Dissertation

Impact of Knowledge Management Perspectives on Cross-Cultural Management

An Investigation of Implications on Consulting, Training and Coaching

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ABSTRACT

The work in hand was considerably inspired by the 2002 published book “Cross-Cultural Management, a Knowledge Management Perspective” by Nigel Holden. This author examines the effects of this perspective for cross-cultural management and to what extent existing approaches from the areas consulting, training and coaching are influenced by this new view.

The expositions on knowledge management perspective begin with a critical consideration of customary cultural concepts, which according to Holden have, in the meantime, become out-dated in today’s global business world. He equates culture and cultural input with knowledge, which he considers to be an important organizational resource. To this knowledge he applies the principles of knowledge management. Referring to cross-cultural management this means: there are no longer only cultural differences to manage, rather culture – and with it cultural knowledge – even becomes the object of management tasks.

On the way to critical evaluation, first theoretical bases are to be presented so as to clarify the concepts of knowledge, management and culture. Two approaches of knowledge management are put forward, the well known approach of Probst, which orientates itself to the classic management process as well as the one from Schüppel, which points more in the direction of change-processes. As an essential basis of intercultural dealings, Hofstede’s cultural dimensions may not be overlooked.

Results

The book from Holden does not give any information as to how knowledge management is to be implemented in an organization or how systematically structured intercultural knowledge can be made available. It aims at the competence, which a manager should have for the duties as an intercultural knowledge worker. Thus Holden stresses almost exclusively soft skills, he demands extensive social and above all communicative skills.

For Consultants an outline of knowledge management is drawn up, which integrates the essential outlines of Holden’s knowledge management perspective and gives an indication in conjunction with an adapted approach of ADL\(^1\) for possible implementation.

In the opinion of this author, no appreciable effects arise from Holden’s expositions for existing concepts of intercultural training. These will still be of important significance for cross-cultural management in the future.

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\(^1\) Arthur D. Little Management Consulting
Abstract

A little more attention is paid to intercultural coaching. For the competence expansion demanded by Holden’s soft skills, the approaches of coaching deliver an adequate alternative. Coaching creates suitable conditions for the possibility for individual and personal adapted learning situations, also for the imparting of intercultural know-how from the knowledge bearing person.
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1. INTRODUCTION

Initial Position

The constantly increasing internationalisation and globalisation of enterprises caused many changes over the last decades. In this dissertation two areas shall be looked at in detail: knowledge management and cross-cultural management.

Knowledge management attained importance so that today existing knowledge becomes ever more a crucial competition factor. In many technical and innovative industries - as an example the computer or mobile telephone technology - there becomes ever shorter product life cycles. Time to market another key word of importance. It is therefore of absolutely crucial importance to always have up-to-date existing knowledge in an enterprise, and where needed an efficient access to this knowledge be allowed. These considerations have produced the various concepts of knowledge management.

Globalisation leads inevitable to discussion with different cultures and thereby to cross-cultural management. In the mean time individual company research, production and sales encompass the whole globe, with new markets opening up. For example the Asian Markets, originally it was interesting to externalise production because of the favourable manpower, it increasingly gaining in the mean time a reputation as a sales market and investment area. The diversity of cultures must be taken into account, which reflects itself in cross-cultural management.

These two considerations look at globalisation in the sense of an internationalisation process which covers the whole world. Going international around the world. Since this development began some decades ago, international contacts are no longer the exception but rather the rule. There are more and more opinions voiced in which globalisation sees a merging of once existing differences, up to the development and shaping of a global business language, expressed in a geocentric business culture.

If one takes up this thought, clear effects on cross-culture management become visible. National culture differences will lose meaning at least in the meaning of serious difficulties and hurdles in international business. This throws up new questions. Developed until now in connection with cross-cultural management and always mentioned is the large area of intercultural training. There are now authors who speak quite critically about this, like for example the Swedish Anthropology Hannerz who speaks somewhat unfriendly and disparaging of “the culture shock prevention industry” ².

Nigel Holden would like to propose new ways, by combining the two management approaches mentioned above. His 2002 published book “Cross-Cultural Manage-

² Holden (2002, p307)
ment, a Knowledge Management Perspective” was decisive and inspiring in dealing with this topic in the context of this dissertation.

In this new work he stated a shift of paradigm by regarding cross-cultural management from the standpoint of knowledge management. Accordingly the pervasive approach based on an anthropological understanding of culture becomes more and more obsolete. Cross-cultural management can no longer be seen solely in managing cultural differences. The ongoing globalisation calls for global networking, organizational learning and knowledge management. Holden defines culture “not as a manifestation of difference and otherness, but as a variety of distinguishable elements and recognizing that this variety is the essence of culture as a resource.” This leads to the condensed guiding definition: “culture is varieties of common knowledge”. Against the background of the evolution of a knowledge management perspective “the core task of cross-cultural management is to facilitate and direct synergistic interaction and learning at interfaces, where knowledge, values and experience are transferred into multicultural domains of implementation.”

Main Issues & Objectives

It is the aim of this dissertation at hand to examine the connections formulated by Holden, how far his constituted knowledge management perspective is found to apply to cross-cultural management practice. In a further step one examines the effects therefrom for consultants, intercultural trainers and coaches and what recommendations and tips can be derived for these occupational groups.

This aim is subdivided in the course of this work into several sub-goals.

Firstly on a prior presented theoretical basis an examination and clarification of Holden’s knowledge management perspective is carried out.

In the next steps the following questions are answered.

- What impact has this knowledge management perspective on cross-cultural management? Is this really a completely new position or as formulated at the beginning, a shift of paradigm?

- What implications for consultants arise from it. How can knowledge management be combined with cross-cultural management, what recommenda-
tions can be given in conjunction with the implementation of cross-cultural issues for a knowledge management system?

- Can new findings be derived from this perspective for intercultural training, are new theories or methods necessary for it?

- How can Holden’s concepts be taken into account by intercultural training, what recommendation arise from that regarding a successful conversion?

**Methods**

The aim of the dissertation will be achieved by both desk and field research.

The desk research will mainly focus on examining literature and internet. It comprises relevant publications in the field of culture combined with business as well as knowledge management literature. In addition existing cross-cultural training and seminar concepts will be studied, including that available via the internet.

As far as this author knows, with this topic there is still no quantitative research, which can be looked-up or consulted. Such research would surely be far too much with regard to the framework of this dissertation. Hence, the empiric part of this work was carried out as qualitative research and has an explorative orientation. Through many *in-depth interviews* a specific and deepened *insider view* was attained. At first it was important to determine the circle of acquaintances of the interview partners. Three criteria were taken into consideration. The Interviewees are:

1. employed in an international/global active enterprise.

2. who have themselves intercultural experience, either through foreign stays or through work within multicultural teams

3. and where possible coming from different educational and organizational backgrounds.

All interview partners were prior to the interview handed an *Interview Guidelines* document\(^5\), which merely set out a rough structure framework for the course of the interview. All interviews were recorded, with the permission of the parties involved.

The information received and the results were examined whether from the practical side information can be derived which:

\(^5\) see appendix
1. Introduction

- makes it seem meaningful, becoming an examination object in the further course of this dissertation
- Gives a basis or clue for further recommendations
- makes if necessary the modification of existing approaches
- could become the starting point for further research or examination.

Of course the limitations of this procedure must also be stated. With this methodology, without exception, only very subjective statements are carried. Thus, for instance, the point of view of two interview partners from the same organization were quite different and could be quite differently interpreted. Likewise only the subjective evaluation and weighing-up of the attained information by this author could there have been meaningful combinations and conclusions derived. These have no claim to empiric evidence and cannot be used as representative statements. Rather it must to be understood as suggesting that the introduced implicit logic must be gone into. Should interest be awoken here, than surely new research areas will open up.

