content knowledge pertaining to specific cultures.

The challenge in distinguishing culture-general competence and regional proficiency is that although they can be distinguished theoretically, they tend to work together in practice. To think about situations in which culture-general competence is clearly exhibited, it's useful to consider instances when regional proficiency is lacking. For regional experts, culture-general competence is most obviously at play when they are operating in an area that is outside their regional focus. Even so, a subject matter expert (SME) whose experiences fall primarily within a specific region may not exhibit the same skills as another who has spent significant time in multiple diverse locations.

Given that the focus of the model is on culture-general competence, there remains the question of how it will be used. Overall, the main purpose of competency model development in our own work has been to set standards for training

and education. In particular, the model defines the skills and knowledge that should be targeted by culture-general instruction.

A potential confusion that sometimes arises about this general approach is to think that the resulting model would only apply to people who have the same level of cross-cultural experience as the members of the study sample. The key consideration to resolve the confusion is the definition of "model applicability" in this context. Specifically, a distinction that needs to be made is between models that have a prescriptive, rather than purely descriptive purpose (e.g., Yates 1990). Prescriptive (or normative) models attempt to specify how things should be done, whereas descriptive models aim to explain human behavior as is. Competency models, such as a model of culture-general competence, have prescriptive purposes, such as application to developing training and education programs, or to support performance management more generally.

Hence, for our application, the research aim is to describe the competence of an experienced, proficient sample of relevant SMEs in order to develop a model that then prescribes the knowledge and skills the broader professional community needs in order to be effective.

This overall purpose further suggests a need to specify competencies in a way that enables them to be readily translated into culture-general learning objectives for specific courses or other training applications. And to do so in a way that aids instructors to straightforwardly communicate these learning objectives to their students. Adult learners want to know why they need to learn something before they engage in educational activities (Knowles et al. 2014). This means that instruction must make it a priority to identify the connection between course content and job relevance.

In addition to defining culture-general objectives, the model should be specified so as to enable instructors to identify culture-general learning objectives they may already be covering in their courses, as well as to distinguish culture-general learning objectives from region or culture-specific learning objectives within courses that have dual objectives.

Finally, the model should be specified in a way that helps instructors recognize how culture-general competence not only relates to, but enhances the primary job or task personnel are accomplishing overseas and will thus enable them to help their students appreciate this relationship. Perhaps the most direct way of accomplishing this is to provide behavioral examples elicited directly from relevant SMEs as a component of the model.

Similarly, when education is the primary objective, it is advantageous if the effort to build a culture-general competence model also yields content that could be used to develop scenarios and related instructional materials. Scenarios from and information about particular foreign cultures are usefully incorporated when teaching general skills. A caveat is that it is important that educators are able to distinguish the learning objectives that relate to culture-general skills and knowledge from culture-specific knowledge.

This latter point is also relevant to assessment. The goal of instruction stemming from a culture-general competence model along the lines described should not be

that students are able to
culture-specific facts, custom
culture-specific training and
pick the best behavioral int
training (e.g., Cushner and B
of thinking about and respor
tencies outlined in the comp

The Best Sources Are
in the Profession

As noted above, researchers
of culture-general competen
study participants can vary
abroad, scholars' personal e
presents a potential issue, in
may not apply to other popu
enacted differently dependin

The nature of the partici
ways. In many existing stud
limited to a single, significan
that support professionals in
are needed: SMEs from a sp
a variety of regions.

We have followed this pr
our studies to identify cu
Specifically, the criteria for i
overseas to different regions,
partnered forces during tho
(Rasmussen and Sieck 201
samples that represented rep
the world. In one study, pa
different locations in their c
three or more distinct sojou
assignments (Rasmussen an
worked in 7.8 distinct coun
overall. In addition, many o
shorter assignments, comple
work, or interacted extensi
training programs in the U.S

skills and knowledge that should

bout this general approach is to
people who have the same level
he study sample. The key con-
t of "model applicability" in this
e made is between models that
ve purpose (e.g., Yates 1990).
cify how things should be done,
an behavior as is. Competency
ence, have prescriptive purposes,
ucation programs, or to support

o describe the competence of an
in order to develop a model that
er professional community needs

specify competencies in a way
re-general learning objectives for
nd to do so in a way that aids
se learning objectives to their
d to learn something before they
14). This means that instruction
between course content and job

s, the model should be specified
ral learning objectives they may
s to distinguish culture-general
ific learning objectives within

that helps instructors recognize
, but enhances the primary job or
ll thus enable them to help their
ost direct way of accomplishing
rectly from relevant SMEs as a

ctive, it is advantageous if the
also yields content that could be
l materials. Scenarios from and
re usefully incorporated when
ortant that educators are able to
ulture-general skills and knowl-

The goal of instruction stemming
e lines described should not be

that students are able to select the "right answers" to questions about culture-specific facts, customs, or patterns of behavior. Such is often the case in culture-specific training and research, for example, when respondents are asked to pick the best behavioral interpretations (i.e., attributions) in cultural assimilator training (e.g., Cushner and Brislin 1996). Instead, they should have acquired a way of thinking about and responding to the world that is consistent with the competencies outlined in the competence model.

The Best Sources Are Culture-General SMEs Who Work in the Profession

As noted above, researchers could draw on a variety of sources to develop a model of culture-general competence. The roles, functions, and other characteristics of study participants can vary considerably, including students engaging in study abroad, scholars' personal experiences, and professionals working overseas. This presents a potential issue, in that the particular skills identified in one population may not apply to other populations or settings. In addition, similar skills may be enacted differently depending on the sojourner's role or function overseas.

The nature of the participants' experience-based may also differ in important ways. In many existing studies, participant experience is either not controlled, or limited to a single, significant sojourn. To identify the culture-general competencies that support professionals in a particular work domain, the opposite sample criteria are needed: SMEs from a specific work domain who have experiences operating in a variety of regions.

We have followed this principle to establish criteria for participant inclusion in our studies to identify culture-general competencies for the U.S. military. Specifically, the criteria for inclusion in our studies were at least two tours of duty overseas to different regions, extensive interaction with local populaces, civilians or partnered forces during those assignments, and some form of peer-nomination (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). These minimum criteria resulted in participant samples that represented repeated and varied intercultural experiences from all over the world. In one study, participant SMEs had worked overseas in at least two different locations in their careers at minimum. Three quarters of the sample had three or more distinct sojourns, with the overall sample averaging 3.7 overseas assignments (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). Participants in a more recent study worked in 7.8 distinct countries on average, ranging between 2 and 40 countries overall. In addition, many of these participants completed a number of additional shorter assignments, completed longer sojourns for study or nongovernment related work, or interacted extensively with foreign military partners as part of joint training programs in the U.S. (Rasmussen et al. 2015).

With respect to theoretical development, why might it be important to systematically study a population that has had repeated and varied intercultural experiences for the purposes of developing a model of culture-general competence?

From a cognitive perspective, key differences can be expected to exist between individuals who have spent significant time in a single culture and individuals who have spent time in a variety of cultures. For example, Endicott and colleagues suggest that as people increase their intercultural expertise their schemas for intercultural problem solving grow in breadth and depth. However, the way in which their schemas grow may depend on the types of intercultural experiences they have had. Specifically, a person who spends significant time in a single culture tends to develop a complex, highly interconnected schema for that culture. Someone who visits many cultures for shorter periods of time develops several, shallower schemas (Endicott et al. 2003).

Given the cognitive differences between generalists and specialists, there is a possibility that the performance of these two types of cultural SMEs is supported by different competencies. Specifically, the SME with extensive experience in a particular region likely matches patterns of behavior directly and maps to appropriate responses, whereas the culture-general SME is more typically operating in a deliberative mode, applying generalized methods (Anderson 1983).

A potential issue with selecting cultural generalists has to do with whether individuals who do not have a specific regional occupational specialty can reasonably be considered cultural SMEs. That is, can the "SME" designation really be considered appropriate, given the general nature of the competence? After all, participants may well be novices in the specific regional cultures in which they are operating. On the other hand, not having an in-depth knowledge of the culture is an important condition under which culture-general competence is expressed. From this view, it is simply part of what is meant by a culture-general SME.

These considerations of generalists and specialists are closely related to the issues of transfer and generalization in cognitive science and education (Perkins and Salomon 1989). When people face the same kinds of problems in a variety of contexts the likelihood of successful transfer of learning to novel situations is increased. With respect to culture, this implies transferring skills that are called on and used in each culture visited, across a wide variety of cultures. And it's these transferrable skills that belong in a model of culture-general competence.

General, transferrable cultural skills constitute an especially important core set of competencies for military professionals. In the U.S. military, it is perhaps all too common to have a strong regional background for a particular area, and then wind up serving elsewhere. For example:

> How did you come to be assigned to Norway? By the US military logic. I was a fully trained French Foreign Area Officer (FAO). Instead of being assigned to my first choice of a French speaking location, I was sent to Norway, where I didn't know the language. My friend who had a Scandinavian background was assigned to his second choice of France.

> I had studied German and Spanish in high school and college; I was an International Studies major. I lived in the Netherlands for a year and a half to go to graduate school before I came into the military…I was asked to do a two year job as a junior level military

attaché…in Saudi Arabia. And
any language or culture backgr
Netherlands to the Saudi Arab

In addition to breadth of
our studies is that SMEs hav
For the purpose of identifyin
professionals, it is particula
skills in the context of releva

An alternative here is to re
cultural psychologists, who
cultures, in addition to knov
literatures about culture-gene
sometimes defined as individ
intercultural interaction (Dea

Yet, cultural experiences
culture-general competence r
such as the military. Appro
within the setting and constr
establishing, and maintaining
military work. An importan
information to adjust assessi
confrontational settings.

> When you're first meeting yo
> from, what they believe. My fe
> take and can I trust him? Is he
> can't just ask that question,
> somehow, and maybe throw s
> that I think would kind of call
> Massoud?" I'll just throw it o
> looking for any reason to doul
> the more I can roll in certain

Given these consideratio
SMEs for developing a cultu
a particular professional pop
the necessary domain know
credibility among practitione

> Academia will always have s
> more adept in linguistics skill
> linguistically adept in our wa
> associated with it, and the read
> Bolden (2012), Marine Corps

Studies of cultural adap
nonmilitary populations sho
making recommendations fo

ight it be important to system-
and varied intercultural experi-
ulture-general competence?
n be expected to exist between
gle culture and individuals who
mple, Endicott and colleagues
il expertise their schemas for
i depth. However, the way in
es of intercultural experiences
mificant time in a single culture
cted schema for that culture.
iods of time develops several,

lists and specialists, there is a
f cultural SMEs is supported by
extensive experience in a par-
irectly and maps to appropriate
more typically operating in a
Anderson 1983).
alists has to do with whether
occupational specialty can rea-
he "SME" designation really be
of the competence? After all,
ional cultures in which they are
i knowledge of the culture is an
ompetence is expressed. From
ulture-general SME.
lists are closely related to the
nce and education (Perkins and
ls of problems in a variety of
learning to novel situations is
iferring skills that are called on
iety of cultures. And it's these
e-general competence.
especially important core set of
i, military, it is perhaps all too
i particular area, and then wind

US military logic. I was a fully
ng assigned to my first choice of a
I didn't know the language. My
l to his second choice of France.

college; I was an International
a half to go to graduate school
year job as a junior level military

attaché…in Saudi Arabia. And that position was outside my area of expertise; didn't have any language or culture background on it… I had to apply what I did in Germany and the Netherlands to the Saudi Arabia and the Middle Eastern environment.

In addition to breadth of experience, another essential criterion of inclusion in our studies is that SMEs have recent and relevant experience in the content area. For the purpose of identifying culture-general competencies that support a class of professionals, it is particularly important that interviewees demonstrate specific skills in the context of relevant job demands.

An alternative here is to rely on the input of scholars, such as anthropologists or cultural psychologists, who may have considerable experience sojourning across cultures, in addition to knowledge of theories and studies from their respective literatures about culture-general skills and abilities. Indeed, intercultural experts are sometimes defined as individuals who have considerable tenure studying culture or intercultural interaction (Deardorff 2006).

Yet, cultural experiences by themselves are not sufficient for informing a culture-general competence model that can aid professionals in a specific domain, such as the military. Appropriate SMEs must have specific experience working within the setting and constraints of military operations. For example monitoring, establishing, and maintaining the security is an important, pervasive component of military work. An important related skill relates to the ability to use cultural information to adjust assessments of risk in potentially physically threatening or confrontational settings.