Structure

Fig.1 shows the logical construction of this dissertation.

Chapters 2 and 3 deliver the theoretical background for knowledge management and cross-cultural management. These expositions form in chapter 4 an important basis for the understanding of all aspects of Holden`s knowledge management perspective, as well as for the critical assessment of these approaches.

As evident from Fig. 1 the results from the interviews (chapter 5) already flow in critical evaluation. This rearrangement of the order is carried-out merely for better clarity. Therefore all aspects of Holden`s knowledge management perspective can be dealt with in a single chapter. Also the in chapter 6 are results of the interviews considered.

While the implications on consulting (chapter 6.1.) are tied directly to Holden's expositions, the treatise of training and coaching have a general introductory opening.
1. Introduction

![Dissertation Structure Diagram]

- **Knowledge**
- **Management**
- **Culture**

Knowledge Management → Across Cultures

Holden’s KMP on CCM

Field Research Interviews

Critical Analysis Evaluation

Implications

Recommendations → Consulting

Training

Coaching

fig 1 dissertation structure thought-flow - diagram
2. KNOWLEDGE AND MANAGEMENT

2.1. Knowledge

2.1.1. General Outline

Knowledge is different for everyone. Before knowledge can be used in an enterprise profitably, it is necessary to examine this idea from different sides. I would like, within the scope of this dissertation, to make some examinations around the concept of knowledge.

According to the encyclopaedia Brockhaus 99 knowledge covers all knowledge within the context of everyday actions and actual relations (everyday knowledge). In the philosophical sense knowledge is reasonable and rational knowledge as opposed to supposition and opinion or belief. Knowledge can primarily by a coincidental observation, prevail by a systematic investigation (experiment) or knowledge and secondarily by learning the appropriation of knowledge material.

A successful illustration of the knowledge concept occurs in the representation of the Stairs of Knowledge.

![Stairs of Knowledge Diagram](image)

The raw material of knowledge is based on data consisting of coding marks, still completely without interpretation of their meaning. Only by the fact that a receiver gives to these data importance, do they attain information content. Thereby the contents can give rise to changes, modifications (world view, self awareness etc.)

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6 source: North(1998, p41)
2.1. Knowledge

and help to get new knowledge and insights by comparison with existing information, cognition and experiences. It is just intra-personal interlinking of experiences, expectations, values and context information, which forms a frame for the judgement and integration of new information. Only by this combination ability can we speak of knowledge.

We can look back at a suitable definition from Probst et al (1997) where knowledge is defined as

\[ \text{the whole of knowledge, abilities and talents, which persons use for the solution of problems, this covers both theoretical knowledge and practical everyday life rules and procedural instructions. Knowledge relies on data and information, is bound in contrast to these however to the person, for knowledge develops as an individual process in a specific context and itself in actions} \]

7 Probst et al (1997)

Ability
However for enterprises knowledge only becomes usable when to the knowledge WHAT the knowledge HOW is added. Only through this will ability have the conditions for being later put into action. Here a first clue can be seen as with training and further training besides knowledge imparting in equal measure transferability is to be taken into account.

Behaviour
Without motivated incentive, without the want, skills alone do not equate to behaviour. In the end only this combination of skill and want generates the desired value-creation. The results from the aforesaid behaviour also provide for the first time the possibility to measure just how far an organization productively uses existing knowledge.

Competence
If this knowledge is aimed and profitably applied, it is transformed into competence. This competence shows itself strongest where one manages to use the resources knowledge, behaviour or purpose orientation.

Core Competence
If one manages to expand such competences as a decisive competitive advantage one speaks of core competence. Specific partial competences are often integrated into a network, which is difficult to imitate and thereby underlines an exposed market position. Knowledge becomes the decisive competitive factor.
2.1. Knowledge

Forms of knowledge

In three-dimensional form the knowledge cube shows further connections and aspects on the subject Knowledge.

Knowledge can be present in individual form and is then in principle bound to persons. In collective form knowledge is to be found in the processes, routines, methods and norms of organizational units or working groups. Knowledge can be present within the organization or localized externally with advisers or cooperation partners of the organization.

Further Nonaka (1995) delivered additional differentiation possibilities, the concept pair, tacit and explicit knowledge.

Tacit Knowledge
is shaped by individual experiences, ideals, values and feelings. The knowledge is bound directly to the person and represents an internalised, personal view (embodied knowledge). The subjective, rather intuitive character complicates the articulation and with it also the passing on to others. Thus it is not often directly accessible for organizations, nonetheless however existing collective knowledge often appears as an interaction of tacit knowledge.

Explicit Knowledge
is on the other hand presented in clear articulated form. It is systematically and methodically raised, accordingly codified and can be processed and thus spread easily by way of information and communication technology. Explicit knowledge is a knowledge shared between everyone and is available for the entire organization and goes beyond mere utilization by the individual person or person’s group.

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8 source: Mittelmann (1999)
9 Nonaka, Takeuchi (1995)
The following table gives an overview of both knowledge types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tacit Knowledge</th>
<th>Explicit Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Objective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience knowledge</td>
<td>Intellect knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hidden</td>
<td>Perceptible, codifiable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context specific</td>
<td>Context independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediated analogously (by practice)</td>
<td>Mediated digitally (theory)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**tab 1 tacit – explicit knowledge**

### 2.1.2. Nonaka’s four Models of Knowledge Conversion

The interaction of tacit and explicit knowledge happens according to Nonaka (1995) in four sequential phases and causes a transformation with which new knowledge is in turn created.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tacit knowledge</th>
<th>to Explicit knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Socialization</td>
<td>Sympathized knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Externalisation</td>
<td>Conceptual knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Internalisation</td>
<td>Operational knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Combination</td>
<td>Systemic knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**fig 4 four models of knowledge conversion**

Socialization

Knowledge transference from tacit to tacit. By exchange of experience, via observation and imitation, tacit knowledge can also be acquired if necessary without language. Here the so-called “learning-by-doing” takes effect. We also find the process of socialization, when a new member is integrated into an existing group and their way of acting and thinking adapts. These events can also take place un-

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11 source: *ibid*
consciously, this then clarifies the difficulty of making this knowledge available to the organization.

**Externalisation**
Knowledge transference from tacit to explicit. This transformation phase earns special attention, since generating usable knowledge actually takes place for the organization here. By communication and dialog of the employees, person-bound knowledge is made conscious and thus explicit, i.e. for all comprehensible knowledge constituents there is transference. The externalisation process takes a key role of knowledge creation.

**Combination**
Knowledge transference from explicit to explicit. Here knowledge is produced by combining from already existing explicit knowledge. The procedure is to a large extent independent of face-to-face contact and can take place via well-known information-technology means. For the organization as a whole, the actual knowledge increase remains rather small, however useful effects can be obtained by the summarizing or restructuring of volume data.

**Internalisation**
Knowledge transference from explicit to tacit. Documented explicit knowledge is through a process of learning and experience taken up by the employees and in the end internalised. Thereby routine and complex processes which arise are more easily self-controlled. A certain relationship to learning-by-doing in addition to constant attempts via “trial and error” can be registered here.

According to Nonaka and Takeuchi it is a basic problem of knowledge management to convert from individual bounded knowledge to explicit knowledge. This process begins first with the individual and is passed then by interpersonal exchange within groups. The fundamental task of knowledge management is then to develop and create this so arising knowledge to organizational knowledge.
2.2. Management

2.2.1. General Considerations

Because the concept *management* is twice found in the title of this dissertation, short consideration should be given to it here. Some points shall merely be picked up specifically it must be gone back to later in connection with coaching and training, knowing full well that this topic cannot be comprehensively examined here.