> When you're first meeting your interpreters, you have to figure out where they're coming from, what they believe. My feeling is I don't want to get blown up… so what is it going to take and can I trust him? Is he a suicide bomber? I have to figure these things out. And, you can't just ask that question, 'are you Taliban?' You have to weasel your way into it somehow, and maybe throw some hints out there… I know some nuggets of information that I think would kind of call your bluff-type of information. Like "what do you think of Massoud?" I'll just throw it out there and see what happens. Then I look for indicators, looking for any reason to doubt, and I guess that is the bottom line. …So the more I know, the more I can roll in certain situations and test the water.

Given these considerations, cultural scholars are not themselves reasonable SMEs for developing a culture-general competence model that is intended to serve a particular professional population, such as military personnel. They do not have the necessary domain knowledge of the profession, and they lack the necessary credibility among practitioners to serve in that role:

> Academia will always have someone "smarter" or more informed on regional issues and more adept in linguistics skills, but they aren't Marines, and they won't be culturally and linguistically adept in our way of life—the application of military power, the planning associated with it, and the readiness to forward deploy to distant and austere locales. (LtCol Bolden (2012), Marine Corps Gazette)

Studies of cultural adaptability that draw on study-abroad students or other nonmilitary populations should likewise be treated carefully for the purpose of making recommendations for military personnel. Conversely, it does not make

sense to evaluate military culture-general SMEs according to the standards held in other professions, e.g., that of an anthropologist or cross-cultural psychologist. The particular objectives and demands associated with these different jobs call for somewhat distinct knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities. For example, a cultural scholar may have exceedingly well developed ethnorelative communication patterns (cf. Bennet 1986). Among other things, these patterns serve to indicate expertise among their scholarly peers. Yet, communicating at the highest ethnorelative stages is not necessarily better in work situations demanding intercultural competence (Hammer et al. 2003). Culture-general expertise within a job domain must be evaluated according to its own standards, constraints, and pressures (and those alone). These considerations would hold for developing models to support medical, business, legal, military and other professions.

This stance on the appropriate background for SMEs is for practical, as well as theoretical reasons. At the end of the day, the professionals themselves have final say as to the utility and value of the model of culture-general competence. They will accept or reject models depending on perceived usefulness to their work. An ideal outcome for models of culture-general competence is that they help to motivate and entice personnel with nonculture occupational specialties to view "culture" as both relevant and doable.

In order to accomplish this outcome, researchers need to emphasize pragmatic over ideological concerns. For example, the language of the model should use the professionals' words, as much as possible, rather than trying to find the definitive expression of concepts in academic jargon. Models of culture-general competence also need to offer clear value for job functions and tasks. Concepts that may be theoretically interesting but do not have clear applied value should be sidelined as they will be filed away as 'good to know' (a euphemism for useless) by a practitioner audience and thus lessen perceived utility of the endeavor as a whole.

How to Uncover Culture-General Competence from Interviews

Cultural scholars may sometimes find themselves falling into the same pattern as management consultants. Campion et al. (2011) described credible, rigorous methods for competency model development, including literature reviews, critical incident interviews, and questionnaires, among others. He contrasted these methods with earlier practices of having management consultants, who did not work on the job, offer their opinions as to the competencies personnel should possess.

A more useful role for scholars in the development of cultural competency models is to employ their research methods to tease out the knowledge and skills actually used by culture-general SMEs in a work domain. Which research methods should investigators use?

We have found critical inci for identifying competencies. competency modeling, critical development process in favor the relative disadvantages of compared with closed-form qu of interview methods and disa

First among the disadvanta complete. The data collection verbal reports is time consum studies tend to rely on smaller sizes feel good. Yet, qualitativ from each of a selected set ol Schraagen et al. 2000; Spence designs clearly have their place the single overriding considera efforts.

One of the benefits of con sample of participants, as com the interview approach enables inclusion, as we described ear competency developer to build process. Interviewees often in their critical incidents enjoyabl stakeholder support for comp leading early with interviews is culture-general SMEs in their c into work experiences. And answering questions within th certain that SMEs are interpre

There are also disadvantage review to self-report questionn as the starting point. For exam been on the investigation of intercultural adaptability (e.g., results of studies along these "open-mindedness" and "flexi a model of culture-general self-report items such as "I wo (or "I avoid surprises"—indica to thousands of respondents

[1]We should acknowledge that attain inclusion we described is unlikely t

ccording to the standards held in
r cross-cultural psychologist. The
ith these different jobs call for
abilities. For example, a cultural
thnorelative communication pat-
these patterns serve to indicate
mmunicating at the highest eth-
situations demanding intercultural
al expertise within a job domain
s, constraints, and pressures (and
or developing models to support
ssions.

SMEs is for practical, as well as
ofessionals themselves have final
re-general competence. They will
sefulness to their work. An ideal
e is that they help to motivate and
cialties to view "culture" as both

ers need to emphasize pragmatic
age of the model should use the
than trying to find the definitive
ls of culture-general competence
and tasks. Concepts that may be
lied value should be sidelined as
hemism for useless) by a practi-
of the endeavor as a whole.

petence

falling into the same pattern as
1) described credible, rigorous
luding literature reviews, critical
ers. He contrasted these methods
ultants, who did not work on the
ersonnel should possess.
lopment of cultural competency
ase out the knowledge and skills
domain. Which research methods

We have found critical incident interviews to provide an excellent starting point for identifying competencies. Although generally recognized as a sound method for competency modeling, critical incident interviews are sometimes bypassed in the development process in favor of questionnaire-based surveys. This is likely due to the relative disadvantages of interview and other verbal protocol methods, as compared with closed-form questionnaires. And perhaps to overlooked advantages of interview methods and disadvantages of questionnaires.

First among the disadvantages of interviews is that such studies are difficult to complete. The data collection and analysis process associated with open-ended verbal reports is time consuming and labor intensive. Because of this, interview studies tend to rely on smaller samples of SMEs than do questionnaires. Big sample sizes feel good. Yet, qualitative methods that enable the collection of in-depth data from each of a selected set of SMEs have proven useful in many domains (e.g. Schraagen et al. 2000; Spencer and Spencer 1993). Although large sample study designs clearly have their place in the researcher's repertoire, treating sample size as the single overriding consideration is overly restrictive, especially early in research efforts.

One of the benefits of conducting in-depth interviews with a relatively small sample of participants, as compared with large-scale questionnaire studies, is that the interview approach enables researchers to set highly stringent criteria for SME inclusion, as we described earlier. In addition, the interview approach allows the competency developer to build rapport with the SMEs, who are stakeholders in the process. Interviewees often indicate that they find the personal aspects of sharing their critical incidents enjoyable and thought-provoking, all of which helps to build stakeholder support for competency model results. Another important benefit of leading early with interviews is that they enable the acquisition of information from culture-general SMEs in their own words, with elicited knowledge and skills woven into work experiences. And on the other side, since participating SMEs are answering questions within their own work context, the researcher can be more certain that SMEs are interpreting the questions appropriately.

There are also disadvantages in the approach of moving directly from literature review to self-report questionnaire, as compared with conducting interview studies as the starting point. For example, an interesting and important line of research has been on the investigation of relations between personality characteristics and intercultural adaptability (e.g., Van Oudenhoven and Van der Zee 2002). Following results of studies along these lines, trait-like personality characteristics such as "open-mindedness" and "flexibility" might be considered as good things to have in a model of culture-general competence. Hence, the researcher could include self-report items such as "I work according to a strict scheme" to measure flexibility (or "I avoid surprises"—indicating lack of flexibility) in a questionnaire distributed to thousands of respondents working in the job domain.[1] However, even if the

---

[1]We should acknowledge that attaining a sample of thousands that meets the stringent criteria for inclusion we described is unlikely to be feasible.

results supported the constructs, a model developed along such lines would not readily support instructional design processes for building training applications or education programs. Characteristics of this sort are framed in terms of outcomes. It would thus be more useful to determine malleable knowledge and skills associated with these outcomes. For instance, we might attempt to identify the strategies that SMEs use to manage surprises that crop up in their critical incidents (Sieck et al. 2013). Such strategies can then be usefully incorporated into a model of culture-general competence.

A separate but related issue with questionnaire methods as used in studies of culture-general competence is that they rely primarily on self-report. Self-report is a reasonable approach if the aim of a study is to understand how certain personality factors relate to cultural adaptability among international students. When conducting competence studies to inform the design of instruction and related assessments, then it's more useful to measure demonstrated competence of SMEs. As Ward and Fischer (2008) commented about cultural intelligence questionnaires, "A more valid test of intelligence would not ask respondents if they have the knowledge or ability to solve a problem, it would require respondents to engage in problem solving!" (p. 169).

Within critical incident interviews, culture-general SMEs describe in great detail how they handled some of their most challenging intercultural interactions on the job. *Frequent indications of demonstrated knowledge and skills found in the verbal reports provide evidence of relevant competencies.* Hence, this approach requires that study participants spontaneously generate and apply competencies in the context of their own lived intercultural problems.

An alternative way to use questionnaires in competency modeling is to have respondents report on the frequency and importance they assign to different tasks. This may work reasonably well when job incumbents are asked to report on very concrete, readily recognizable tasks, such as: "Uses a computer or word processor to create, edit, print, retrieve, or manipulate files" (Rodriquez et al. 2002). While judgments of frequency are acceptable for tasks, especially concrete tasks, they are less well suited to identify competencies, especially ones that involve abstract cognitive processes, such as those that are used when SMEs take another's perspective, are confronted with moral dilemmas, and deal with uncertainty.

A current challenge with developing a model of culture-general competence that deserves greater recognition is to identify and discriminate tasks and competencies. These often appear to be conflated in extant models. One approach towards solving this problem would discriminate different types of engagements, such as "social interaction" and "negotiation." These intercultural tasks could then be meaningfully aligned with the competencies that influence performance on those tasks, such as perspective taking and managing attitudes. In any case, it's reasonable to expect that considerable conceptual development would be required before reasonable questionnaires could be constructed that enable respondents to provide accurate self-reports regarding the frequency and importance of cross-cultural and intercultural tasks. Critical incident interviews with SMEs provide an important source of information to support the necessary conceptual development.

The interviews we have c
cultural-general competence
incident-based elicitation (Fla
incident-based interviews are c
disciplines such as human fact
Campion et al. 2011).

Critical incident elicitation
that ask respondents to specu
processes (cf. Ericsson and Si
aged when SMEs are ask
culture-general competencies,
knowledge that support cultu
own competence levels. Critic
questions in favor of direct re

The focus of our interview
incidents in which the particip
interactions during their most
2015). The participants' own e
departure for asking more foc
ways specific competencies
challenges.

Each culture-general SME
viewers. One led the interview
opportunities to ask follow-up
depth, with each lasting abou
describe their background an
assignments. Interviewers then
a critical incident. Subsequentl
elicit more detailed descripti
behaviors, and the participant's
reactions during the event.

We elicited the participants
in which cultural differences pl
question used to elicit such ex

> Please tell me about a time, d
> interacted with members of the
> partnered forces, etc.), coalition
> action particularly challenging?

If participants indicated the
interviewer would ask them t
experiences and then picked o

In this investigation, we i
hypothesized competencies wit
nine competency areas from

ped along such lines would not
building training applications or
e framed in terms of outcomes. It
: knowledge and skills associated
mpt to identify the strategies that
eir critical incidents (Sieck et al.
incorporated into a model of

re methods as used in studies of
rily on self-report. Self-report is a
iderstand how certain personality
ternational students. When con-
sign of instruction and related
nonstrated competence of SMEs.
ltural intelligence questionnaires,
sk respondents if they have the
require respondents to engage in

eral SMEs describe in great detail
; intercultural interactions on the
dge and skills found in the verbal
s. Hence, this approach requires
and apply competencies in the

ompetency modeling is to have
ice they assign to different tasks.
pents are asked to report on very
es a computer or word processor
" (Rodriquez et al. 2002). While
specially concrete tasks, they are
ially ones that involve abstract
when SMEs take another's per-
d deal with uncertainty.
f culture-general competence that
riminate tasks and competencies.
ls. One approach towards solving
of engagements, such as "social
tasks could then be meaningfully
ormance on those tasks, such as
y case, it's reasonable to expect
i be required before reasonable
respondents to provide accurate
ince of cross-cultural and inter-
ilEs provide an important source
il development.