The notion *management* is in use since the 19th century and has an Anglo-American origin. It appeared first in England and was used to describe the management of an enterprise. The term management is used with two different meanings:12

Management as a function
The “management as a function” meaning covers and describes tasks and processes which arise by the division of the workforce such as the planning, control or organization.

Management as an institution
Management in an institutional meaning represents a representation of the person in an organization who fulfills leadership tasks so that management functions can be exercised.

If one looks at the task-catalogue of the manager, there is world-wide agreement that it covers the following activities:

- Planning
- Organizing
- Controlling
- Staffing
- Directing and Leading

Depending upon cultural background however, the question becomes interesting, how these activities are individually implemented.

One should also mention here the 7-S Model13 developed by Peters and Waterman in collaboration with McKinsey, which up until the eighties predominantly stressed “hard management instruments” (structure, strategy, systems), and increasingly the so-called soft-factors were than moved into focus. Thus management style, personnel levels, ability assessment and common held values gain new positional values as it does especially with regard to intercultural management tasks.

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12 Dülfer (1999)
13 Peters, Watermann (1982)
In alignment with these soft-factors, Dülf er stresses the communicative aspect of managing which aims at the concept of leadership. In the process communication takes place between two or more persons and has a behavioural influencing purpose by which aims to be accomplished by a corresponding behaviour.

Thus management becomes a complex process of information exchange. Thereby it deals with the informational effect of information procurement, information processing, information mediation and information return. 14

2.2.2. Mintzberg – The 10 Roles

By 1973 Henry Mintzberg pursued in a comprehensive study the question, what managers accomplish, and what functions can be derived therefrom for management. As a base description for management activities he deducted 10 roles, which are divided into three categories.15

![The Managerial Roles](image)

fig 5 the managerial roles16

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14 Dülf er (1999)
15 Mintzberg (1995)
16 source: ibid p30
Interpersonal Roles
These three roles result directly from formal authority and encompass interpersonal base relations.

1. Figurehead
As head of an organizational unit a manager has also to fulfill representative or ceremonial obligations and expectation. It may also be pure routine work which concerns neither serious communication nor important decisions. However for the smooth operation of the organization they may be neither delegated nor passed over by the manager.

2. Leader
Managers are responsible for the work of their fellow employees, from this a leading role can be constituted, while more usually direct influence on selection and training of the employees is taken. Beyond this there is also indirect practice of the leadership role, e.g. motivation mediation, assessment, or the way and manner of contact-arrangements.

3. Liaison
The contacts, which are meant here, are those, which the manager maintains outside his/her remit of responsibility. This role is not to be underestimated, because here external networks of information are built up which although very informal, private and mostly verbal are nevertheless very effective.

Informational roles
Regarding the work of a manager, a key role is given to information processing. On account of the contact network mentioned above and contact to his/her fellow employees a manager develops into the nerve centre of this organizational unit.

4. Monitor
In this roll the manager scans his/her complete environment for information. Because of his/her extensively built up contacts he/she has in relatively light way an information advantage. Most of this information is found in verbal form but also partially as gossip, rumour or simply speculation.

5. Disseminator
Managers are interfaces for information transfer. In this role, they disseminate their privileged information onto their fellow employees who otherwise would have no
access to it. If such employees cannot maintain direct contact, then it can also be a task of this role to provide the information flow.

6. Spokesperson
In his/her role as spokesperson it is the task of the manager to disseminate information beyond his/her own unit. To mention but a few, talks, product presentations before a new target group, or simply the continuous contact care for stakeholders.

Decision oriented roles
The management of information does not happen without an end in itself. As the nerve centre of his/her unit a manager has the necessary relevant data and uses these as input for strategic decisions, whereby due to his/her formal authority the manager plays the leading role.

7. Entrepreneur
As a businessman it is the main task of the manager to improve his/her department. The ideas collected in his/her role as a monitor form the basis for initiating new projects. It is only secondary whether or not such projects are under his/her direct control and authority or whether they are delegated to competent employees.

8. Disturbance Handler
While the aforementioned role of the manager is described as voluntary initiator of controlled change, the role of crisis manager is one of involuntary interventions to disturbances from outside. The reason for these changes do not lie within the area being subject to his/her control. Not all problems and disturbances can be anticipated in the run-up to decisions, however smaller problematic situations which if ignored can quite perfectly well assume crisis dimension.

9. Resource Allocator
The third role as a decision maker is that of resource allocator. Here the manager takes the decision, who receives what in his/her organizational unit. The allocating or awarding of his/her timequota can also represent a resource, possibly even a very important one as here the door is opened to influencing control. In this role the manager takes responsibility for the structuring organizational operations and processes. With this necessary decisions in the sense of a coherent strategy are co-coordinated.
10. Negotiator
According to Mintzberg managers spend much of their time with negotiations. Also when it is frequently routine, this task is part of the responsibilities of a manager. Only he/she has the central information and resources as well as the requisite authority, which for important negotiations are necessary.

All these roles described by Mintzberg play a role with the information flow of an organization. It is therefore the task of the manager to receive the correct information from the correct sources, to communicate and distribute it. These activities serve in the end the purpose of safeguarding the necessary basis for decisions.

“… the fundamental information problem faced by managers is not too little information but too much information. What we most need are ways to know what is important and what is not important, what variables to focus on and which to pay less attention to.” ¹⁷

With this quotation from Peter Senge from *The Fifth Discipline* the connection shall be established in the next chapter, in which knowledge management is introduced.

¹⁷ Senge (1990, p28)
2.3. Knowledge Management

In the preceding chapters the concepts of knowledge management were enlightened. The challenge is now how to manage this knowledge. Over ten years ago Peter Drucker stressed the increasing importance of resource knowledge, and at the same time the decreasing significance of work, immovable assets and capital. His quotation has become well known “The social centre of gravity has shifted to the knowledge worker”\(^{18}\). In the course of constantly progressing technology more and more working processes from the typical blue-collar area were simplified and replaced by machine and which drew a steady rise in knowledge-intensive working processes. Knowledge became a crucial production factor of our time, and dealing with this resource became a provocative management task of our time.

According to Willke knowledge covers the whole of the organizational strategies for the creation of an “intelligent” organization. In the process three areas are distinguished:

1. On the personnel side, it concerns the organization-wide development of competence, training, and the learning ability of the individual member.
2. With regard to the organization it concerns the creation, use and development of collective intelligence and community spirit.
3. In addition technological infrastructure is required which allows for an efficient use of communication structure suitable to the organization and structure information.\(^ {19}\)

The aims of knowledge management must be developed by every organization itself. Possible examples may be regarded as:

1. **Creation of value added** in an organization by the intensive use of the knowledge of all the employees and partners.
2. **Increased efficiency**, by the sensible use and development of Best Practice descriptions.
3. **Strengthening of the strive for innovation** through the capitalization of knowledge of all employees and essential customers by intensive integration/participation in the product development process.
4. **Networking of internal and external experts**, so as to have the right knowledge at the right time and right place or at least find it as quickly as possible.

\(^{18}\) Drucker (1989)  
\(^{19}\) Willke (1998)
2.3. The Building Blocks of Knowledge Management

According to Probst, Raub, Romhardt (1997) knowledge management forms an integrated intervention concept which serves the design of the organizational knowledge base. It can be described as a management process which covers the core processes as described more precisely below. By the determination of knowledge goals and the carrying out of knowledge assessment the management circle may be closed. The process starts with the definition of knowledge goals which are deduced from the business goals.

![Diagram of the building blocks of knowledge management]

**Defining Knowledge Goals**

*The starting point of knowledge management.* Knowledge goals give direction to the activities of knowledge management. It sets out at what level which abilities/skills should be built up. Here one distinguishes between normative, strategic and operative goals. Normative knowledge goals create a knowledge-conscious organization structure through the further development of individual abilities. Strategic goals describe central aims and therefore the future competence needs of an organization. Operative knowledge goals realize knowledge management and put the normative and strategic set targets in concrete.