The interviews we have conducted to inform the development of a model of cultural-general competence for military personnel have employed critical incident-based elicitation (Flanagan 1954; Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). Critical incident-based interviews are considered to belong among best research practices in disciplines such as human factors and personnel psychology (Hoffman et al. 1998; Campion et al. 2011).

Critical incident elicitation can be contrasted with other interview approaches that ask respondents to speculate on their competence or infer their own mental processes (cf. Ericsson and Simon 1993). A different set of responses are encouraged when SMEs are asked to report their beliefs and opinions about culture-general competencies, are asked to speculate about the component skills and knowledge that support culture-general competence, or are asked to assess their own competence levels. Critical incident approaches avoid those kinds of interview questions in favor of direct reporting of lived experiences.

The focus of our interviews with professionals in the military was on critical incidents in which the participants personally experienced challenging intercultural interactions during their most recent overseas assignment (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). The participants' own examples of recent interactions were used as a point of departure for asking more focused questions designed to elicit information about ways specific competencies allowed participants to cope with intercultural challenges.

Each culture-general SME was interviewed individually by a pair of interviewers. One led the interview and the other took notes and listened for additional opportunities to ask follow-up questions. The interviews went into considerable depth, with each lasting about 2 h. The interviewers first asked participants to describe their background and professional history, focusing on their overseas assignments. Interviewers then asked the lead question to elicit an initial account of a critical incident. Subsequently they made additional passes through the account to elicit more detailed descriptions of the event, including the cultural others' behaviors, and the participant's in the moment assessments, actions, thoughts and reactions during the event.

We elicited the participants' personal experiences during overseas assignments in which cultural differences played a critical role or presented an obstacle. The lead question used to elicit such experiences was:

> Please tell me about a time, during your most recent overseas assignment, when you interacted with members of the local populace (civilians, tribal leaders, local officials, partnered forces, etc.), coalition partners, or third country nationals and found the interaction particularly challenging? (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015, p. 6)

If participants indicated they could recall more than one such experience, the interviewer would ask them to provide high level descriptions of two or three experiences and then picked one for further examination.

In this investigation, we incorporated past literature by using it to specify hypothesized competencies with clear behavioral indications. We identified a set of nine competency areas from a review of the literature related to intercultural

competence (Rasmussen and Sieck 2015). The nine competency areas were: Cultural sense making, perspective taking, cultural knowledge, self-presentation, language proficiency, emotional self-regulation, managing affect and attitude toward difference, withholding and suspending judgment, and self-efficacy and confidence.

Again, each of these constructs was defined in terms of specific behaviors. These hypothesized competencies were translated into a set of open-ended questions that were designed to obtain detailed information about associated knowledge and skills. A semi-structured interview format was adopted in order to prevent biasing the SMEs towards these particular competencies. Specifically, the follow-up questions were only asked when the associated behaviors were mentioned by participants in the context of their reported incidents.

For example, if the participant made references to confusions or surprises in the context of an intercultural interaction, explicitly saying things like "I was puzzled", or "I didn't get it" the interviewer would come back to that specific part of the critical incident and ask detailed questions designed to elicit more information about the nature of the surprise and the participant's response to it, such as:

How was it different than what you expected?
What aspects of the situation/their behavior were you paying attention to?
What was it about the situation that let you determine what was happening?
How were you interpreting the situation/their behavior at that time?

Analysis of Verbal Protocols for Competency Model Development

It is common to take into account frequency information in competency model development. However, the frequencies are often limited to concrete tasks that can be readily self-assessed. With interview and other verbal protocol studies, a different, more comprehensive count of frequencies of competency use can be obtained. In interview studies, SMEs are not asked to report directly on their competence. Instead, they describe, in significant detail, their experience handling challenging situations. The researchers are able to extract tacit knowledge and skills from the transcripts using standard approaches for quantifying text-based data (Chi 1997). The basic process starts with the development of a scheme for coding the verbal protocol data by determining behavioral indicators of each of the competency categories. Analysts apply the scheme to determine instances where particular competencies occur in the transcripts. Then, the number of times a competency code appears is calculated for each participant. This provides the basis for computing frequency measures that are amenable to statistical analyses.

An important part of the process is to have two independent raters code the data, or at least a portion of the data, to establish reliability of the coding scheme. This

helps to ensure that the compe
distinguishable. The process of
early phases, categories that ten
The independent rating process
as that of a factor analysis appl

Researchers use the final da
categories, such as which comp
The data can also be used to i
competencies. This is accomp
tionships between competencie
incidents.

In addition to conducting a c
competency use, qualitative ana
data. For example, researchers
unidentified competencies. In
details related to competency u
also yield behavioral examples
determination of the precise kn
category.

Although coding practices e
text (see Saldaña 2012), we fo
knowledge and skills as compa
are sometimes discussed, such
do this for both practical and th
acquired, and so are the essent
guide the development of educa
important, yet their direct inclu
instructional design. For exam
imply students must hold certa
before they are considered to
They are also not needed, a
cause-effect type of knowledge
example, consider the attitude
instead expressed as a knowle
success." In the latter case, lea
students being able to list the b

As an example of qualitative
the "cultural knowledge" code r
Sieck (2015). As mentioned p
established from the literature r
occur quite frequently within
might reveal different framewc
repeatedly by the SMEs, thereby
knowledge that were commonl
munity. Instead, by examining

e nine competency areas were:
ral knowledge, self-presentation,
, managing affect and attitude
judgment, and self-efficacy and

terms of specific behaviors. These
set of open-ended questions that
associated knowledge and skills.
in order to prevent biasing the
cifically, the follow-up questions
were mentioned by participants in

to confusions or surprises in the
aying things like "I was puzzled",
back to that specific part of the
igned to elicit more information
nt's response to it, such as:

you paying attention to?
mine what was happening?
avior at that time?

etency Model

formation in competency model
limited to concrete tasks that can
er verbal protocol studies, a dif-
ies of competency use can be
sked to report directly on their
detail, their experience handling
extract tacit knowledge and skills
quantifying text-based data (Chi
ment of a scheme for coding the
ndicators of each of the compe-
ermine instances where particular
number of times a competency
This provides the basis for com-
statistical analyses.
independent raters code the data,
bility of the coding scheme. This

helps to ensure that the competency categories are sufficiently well defined to be distinguishable. The process of developing a reliable coding scheme is iterative. In early phases, categories that tend to be confused are clarified, revised, or combined. The independent rating process serves a similar function with verbal protocol data as that of a factor analysis applied to questionnaire data.