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20 source: Probst, Raub, Romhardt (1997)
Identifying Knowledge

*How to get internal and external overview of available knowledge?* External knowledge identification measures refer to the analysis and description of the knowledge environment of an organization. Lack of overview of internal and external data, information and abilities, i.e. lacking transparency, lead to inefficiencies. Effective knowledge management must create a sufficient degree of transparency and support the activities of individual employees.

Acquiring Knowledge

*Which abilities must be acquired externally?* An organization obtains a large portion of its knowledge needs from sources which are outside the enterprise. Customers, suppliers as well as competitors and partners represent an often unused potential of knowledge acquisition. The integration of experts or the acquisition of innovative enterprises can bring an organization the necessary know-how and open up new potentials.

Developing Knowledge

*The deliberate production of organizational competencies.* Knowledge development is a decisive constituent to knowledge acquisition. The development of new abilities, new products, better ideas and more efficient processes stand in the foreground. Relevant knowledge for the organization’s success can also arise outside the classic structures (e.g. market research). In this building block it is necessary to recognize and to use the creativity of the employees, i.e. as a process of knowledge-origin to be analysed and optimised.

Sharing and Distributing Knowledge

*How does knowledge arrive at the correct place?* The sharing and distributing of experiences and knowledge in an enterprise is the prerequisite for the use by an organization of individual available information or experiences. A central issue here: *Knowledge*: whom and how much? This process should be guided sensibility, taking into account economic principles. The transition of knowledge levels of the individual to the group has to be analysed. The well known saying “Knowledge is power” is in this connection counterproductive and complicates knowledge transfer. The sharing and distribution of knowledge refers to already existing knowledge within an organization.

Using Knowledge

*Overcoming barriers to productive knowledge application.* The productive employment of organized knowledge for the use of the organization is the aim and purpose of knowledge management. The application of effective worthwhile abilities and existing knowledge must therefore be guaranteed. Here we have to look at the psychological and structural barriers which hinder employees’ efficient usage thereof. Here we speak of the characteristics of overestimation of one’s own ability, the feared loss of expert status or also of business blindness. A corporate culture in which the management promotes and exemplifies knowledge use, can
set deciding signals. What is important is that the employees can through the application of acquired knowledge record and verify personal usage.

Preserving Knowledge
*The processes of selection, storage and continual updating.* A specific securing of information and documents presupposes management efforts. Many organizations complain about the lost of knowledge during the process of restructuring. The requisite knowledge for the organizational knowledge base must, under application of selection rules be checked if it is still relevant to the fulfilment of future tasks before it is then actually stored. Storage media can for instance be the collective memory of an organization, process documentation, or simply electronic storage. The use of storage media is supported through simple access to systems as well as confidence in the reliability and quality of such data.

Measuring Knowledge
*Assessing the efficiency of knowledge management.* This process consists of two phases, *knowledge measuring* followed by *knowledge appraisal*. As knowledge is not objectively measurable, knowledge managers cannot fall back on a proven measurement procedure, rather he/she must travel a new path. Concepts such as “Balanced Scorecard” can be helpful here. A controlling-process with feedback of knowledge goals is necessary for the implementation of knowledge management then latest by the appraisal of knowledge is the quality of the objectives apparent.

This model from Probst et al, might probable be one of the most well-known representations of knowledge management. There is nevertheless also cause for justified critical consideration. Although Probst orients himself to the *St. Galler Management Model*, it takes into consideration only to some extent the basic conditions, which would be necessary for the successful conversion of individual building blocks. The building blocks supply practical methods for operational knowledge management, however, they do not represent an implementation model. Although a reference to the business goals is produced, how the knowledge aims can be derived there remains however unclear. It can be used for the analysis of the actual situation, and can be regarded as a form of instruction use for knowledge management, in which the management process is well structured in logical phases. It helps to identify and find *knowledge problems* in an organization.
2.3.2. 4 Acts towards Knowledge Management (Schüppel)

The conceptions framework for the setting up of knowledge management takes place according to Schüppel in four successive acts. These acts are aimed at the knowledge and learning potentials, which are in an ideal situation attainable in an organization.

![Diagram of 4 acts towards knowledge management](image)

**1st Act: Reconstruction of the knowledge base**

In the first act it concerns only conceivable knowledge elements, which are typical of the representative organization. All of the organization’s areas are examined. Preparing an organization chart, in which the necessary knowledge for task fulfillment is assigned to individual positions proves helpful. Furthermore, it can be determined above and beyond job descriptions, which knowledge can actually be retrieved, and to what extent the employees are dependent upon each other. The result is then the representation of the networking and structural framework conditions with regard to the there existing knowledge. So is it that one receives an overview of the central knowledge of the organization.

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21 source: Schüppel (1996, p193)
2.3. Knowledge Management

2nd Act: Analysis of the learning process

In the next step the individual and collective learning processes are reflected by the members of the organisation. The business processes of every single unit, which are investigated for formal and tacit knowledge forms the starting point. In the process actual concrete name should be assigned to the organizational processes in order that they do not remain on a level of formal job description. It is the meaning of the analysis to include that knowledge what goes beyond the formal requirements. As a result one receives information about who is involved in these learning processes, on which scale and with which knowledge.

3rd Act: Identification of knowledge and learning barriers

With a more exact analysis of the individual processes, knowledge, which is certainly until now not known and therefore not used is then discovered, as are also barriers, which prevent or visibly complicate the use of existing knowledge. One can possibly state, that persons in a higher management position have little organisational relevant knowledge, while perhaps other know-how carriers are accordingly not firmly established in the organisation structure and involved in the business processes.

4th Act: Design / Arrangement of Knowledge Management

Only after the analysis of acts 1-3 can we set about forming actual (quite concrete) knowledge management. Thus the specific needs of the organisation are taken in consideration, on the basis of the following questions:

- Which are internal and which are external knowledge potentials? Which are relevant knowledge carriers?
- Which are current and which are future knowledge potentials, with a question of knowledge contents?
- Where is explicit and where is tacit knowledge found, where and how does this knowledge become visible, how can it be communicated?
- Where does experienced knowledge (i.e. know-how) exist, where rational knowledge? In which richness is it available?
This model orients itself to a structured change process. The first three acts refer to the analysis and thereby also give reference to the context's design. The model is suitable to sensitise organisations to knowledge management and shows partially, implementation possibilities. To what extent from the organisation’s aims, even it’s knowledge aims are results yielded, remains unclear with this model. It is a theoretical concept, from which however quite good processes for the design or arrangement of Change Management can be derived. 

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22 source: Schüppel in Mittelmann (2001)
23 see Mittelmann.(2001)
3.1. Definitions of Culture

ACROSS CULTURES

3.1. Various Definitions of Culture

The word culture is often used and its significance is at first sight clear for everyone. Nevertheless it is not so easy with regard to its within complexity to give a clear and comprehensive definition. In the following I would like from the start to moderate the concept of culture a little and exclude from this examination Hofstede’s idea “culture one”. Here culture is understood as merely a civilization and the refinement of the spirit with the results of education, art or literature.

From the enormous choice of available definitions here this author confines to explanations, which have attained far reaching acceptance. In Holden’s later explanations under point 4.1. another definition will be presented.

3.1.1. Kroeber and Kluckhohn

One of the time and again quoted definitions which is found in management literature comes from the American anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn from the year 1951.

“Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts: the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture Systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action; on the other, as conditioning elements of future action”. 24

It can be put that with this definition that culture as essence plays an important role. To loosely quote Adler she means 25

- The members of a culture system share a set of ideas, and especially values
- These are transmitted (particularly from one generation to another) by symbols
- Culture is produce by the past actions of a group and its members

25 Adler (1991)
3.1. Definitions of Culture

- Culture is learned
- Culture shapes behaviour and influences one’s perception of the world

3.1.2. Edgar Schein

Edgar Schein in his definition completes the distinction between a visible and invisible culture. Thereby he emphasises that the nature of culture exists not just alone as a surface visibility.

![Typology of Culture](image)

In his well known typology he distinguishes between three culture levels. Artefacts are the visible component of culture. It is not however said that they are decipherable in the same manner for everyone. It can indeed lead to quite considerable misunderstandings, particularly by outsiders. Artefacts can manifest themselves in three different forms: physical, behavioural and verbal.

He distinguishes between the invisible levels in assumptions - which can appear assured for all members of a culture - and values. These values but to mention a few, appear in the various institutions of a Society as family, religion, political system, and the role of women.

As we shall see later, it is frequently the invisible culture elements, which in an intercultural context receives attention. The observable and visible behaviour in another culture remains strange and difficult to explain so long as the invisible reasons for this behaviour remain unknown and incomprehensible.

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27 Schein (1985)
This connection is also clearly illustrated by the well known "Iceberg Model". This analogy shows that as in the case of an iceberg the larger portion of a culture is not visible.

Consequently for intercultural sensitive people it will be a challenge from the visible, explicit manifestations of culture through vision analysis to draw the correct conclusion from the bigger implicated area.

3.1.3. Hofstede

Probably the best known of the newer definitions is of Hofstede.

“Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”

Therein group is described as a number of people who are in contact with each other while category means a common trait without actual contact (e.g. women over 40).

According to Hofstede culture is learned and not inherited. It is derived from our social environment and differentiates itself from general human nature on the one hand and from the personality of the individual on the other.

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28 commonly known
29 Hofstede (2001, p4)
3.1. Definitions of Culture

*Fig 11  3 levels of mental programming*[^30]

*Human nature* is in principal what is common to all the people, like origin, race or nationality. Here the mental software is genetically marked and through which general psychological operations become visible. The feeling of joy, anger, fear and well as the desire for community are but a few such examples.

*Personality* however means one’s own individual mental programming, which otherwise is not shared with other people. It is on the one hand a genetic disposition and on the other a learning process. In this context learning means marked by the influence of collective, cultural programming as well as unique personal experiences.

The transitions in this model are unfortunately not always clear and separable and have already given rise to many an academic discussion. It is helpful in the meantime to take a partial result from the empirical component: there are some interview partners who speaking of critical incidents could not classify whether these where culture characteristics or merely individual personality characteristics. Under the hearing “Coaching” I will again come back to these relations.

Before I get into the onion diagram, the meaning of culture level still has to be clarified. Since everyone can belong to several groups or categories at the same time, one inevitably carries different levels of mental programming within oneself. As examples of cultural levels the following have to be mentioned:

[^30]: source: Hofstede (1980)
The national level, the affiliation to a religion, generation or sex and also a social class or particular organization.

It can really be the case that different levels contain patterns which are in contradiction with each other, this makes it difficult to foresee human behaviour in new situations.

The onion diagram

The onion diagram from Hofstede illustrates the various manifestations of culture on upon different levels.

In the centre stand the values which form the core of a culture. These values are socialized from very early on, already from childhood. With this early determining they are mostly unconscious and only with difficulty they can be altered. Values are characterized emotionally, out of which can be derived a yardstick for feelings, thinking and behaviour. The value system facilitates orientation for the members of a culture, as it gives desirable guidance conceptions and rules of decision. For outsiders they, the values, are not directly discernable, but merely by the manner of the observable behaviour can one draw conclusions there from.

The next layer of the onion are the explicit manifestations of culture. Rituals are collective activities, which highly unconsciously guide and are not always rationally founded. As an example different welcoming rituals can be specified.

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31 source: Hofstede (1980)
3.1. Definitions of Culture

Under *Heroes* Hofstede means people who within a culture are well known as projection- or identification figures. Therefore it does not come into the play whether or not it concerns historical or fictive personalities (e.g. Batman). The role and importance of heroes has increased in the medium age.

Symbols form the most superficial of manifestation of culture. In their clarity are symbols recognized only by the members of the same culture. Symbols are objects and pictures in addition to hair dress, clothes or status symbols. At national level the common national language is probably one of the most important of symbols. In communication symbols express themselves next to the choice of words and also in facial expression, gestures and posture. As a rule symbols have arbitrarily arisen from common conventions and vary depending on society. They are subject to frequent changes and are also imitated. They are therefore quite short-lived.

All these levels are interdependent, i.e. they mutually influence each other and form the cultural system in its totality.
3.2. Cultural Dimensions

One cannot develop upon the topic cross-cultural management without referring to the epoch-making work of Hofstede. In the context of his IBM study, he combined thousands of scheduled data by way of factor analysis and cluster formation to become his now famous Dimensions of National Culture. It would be more exact and more correct to speak of societies as historical and organic forms of social organizations, not always equitable with national State forms. Although his comparison with national states is at the expediency of precision, its expediency is, Hofstede finds well founded.

Hofstede referred to at the arranging of his dimensions, of examinations carried out in the fifties by the Americans Inkeles and Levinson. The thesis verified that every form of society has similar basic problems if the interplay between groups and the individual is looked at systematically.\(^{32}\)

These were the areas

1. relationship with authority
2. self-image
   - relationship between the individual and society
   - the idea of masculinity and femininity
3. The way to handle conflicts and feelings including their control.

From this he developed the now well known dimensions:

1. Power distance
2. Individualism vs. collectivism
3. Masculinity vs. femininity
4. Uncertainty avoidance

As a result of later examinations Hofstede added a fifth dimension:

5. Long term orientation vs. Short term orientation

With these dimensions at hand national cultures where quantified in diagrams and the given point-values where taken in relation to each other. Today these works certainly provide the basis to a large extent of cross-cultural considerations. They influence the appropriate literature quite fundamentally and are to be found in innumerable cross-culture training concepts.

\(^{32}\) see Hofstede (2001, p16)
3.2.1. **Degree of Power Distance**

Inequalities exist in every society. There are groups or individuals who have more power than others. Power distance is seen as the index which describes how less powerful members of society handle this inequality and in which a higher index value means that a higher markedness of this descent is expected or accepted. With this definition power distance is described from the viewpoint of these persons, which are lower in the hierarchy, while the distribution of power is explained from the position of the more powerful members. Hofstede refers to the independence between leading and lead, authority can only exist where it meets a corresponding obedience.

With the southern countries of Europe (primarily France and Spain), Latin America, Asia and some African countries a high value of power distance is found while the USA, Great Britain and as well as the rest of Europe especially Scandinavia show low index values.

In relation to the business world a high index indicates a strong autocratic hierarchical style of management in enterprises, which are often centrally organized. Power is concentrated on a few persons, employees are told what they have to do. The ideal supervisor is a benevolent autocrat in the manner of a father figure. Employees and supervisors see themselves in countries with a low power distance more as equal partners. The power differences arising from the hierarchy are ascribed more to the institutional roles rather than personal roles and these are in principle interchangeable. The employee accepts the decision making authority of the supervisor, he (the employee) expects however to be included in the decision making process. The ideal boss would then be a competent and fair democrat.