Researchers use the final data to make comparisons between the competency categories, such as which competencies are indicated more often, relative to others. The data can also be used to identify potential supporting relationships between competencies. This is accomplished with an analysis of the cooccurrence relationships between competencies that arise in close proximity to one another in the incidents.

In addition to conducting a quantitative analysis to determine the frequencies of competency use, qualitative analyses can be used to obtain further insights from the data. For example, researchers can use thematic analysis to look for previously unidentified competencies. In addition, qualitative analyses can provide specific details related to competency use that help further define or redefine them. They also yield behavioral examples of ways the competencies are used, and aid in the determination of the precise knowledge and skills that comprise the competency category.

Although coding practices exist for extracting several kinds of information from text (see Saldaña 2012), we focus on the identification and explicit inclusion of knowledge and skills as compared with other potential aspects of competence that are sometimes discussed, such as abilities, traits, and attitudes, among others. We do this for both practical and theoretical reasons. First, knowledge and skills can be acquired, and so are the essential ingredients of a competency model intended to guide the development of education and training. Motivation and attitudes are also important, yet their direct inclusion is somewhat of a sensitive issue for informing instructional design. For example, learning objectives based on the model that imply students must hold certain attitudes regarding culture or cultural practices before they are considered to have mastered the content would be controversial. They are also not needed, as any attitude statement can be rewritten as a cause-effect type of knowledge element that specifies costs or benefits. As a simple example, consider the attitude statement, "I like culture." This statement can be instead expressed as a knowledge statement, such as, "Culture leads to mission success." In the latter case, learning objectives might be written along the lines of students being able to list the benefits of cultural information.

As an example of qualitative analysis helping to redefine a competency, consider the "cultural knowledge" code reported in the quantitative results of Rasmussen and Sieck (2015). As mentioned previously, this was one of the categories that was established from the literature review prior to data collection. And it was found to occur quite frequently within the data. Our original thinking was that the code might reveal different frameworks or dimensions of culture that were referred to repeatedly by the SMEs, thereby suggesting recurring items or categories of cultural knowledge that were commonly found to be useful within this professional community. Instead, by examining the interview excerpts tagged with that code, we

found that the SMEs' cultural knowledge was richer and more idiosyncratic than would be expected by any of the common cultural frameworks. Furthermore, the items of cultural knowledge were often related to a SMEs' own personnel preferences and interests, or to the perceived preferences and interests of their conversation partners. For instance:

> I was really interested in their crossbows. So I went to a village with my interpreter and we were in a village museum, and the museum had a bunch of crossbows up on the wall. And I was asking one of the guys in the village museum, hey, does anybody still make these crossbows. He said, yes, yes we do. We have a crossbow maker, and it's sort of the village crossbow maker. That is what he does. So they brought this guy up there […] And I am asking him, we are talking about how he makes these things and technically how to do it; and I am really soaking this up. […] And I am out there for work, so I am really happy.

> I travel with gifts, no matter where I go. So when I show up, there's a gift to give. [I don't give it to them] the first time I meet them, it'll be the fourth or fifth time, because I don't want to look like I'm buying the way in. But, the fourth or fifth time I'll bring in a gift in and say, "Hey, I really enjoyed our interactions with each other." And that also gives me a chance to figure out their personality and what they might be…are they interested in food, alcohol, or knives. […] Then we'll talk about the things they're interested in. I learn more about it.

We additionally uncovered further information regarding SME views on the purpose of the cultural knowledge, such as why they wanted it and how they were using it. In addition to use of cultural knowledge to explain local behavior, SMEs also employed it the process of establishing rapport, deepening relationships, or developing or assessing trust as in the following example:

> When you're first meeting your interpreters, you have to figure out where they're coming from, what they believe…You have to weasel your way into it somehow, and maybe throw some hints out there… I know some nuggets of information that I think would kind of call your bluff-type of information. Like "what do you think of Massoud?" I'll just throw it out there and see what happens. Then I look for indicators, looking for any reason to doubt, and I guess that is the bottom line …So the more I know, the more I can roll in certain situations and test the water (from Rasmussen and Sieck 2015)

We thus revised competencies to include skills of selecting topics in a self-directed way as well as to reflect domain relevant applications of local cultural knowledge:

- Identifies key topics for study that enhance ability to operate in host country
- Uses cultural knowledge to assess risk within social and operational environment.

As these excerpts illustrate, our model is supported by behavioral evidence that goes beyond traditional self-report of opinions that one may have regarding what competencies are important to function effectively overseas. To take another example, many researchers have recognized that perspective taking is an important component of culture-general competence, and we have found that to be the case, as well. Beyond the high level statement, "perspective taking," critical incident interview data demonstrates the use of perspective taking in action. For example an Air Force Captain had accompanied his work team on a river rafting trip to get a

sense of a certain mountain reg
was thrown from the raft and w
be more concerned with the sc

> I tried to put myself in his shoes.
> sometimes or maybe he might ca
> family more. Maybe he is under
> job or something to that effect. Or
> 1,000 whitewater rafting trips in a
> Americans broke his record. I dor
> his schedule…I am trying to be a
> no matter who they are, we need
> sure that this guy doesn't get out

Another example of perspec
meeting the Columbian Mari
assigned to assess. It illustrates
foreign partners are viewing hi

> My first exposure to the unit wa
> from the military, or from the em
> have no clue who it is. And so in
> tried to build a rapport, you knov
> are here to analyze you and see

We have mentioned the im
language that is easily digestil
translation issue between scien
expressed by these technical te
who are serving in a professio
culture-general competence in

In our modeling efforts, v
culture-general competencies b
introducing unnecessary scienti
skills that form each compet
behavioral examples to further
teristics (Rasmussen et al. 201

- *Competency label*: Maintai
- *Competency definition*: Buil
  mission objectives, using cu
  maintain them.
- *Specific skill item*: Defines
- *Behavioral example of ski
  Afghan soldiers who are sti
  willing to help when neede

As can be seen, the form
military professionals, which is

icher and more idiosyncratic than
ral frameworks. Furthermore, the
o a SMEs' own personnel prefer-
ces and interests of their conver-

a village with my interpreter and we
h of crossbows up on the wall. And I
hey, does anybody still make these
ow maker, and it's sort of the village
ght this guy up there […] And I am
things and technically how to do it;
ere for work, so I am really happy.