The following table shows and clarifies some differences between societies with greater and lower power distance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Low power distance</strong></th>
<th><strong>High power distance</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inequality among the people should be as low as possible</td>
<td>Inequality is expected and desired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents treat their children as equals</td>
<td>Parents teach their children obedience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers expect self-initiative from their pupils</td>
<td>Every initiative originates from the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are experts who impart separate knowledge</td>
<td>Teachers are gurus who impart their own knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with higher education tend to need less authority than people with less education</td>
<td>The same attitude to authority exists independent of educational background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A tendency towards decentralisation</td>
<td>A tendency towards centralisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Cultural Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees expect to be involved in decisions</th>
<th>Employees expect to receive instructions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Privileges and status symbols meet with disap-proval</td>
<td>Privileges and status symbols for managers are expected and are popular</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**tab 2 Hofstede: Power Distance**

### 3.2.2. Individualism versus Collectivism

This dimension deals with the question of the behaviour of the role of the individual compared with the role of group. The vast majority of people in the world live in societies in which the interest of the group is primary to that of the individual. Hofstede refers to these societies as collectivistic. The minority live in an individualistic marked environment, in that the interest of the individual enjoys priority before the interest of the group and in which one is not expected - in a practical or psychological manner - to be dependent upon a group.

Individualism expresses itself mainly by the fact that people care primarily about themselves and their immediate environment. Collectivism however, is taken, in connection with people who feel affiliated to a group or collective and who themselves take care of the interests of the members. They live from birth in we-groups with a strong “togetherness-belonging” feeling, which gives them because of their loyalty protection for the whole of their lives.

This distinction tends to be correct, the rich industrial countries are distinctive in their individuality on the other hand the multitude of poorer countries show a rather collectivistic orientation.

Examples of different value positions with respect to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individualism</th>
<th>Collectivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The identity in the individual is justified</td>
<td>The identity is justified in the social network to which one belongs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a characteristic of a sincere person to express his/her opinions</td>
<td>One should always keep harmony and avoid discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People are judged according to their abilities</td>
<td>Persons are judged in accordance with his/her group membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violations lead to feelings of guilt and loss of self-respect</td>
<td>Violations lead to embarrassment and loss of face for oneself and the group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management means individual leadership</td>
<td>Management means leadership of groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

33 source: see Hofstede (2001, p48)
### 3.2. Cultural Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career planning dominates staff development, promotion after performance</th>
<th>Group aims dominate staff development, promotion according to seniority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is expected of employees that they themselves represent their own interests</td>
<td>Employees expect the organization to represent his/her interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representatives of an enterprise make fast and independent decisions</td>
<td>Preference for group decisions Organization delegates decide after consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In ideal cases employees carry out their duties singularly and feel personally responsible</td>
<td>In ideal cases employees carry out their respective duties within a group with jointly split responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks are more important than human relations (performance/success)</td>
<td>Human relations are more important than tasks (harmony)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3** Hofstede: Individualism vs Collectivism

### 3.2.3. Masculinity versus Femininity

Hofstede defines Masculinity as a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money, things and Femininity as a situation in which the dominant values in society are caring for others and the quality of life. A society is understood to mean masculine when it is performance related and the individual is success related and self-confident. Feminine cultures pay attention to human relations, the keeping of the environment, quality of life and considers compromise and cooperation as a means for the attainment of its aims.

Masculinity stands for a society in which the social sex roles are clearly fixed. Men shall be able to self assert and hard and shall concentrate on material success while women shall be modest and tender and deal with quality of life. Femininity represents a society in which the social sex roles overlap, both men and women are regarded as content, sensitive and are anxious about quality of life.

How strong a society’s masculine values such as self-assertion, performance, ambition, competition and material success, are in the foreground can be expressed by the masculinity index. With a low value a society tends towards feminine values such as a preference for job security, the retention of social contacts and quality of life. In this dimension near equator lying countries and countries with a high Roman Catholic population generally show a high masculine value. However, German-speaking countries have an even higher and Anglo-American countries a very high masculine value. Romance countries show a low while the Nordic countries show a very low value.

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34 source: see Hofstede (2001, p102)
A connection between the masculinity or femininity of a country’s culture and the share of men and women on the labour market cannot be established.

Examples of different value positions with respect to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculinity</th>
<th>Femininity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Predominant values are, material success and progress, money and things are important</td>
<td>Predominant values concern fellow man, keeping of values, human relations are important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A liking of the Strong</td>
<td>A liking of the weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best pupil is the norm, failure is a catastrophe</td>
<td>An average pupil is the norm, school failure isn’t too bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One sells himself above his own value</td>
<td>One sells below his/her own value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career takes precedent of value</td>
<td>Quality of life takes precedent of value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance orientation</td>
<td>Ability to recognize others feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly stressed is the “live to work” attitude</td>
<td>“Work to live”, a low work stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition, conflict readiness, aggression</td>
<td>Cooperation, compromise readiness, intuition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution, recognition, challenges and getting-on are important</td>
<td>Contact with management, pleasant work environment and job security are important, low leadership interest from managers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**tab 4  Hofstede: Masculinity vs Femininity**

### 3.2.4. **Degree of Uncertainty Avoidance**

Uncertainty avoidance is defined by the extent to which a society daily endeavours to avoid uncertainty. According to Hofstede it is the degree in which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. This index thus describes the tolerance of the unforeseeable. A high index correlates with the need for written or unwritten rules, regulations and instructions so as to reduce the existing uncertainty to a minimum.

A higher index is reached in Latin America and the Mediterranean countries just as is the case in Japan and Korea. The German-speaking countries rank midfield while Anglophone countries, Scandinavia, the Netherlands and the remaining Asian countries show rather low values.

Uncertainty avoidance is always connected to a level of fear, whereby anxiety and fear are distinguishable. Anxiety is the uncertain feeling while fear is object-related.

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35 source: see Hofstede (2001, p137)
36 *ibid* p158
and therefore more concrete. Similarly it to apply to risk avoidance. Here it must also be stated that risk needs an external reference similar to fear in this case to weigh up the probabilities with which a certain event arises. If uncertainty can be expressed as risk, it is calculable and loses out to anxiety. From these considerations it can be deduced, that uncertainty avoidance is quite strongly connected with the factor of ambiguity.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Uncertainty Avoidance</th>
<th>High Uncertainty Avoidance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty is normal in life. It is accepted and therefore there's less stress</td>
<td>The uncertainty being inherent in the life is experienced as a permanent threat, therefore there is rather stressful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguous situations with unknown risks are accepted</td>
<td>Acceptance of known risks, fear of ambiguous situations and unknown risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differences are strange</td>
<td>Differences are dangerous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be no more rules than are absolutely necessary</td>
<td>An emotional need for regulations, even when they no longer function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision and punctuality must be learned</td>
<td>Precision and punctuality are natural characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance of deviations and innovative thoughts and behaviours</td>
<td>Oppression of deviant behaviours, resistance to innovations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**tab 5  Hofstede: Uncertainty Avoidance**

3.2.5. **Long Term versus Short Term Orientation**

Later examinations of the Chinese culture zone, in particular the “5 Tiger States” showed that these countries influenced by Confucian’s teachings made the introduction of another dimension necessary. The factors, economy growth and resource consumption were not sufficiently included as culture-elements in previous dimensions. Because of the increasing significance of the Chinese-Asian economic zone it makes sense – with the considerable differences between the western industrial nations and this culture zone - to distinguish into long term orientation and short term orientation.

To complete the picture some differences are compared in the following:

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37 source: see Hofstede (2001, p180)
3.2. Cultural Dimensions

### Short Term Orientation | Long Term Orientation
--- | ---
Respect for tradition | Adjustment of tradition to modern conditions
Social pressure to keep pace with neighbors, even where one has to pay a high price | Thrifty when dealing with resources
Low rate of saving, little money for investment | High rate of savings, means for investments available
Expectation for quick results | Persistence at slow reaching of results
Face is important | Readiness to subordinate oneself
Possession of the truth is important | Attention to the commandments of the virtue is important

*tab 6*  Hofstede: Long Term vs Short Term Orientation

3.2.6. Universalism versus Particularism

In addition to Hofstede some further dimensions were defined by Fons Trompenaars. One of the common distinction possibilities is the consideration of universalism and particularism. To get into this the following questions are helpful.

It is assumed that there is a critical, not every day situation whose solution at first is not obvious. Is a rule sought which can be applied to this situation most suitably, even if it does not completely do justice to the special situation? Or is a solution sought, which can be - as an exception - applied in this case, until up to the allowed reaction which questions this rule?

The former solution is typical for universalistic shaped cultures, while the second solution is found with particularism application.

Universalism stands for confidence in a legal foundation, the rule of law of the land. By the equal treatment of all individuals a tolerance of diversity can be practised and lived by. Universalism offers good conditions for engineering and scientific progress, up to mass production.

Particularism looks for differences, the uniqueness, the possibility to retreat from the masses. Decisions are negotiated anew over and over again dependent upon the situation and taking into account actual factors. Particularism is thereby very adaptable and can react to the “new” much better. Thus specialization and excellence are promoted.

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38 source: see Hofstede (2001, p248)
39 Trompenaars (1993)
Countries strongly shaped in universalism are often protestant and exhibit stable democracies, with trust in the rule of law. Countries with prevailing catholic populations (e.g. Spain, France, Mexico) or those with far-eastern religions incline more towards particularism. Here confidence is put more in the arranging of individual relations.

Examples of different values with respect to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universalism</th>
<th>Particularism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critical situations are solved by the application of existing rules and standards.</td>
<td>Seeks flexibly and pragmatically situtative solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before the law everyone is equal</td>
<td>Exceptions are possible, relationships are used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity, reliability and permanency are important everyday components.</td>
<td>Decisions depend upon the respective circumstances “it depends”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeks clearness</td>
<td>No difficulties with ambiguity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotes through uniformed procedures mass production</td>
<td>Promotes specialization and excellence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

tab 7 Trompenaars: Universalism vs Particularism\(^{40}\)

### 3.2.7. Sequential and Synchronous Time

Both Trompenaars as well as Edward Hall regarded the dealing with time factor as a further cultural dimension. The difference between sequential (monochromic) and synchronic (polychronic – as Hall names these concepts) is that the view of time takes precedence in the preferential working methods.

In cultures with a more prevailing sequential time view, tasks are done successively. Actions and processes are continuously oriented and fixed to a time-chain. A new working-cycle is only begun after the ending of the preceding cycle.

Synchronic people can do several tasks simultaneously. In the process there are frequent interruptions of the daily schedule. Of course these working methods are found within the same culture, since they contain a high individual component.

\(^{40}\) see Hampden-Turner, Trompenaars (2000)
Nevertheless one can ascribe the monochrome time view primarily to the states of Northern Europe, Canada and the USA, in the Mediterranean countries, South America and Southeast Asia a more polychronic culture predominates.

Examples of different value positions with respect to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monochronic People</th>
<th>Polychronic People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do one thing at a time</td>
<td>Do many things at once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentrate on the job</td>
<td>Are highly distractible and subject to interruptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take time commitments (deadline, schedules) seriously</td>
<td>Consider time commitments an objective to be achieved, if possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are committed to the job</td>
<td>Are committed to people and human relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhere religiously to plans</td>
<td>Change plans often and easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are concerned about not disturbing others; follows rules of privacy and consideration</td>
<td>Are more concerned with those who are closely related (family, friends, close business associates) than with privacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasize promptness</td>
<td>Base promptness on the relationship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**tab 8 Hall: Monochronic vs Polychronic People**

In an intercultural context these different time views can lead to problems in areas like punctuality, engagements, planning of meetings, and other forms of collaboration.

Both Trompenaars as well as Hall have worked out even further dimensions which with will not be gone into here.

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41 source: Hall (1990)
3.2.8. A Critical Appreciation

The studies of Hofstede represent a significant milestone in the history of international culture comparison. He was the first one who carried out a comprehensive empirical examination with regard to the different cultural dimensions of a variety of countries. By ranking the counties in each of these dimensions, he attained meaningful results, as these cultures can be distinguished and compared. Nevertheless there are also legitimate criticisms of this work. Although these cultural dimensions serve the comparison of cultures, they cannot however, provide any suitable approach as to how an individual culture is to be analysed. Thus for example these results allow no conclusion thereto, how far the observable behaviour represents within a culture the only alternative, based on the underlying values. To expressly analyse an individual culture, researchers must refer back to other sources. Another point of criticism concerns the choice of his dimensions. They are rather artificial and in no way represent the only criteria, with which different cultures can be compared. This was, in the meantime already confirmed by other researchers with the defining of additional dimensions.
4.1. Culture as Knowledge

The following chapter deals with statements from Nigel Holden’s book “Cross-Cultural Management, A Knowledge Management Perspective”. It plays a decisive influence within this dissertation.

Firstly Holden examines the culture concept. As explained already in chapter 3, all common definitions aim at seeing culture as essence and culture as difference. These analyses have nevertheless validity, they have been covered with an immense research effort of not least Hofstede. In the mean time innumerable publications have occupied themselves with the nature of respective national cultural peculiarities, everyone starts from the assumption that the meeting of different cultures leads, in various ways to misunderstandings, tensions and difficulties. In the business environment managers are prepared for possible cultural shock and international business activities have become more complicated simply by the various different major cultural influences. The task of cross-cultural management is then a little over subtle, identifying these cultural differences as interference factors and combating these difficulties with appropriate measures. Overcoming these obstacles the actual business activity can be established in considerably improved form. Following from this basic idea whole generations of trainers developed to impart a far diversified offer of intercultural competence.

According to Holden the predominant approach as set by Hofstede has now become obsolete. Internationalisation has now developed into globalisation, multicultural work is now today standard business practice. The increasing interweaving of markets, international networking made possible with the advent of the Internet, up to virtual-teamwork over continents has lead to today’s multicultural teamwork being regarded as standard. This one business World at the beginning of this new millennium is mixing up people from all manner of linguistic, (national) cultural, educational and professional backgrounds in a till now unknown extent. Organizations operate today in a world without existing borders.

Covered by 4 extensive case studies Holden shows that cultural differences don’t inevitable lead to difficulties but rather form interfaces where knowledge transfer takes place. The results and use of such transfer represents entrepreneurial resource. Here knowledge is generated, exchanged and integrated. It may therefore appear in one sense to look at these events from a knowledge management perspective.

Here Holden constitutes a shift of paradigm. He no longer regards culture from the Hofstedian perspective - culture as essence and culture as difference. Culture is not limited by the sole analysis of a national culture with respective values, languages, management styles and different ways of doing business. He broadens
4.1. Culture as Knowledge

culture concept and adds a new definition as he emphasizes new vocabulary to cross cultural management.

Holden’s culture definition:

“Culture is varieties of common knowledge”⁴²

Holden understands variety in the sense of the system theory as requisite variety, the variety of anything being defined as its number of distinguishable elements. To further explain common knowledge “not common to everyone, but common to, and mainly fixed in its place of origination, where it may lie darkly embedded behind a language, behind a veil of strange customs, behind a closed door.”⁴³

⁴² Holden (2002, p99)
⁴³ ibid p99
4.2. From Transfer to Translation

After culture and knowledge were connected with each other, we now look at the interfaces at which such exchange takes place.

Interface shall from now on mean, all situations where people from different culture areas in conjunction with the fulfilment of their work have contact, a point of contact, a common boundary. Interfaces must not be constant at all, there can be a fluctuation of persons involved in the exchange, just as a purely virtual use is conceivable.

This knowledge being in explicit or tacit form can be imparted. The talk is then one of cross-cultural transfer.

It is common for all transfer processes that they take place most productively in direct personal exchange. By this we mean not just formal situations like meetings or seminars, it also covers the informal exchange in corridors, over meals or even leisure time and during breaks.