ow up, there's a gift to give. [I don't
fourth or fifth time, because I don't
th or fifth time I'll bring in a gift in
ach other." And that also gives me a
ight be…are they interested in food,
gs they're interested in. I learn more

on regarding SME views on the
they wanted it and how they were
: to explain local behavior, SMEs
pport, deepening relationships, or
example:

: to figure out where they're coming
y into it somehow, and maybe throw
ation that I think would kind of call
k of Massoud?" I'll just throw it out
looking for any reason to doubt, and
e more I can roll in certain situations

skills of selecting topics in a
vant applications of local cultural

bility to operate in host country
ocial and operational environment.

orted by behavioral evidence that
hat one may have regarding what
ively overseas. To take another
perspective taking is an important
e have found that to be the case, as
pective taking," critical incident
e taking in action. For example an
am on a river rafting trip to get a

sense of a certain mountain region in Turkey. Along the trip one of his colleagues
was thrown from the raft and was possibly injured. The Turkish guide appeared to
be more concerned with the schedule than with safety:

> I tried to put myself in his shoes…Maybe he is not intentionally trying to be a jerk, maybe
> sometimes or maybe he might care about my friend, but maybe he cares about feeding his
> family more. Maybe he is under some sort of financial pressure, because he might lose his
> job or something to that effect. Or maybe he is just upset; I have no idea. Maybe he went on
> 1,000 whitewater rafting trips in a row without having a flip over, and these bunch of stupid
> Americans broke his record. I don't know. But it seemed that he was very concerned about
> his schedule…I am trying to be as diplomatic as I can right now. Because someone is hurt,
> no matter who they are, we need to get that individual medical attention. [I have] to make
> sure that this guy doesn't get out of hand, because I don't know this guy from Adam.

Another example of perspective taking in action involves a U.S. major who is
meeting the Columbian Marine unit whose military capabilities he has been
assigned to assess. It illustrates the use of perspective taking to make sense of how
foreign partners are viewing him and to adapt his strategy for interaction.

> My first exposure to the unit was very standoffish in regards to, not only do we see you
> from the military, or from the embassy, but now you are bringing us someone else that we
> have no clue who it is. And so immediately I caught on to that standoffish perspective and
> tried to build a rapport, you know, with, first of all, we are not there telling them, hey, we
> are here to analyze you and see what your capability is.

We have mentioned the importance of expressing a competency model in a
language that is easily digestible by the population it supports. There is often a
translation issue between scientific jargon and the ability to implement the ideas
expressed by these technical terms into real world domains. Culture-general SMEs
who are serving in a professional domain of interest naturally express aspects of
culture-general competence in ways that fit within their community.

In our modeling efforts, we were careful to incorporate the expression of
culture-general competencies by military personnel, and to restrain ourselves from
introducing unnecessary scientific jargon. In addition, we wrote the knowledge and
skills that form each competency as action-oriented statements, and included
behavioral examples to further clarify the competency and its descriptive charac-
teristics (Rasmussen et al. 2015). For example

- *Competency label*: Maintains a Mission Orientation
- *Competency definition*: Builds rapport and intercultural relationships to achieve
  mission objectives, using cultural knowledge and skills to develop, monitor, and
  maintain them.
- *Specific skill item*: Defines mission-relevant social objectives
- *Behavioral example of skill item*: Setting an objective to talk to the young
  Afghan soldiers who are still on guard on a religious day, so they will be more
  willing to help when needed.

As can be seen, the format of our model supports easy comprehension by
military professionals, which is part of what makes it actionable for this community.

The latest version of the model, which we have termed Adaptive Readiness for Culture, describes 12 culture-general competencies. Each competency is further defined by several knowledge and skill items, along with corresponding behavioral examples for each (Rasmussen et al. 2015). We tested the generality of the model across key military specialties, as well as across services. The competencies were found throughout the sample, though skills appeared to be applied differently by distinct specialist groups.

This series of research studies make a unique contribution both to military leaders and trainers who are seeking pertinent, actionable guidance on how to prepare their personnel, as well as, to researchers who are intent on uncovering culture-general aspects of intercultural competence. For professionals in the military, the model emphasizes pragmatic skills that are vetted for relevance to the nature of their work. Because it was designed with a clear focus on informing instructional design, each element of the model represents a malleable knowledge or skill that is defined in behavioral terms. In addition, carefully defined criteria for selecting SMEs, such as experience living and working among multiple cultures, ensure that the model includes foundational knowledge and skills that generalize across cultures. For researchers interested in the cultural-general competence, the considerations, approach, and execution of our studies provide a template for the development of similar models in other professional domains.

References

Anderson, J. R. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3*(3), 335–371.

Bennett, M. J. (1986). A developmental approach to training for intercultural sensitivity. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*, 179–196.

Bhawuk, D. P. (1998). The role of culture theory in cross-cultural training a multimethod study of culture-specific, culture-general, and culture theory-based assimilators. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 29*(5), 630–655.

Bolden, C. A. (2012). The marine FAO program. *Marine Corps Gazette, 96*(6), 71–74.

Campion, M. A., Fink, A. A., Ruggeberg, B. J., Carr, L., Phillips, G. M., & Odman, R. B. (2011). Doing competencies well: Best practices in competency modeling. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 225–262.

Chi, M. T. (1997). Quantifying qualitative analyses of verbal data: A practical guide. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences, 6*(3), 271–315.

Cushner, K., & Brislin, R. W. (1996). *Intercultural interactions: A practical guide* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 10*(3), 241–266.

Deardorff, D. K. (2009). Synthesizing conceptualizations of intercultural competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 264–269). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (200 new approach to intercultural t *Learning & Education, 3*(1), 100

Endicott, L., Bock, T., & Narvaez, multicultural experiences: Relati *Intercultural Relations, 27*(4), 40

Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Flanagan, J. C. (1954). The critical i

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & W intercultural development inven 421–443.

Hoffman, R. R., Crandall, B., & Sha expert knowledge: A case stud *Factors: The Journal of the Hum

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F, I. L. L classic in adult education and Routledge.

Matsumoto, D., LeRoux, J., Ratzlaf Development and validation of sojourners: The Intercultural Ad *Intercultural Relations, 25*, 483–

McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing *Psychologist, 28*, 1–14.

Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2000). I context. *Academy of Managemen

Perkins, D. N., & Salomon, G. *Researcher, 18*, 16–25.

Rasmussen, L. J., & Sieck, W. R. (2 field study of professionals who *Relations.48*, 75–90.

Rasmussen, L. J., Sieck, W. R., & D education and training: Validati Global Cognition.

Rodriguez, D., Patel, R., Bright, competency models to promot *Management, 41*(3), 309–324.

Saldaña, J. (2012). *The coding ma Publications.

Schraagen, J. M., Chipman, S. F., & Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals i empirical tests in 20 countries.

Schwartz, S. H. (2014). Rethinking empirical findings. *Journal of C

Sieck, W. R., Smith, J. L., & Rasm of cross-cultural encounters. *Jou

Spencer, L. M., & Spencer, S. M. (1 Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Spitzberg, B. H., & Chagnon, G. (tence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

termed Adaptive Readiness for
es. Each competency is further
g with corresponding behavioral
sted the generality of the model
ervices. The competencies were
red to be applied differently by

e contribution both to military
actionable guidance on how to
s who are intent on uncovering
e. For professionals in the mili-
are vetted for relevance to the
rith a clear focus on informing
presents a malleable knowledge
ion, carefully defined criteria for
orking among multiple cultures,
rledge and skills that generalize
cultural-general competence, the
adies provide a template for the
al domains.

bridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007).
iltural judgment and decision making,
ent and Organization Review, 3(3),

training for intercultural sensitivity.
9–196.
iltural training a multimethod study of
ry-based assimilators. Journal of

Corps Gazette, 96(6), 71–74.
illips, G. M., & Odman, R. B. (2011).
modeling. Personnel Psychology, 64,

al data: A practical guide. The Journal

actions: A practical guide (2nd ed.).

intercultural competence as a student
ernational Education, 10(3), 241–266.
tions of intercultural competence.
ercultural competence (pp. 264–269).

Earley, P. C., & Peterson, R. S. (2004). The elusive cultural chameleon: Cultural intelligence as a new approach to intercultural training for the global manager. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 3*(1), 100–115.

Endicott, L., Bock, T., & Narvaez, D. (2003). Moral reasoning, intercultural development, and multicultural experiences: Relations and cognitive underpinnings. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 27*(4), 403–419.

Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (1993). *Protocol analysis: Verbal reports as data* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Flanagan, J. C. (1954). The critical incident technique. *Psychological Bulletin, 51*(4), 327–358.

Hammer, M. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. L. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 27*, 421–443.

Hoffman, R. R., Crandall, B., & Shadbolt, N. (1998). Use of the critical decision method to elicit expert knowledge: A case study in the methodology of cognitive task analysis. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 40*(2), 254–276.

Knowles, M. S., Holton, E. F, I. I. I., & Swanson, R. A. (2014). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Matsumoto, D., LeRoux, J., Ratzlaff, C., Tatani, H., Uchida, H., Kim, C., & Araki, S. (2001). Development and validation of a measure of intercultural adjustment potential in Japanese sojourners: The Intercultural Adjustment Potential Scale (ICAPS). *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 25*, 483–510.

McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing for competence rather than for "intelligence". *American Psychologist, 28*, 1–14.

Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2000). Beyond sophisticated stereotyping: Cultural sensemaking in context. *Academy of Management Executive, 14*, 65–79.

Perkins, D. N., & Salomon, G. (1989). Are cognitive skills context bound? *Educational Researcher, 18*, 16–25.

Rasmussen, L. J., & Sieck, W. R. (2015). Culture-general competence: Evidence from a cognitive field study of professionals who work in many cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations.48*, 75–90.

Rasmussen, L. J., Sieck, W. R., & Duran, J. L. (2015). *A model of culture-general competence for education and training: Validation across services and key specialties.* Yellow Springs, OH: Global Cognition.

Rodriguez, D., Patel, R., Bright, A., Gregory, D., & Gowing, M. K. (2002). Developing competency models to promote integrated human resource practices. *Human Resource Management, 41*(3), 309–324.

Saldaña, J. (2012). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (No. 14). New York: Sage Publications.

Schraagen, J. M., Chipman, S. F., & Shalin, V. L. (2000). *Cognitive task analysis.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 25*(1), 1–65.

Schwartz, S. H. (2014). Rethinking the concept and measurement of societal culture in light of empirical findings. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 45*(1), 5–13.

Sieck, W. R., Smith, J. L., & Rasmussen, L. J. (2013). Metacognitive strategies for making sense of cross-cultural encounters. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 44*(6), 1007–1023.

Spencer, L. M., & Spencer, S. M. (1993). *Competence at work: Models for superior performance.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Spitzberg, B. H., & Chagnon, G. (2009). Conceptualizing intercultural communication competence. In D. K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 2–52). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Van Oudenhoven, J. P., & Van der Zee, K. I. (2002). Predicting multicultural effectiveness of
    international students: The multicultural personality questionnaire. *International Journal of
    Intercultural Relations, 26,* 679–694.
Ward, C., & Fischer, R. (2008). Personality, cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adaptation: A
    test of the mediation hypothesis. In S. Ang & L. Van Dyne (Eds.), *Handbook of cultural
    intelligence: Theory, measurement, and applications* (pp. 159–173). Armonk, NY:
    M. E. Sharpe.
Yates, J. F. (1990). *Judgment and decision making.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Chapter 4
Cultural Dilemma:
Encounters: An A
for Understanding
and Analyzing Cu

Jerry Glover, Harris Friedm

The study of culture is almost
domain of anthropologists an
interest and application in ma
agement, and other areas in
Associated with the broader i
disciplines is a variation in h
Unfortunately, many profession
in culture have limited depth
Ethnocentric theories and meth
cultural research in anthropol
believe that culture must be st
based on culturally relative re
analysis of cultural data. It is
culture" needs to be an impor
spectives (Glover and Friedm

This chapter is based on Glover an

J. Glover
Institute for Culturally Adaptive Le
FL 33935, USA
e-mail: jerryglover75@gmail.com

H. Friedman (✉)
Goddard College, 1270 Tom Coker
e-mail: harrisfriedman@hotmail.com

M. van Driel
cut-e USA Inc., 1345 Park Avenue,
New York, NY 10154-0037, USA
e-mail: marinus.van.driel@cut-e.com