The elements of this transfer can originate from the areas of organizational knowledge, task orientated knowledge or cultural knowledge. Cross-cultural transfer can also therefore be understood as knowledge-sharing. Holden used here the notion connectivity. It surely is advantageous to increase connectivity as this logically leads to the intensification of the transfer, should however only the technical possibilities be emphasized, it can also then have opposite consequences.
The extent of tacit knowledge tied to persons is neglected with the use of exclusively technical channels. This connection is clarified by the statements of an R & D manager of a French MNC:

“When we have developed a new product, a new way of solving a problem, in principle we should transfer all the knowledge to other MNC units, but it is not possible. We can demonstrate the new solution in practice, provide the other units with technical descriptions and all the knowledge we codify. We cannot transfer the knowledge on the final solution in a codified form, but we cannot transfer the knowledge we gained by all the successful solutions to the problem. So, in a way we are only transferring the solution to a specific problem and not the underlying competence.”

This quotation clarifies the difficulty that occurs in connection with knowledge mediation of special knowledge or best practices. It becomes even more difficult when company values or even cultural aspects are distributed as knowledge and supposed to be utilized as know-how.

To come to an effective networking with the aim of organizational learning, Holden turns his focus to the interpersonal processes which arise with knowledge exchange.

He introduces the idea of the interactive translation.

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4.3. Interactive Translation

We come back to the starting point cross-culture activities. Here takes place not just purely language translation. We find differences of company values, cultural expressions, professional and educational background and so forth.

All these differences, “this being different” flow along side duty orientated level into interaction processes and need to be negotiated. We have to do it here with social and cultural negotiation processes, this in a broader sense represents translation. The purpose of this intra- and inter organizational translation is – as in Nonaka (1991) it designates “common cognitive ground” - to produce a fundamental common platform among entire workforces through teamwork and team learning, knowledge-sharing and networking.

Thus the concept interactive translation is established. This concept is of a quite central and important meaning for Holden. Here, as we shall see later, the real cross cultural know-how is grounded.

This concept has 4 major features and assigned prerequisites.45

Interactive translation

1. is with work in groups inseparably connected

2. helps with he clarification of, and promotes the process of agreement on common meanings of terms

3. contains ability for teamwork with simultaneous excellence in the area of cross cultural communications. Here Holden introduces with “participative competence” a further term into his new vocabulary. He sees one of the main tasks of cross cultural management in promoting participative competence. The following chapter will deal with this term in even more detail.

4. is a form of negotiation, in that individual group members with regard to the background of their own organizational realities step out of and look at their own roles and therefore come to an agreement process. As a result of which they can, if necessary, define their own roles in a new context.

To further deepen this concept, we have to borrow from the communication theory. Every interaction can be grasped as a correlation between sender and receiver. The sender interprets a situation on the basis of its observations and perceptions. These are by no means objective and neutral, but are filtered and influences by

45 see Holden (2002, p222)
4.3. Interactive Translation

several factors: cultural moulding, biographical development, personality determining experiences. All this - and to a large extent unconsciously - flows into the formulation and arranging of an interaction sequence. Merely the conveyance as such is objective and neutral. Recorded on video it would be the same for all observers. Of course the receptors of the receiver work likewise according to the regularities of individual filters i.e. the received message will be interpreted from the background of the individual culture and individual personality. This interpretation does not have to agree in every case with the intention of the sender. The phenomenon is well known (in everyday language): we say the same, but understand something different from it. The reaction of the receiver is compared by the sender with the intended purpose and expectation and checked for meaning content. Depending on interaction sequence this leads to confirmation, adjustment, modification or even irritation.

Back to intercultural context, a team situation for example. Here these facts get even more fundamentally complex, we have several protagonists and these also with a different cultural background (national, enterprise-related, educational). In these interaction processes the individual translates everything in terms of his or her reference. This translation is perceived by ones opposite number as interpretation and flows direct into the next interaction, in turn these do for their part translation work. In this continual process new insights and knowledge arise. Interactive translation is therefore in real sense a learning process. Knowledge was created. Holden named this so created knowledge *cross-cultural know how*. 

![Interactive Translation Diagram](image-url)
The central meaning of interactive translation in this context cannot be overstressed. It enables the participant from special group situations under particular circumstances to make situative learning experiences. These increase in a direct way the abilities of the participative competence, for feedback in the positive sense. For its part in turn improved participative competence will positively influence the processes of interactive translation.
4.4. Participative Competence

Holden defines Participative competence “as the ability to interact on equal terms in multicultural environments in such a way that knowledge is shared and that the learning experience is professionally enhancing.”

This definition orientates itself to the objective and purpose of the participative competence and lesser to the prerequisites or basics.

Below it will be examined, just what participative competence includes. In the process three areas are formulated, the ability for communication, the reduction of Noise and differentiated culture knowledge.

4.4.1. Communicative Competence

The first key concept is Communicative Competence. Holden would like for these concepts to be widely understood and known. The purely linguistic skills account for only a small part thereof. Communication also consists of a multiplicity of facets of verbal and nonverbal behaviour and includes facial expressions, gestures, pitch level, emotionality, et cetera. Holden already refers to a wide spectrum of available literature, in which the cultural differences on the basis of these criteria are discussed in detail. With this he gives a deeper insight into this area to this basic prerequisite intercultural communication.

In the next step he insists that this expansion is extended to social competence, and this social competence demands from the participant the ability to “…use his knowledge of language in a way that is appropriate the context of interactions” in such a way one transfers the management roles described by Mintzberg into an intercultural environment, then here besides the interpersonal rolls he especially insists on disseminator and negotiator.

Thus participative competence becomes a form of communication with brings the others into focus while classical communication stresses interaction with others. To clarify these differences that following give some indications of the shift from different consideration-perspectives.

- For this others social competence is generally expected and he’s also tied to clear world views.
- This others also have communicative competence, they can draw logical conclusions and can likewise read between the lines.

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46 Holden (2002, p273)
47 ibid p.271
• The messages of an interaction are coded in different ways and not just on a linguistic level. This is necessary to recognise, to accept, and to develop the readiness to learn the code of other interactants

### 4.4.2. Reduction of Noise

In addition to communicative competence, Holden designates a further main task of participative competence: The eliminating of – or reducing of – **NOISE**.

To define Noise he borrows from linguistics and analyses some problems which originally originate from the area of pure text and/or language translation. He introduces at this point the following three concepts:

- **Ambiguity** (ambiguities or confusion in original text.)
- **Interference** (transference errors caused by one’s own linguistic /cultural background.)
- **Lack of equivalence** (lack of direct allocation possibilities in the target language.)

**Ambiguity**

Ambiguity can easily be interpreted by the common meaning of the word. It simply means the fact that there can be several or more meanings for a particular expression. From the point of view of organizational sciences this means any general vagueness or uncertainty. Along these lines its use is also aimed at intercultural context. Here the talk is frequently one of tolerance of ambiguity as a cross-cultural competence. The aspect of ambiguity and/or the absence of clear assigning and understanding leads inevitable to uncertainties. At this point the reference to Hofstede can be stated, defining the concept uncertainty avoidance as cultural dimension, underpinning the above mentioned expositions.

**Interference**

Interference occurs in practice when apparent similarities are picked up and then used inappropriately or incorrectly in the translation from the source language to the target language. It is best to illustrate this with the following example: “I worked there three years ago” can be expressed by a German with a relatively weak knowledge of English as “I worked here for three years (the German “vor” meaning “ago” being confused with, and pronounced the same as the English word “for” as a temporal adverb).”

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48 see Holden (2002, p267)
In a good scenario this could simply be an amusing experience, however, there is also the possibility for grave misunderstandings. Having regard to a Japanese’s cultural background, his politeness allows him to say “I will think about it”, the true meaning of which is “there is no way I am going to anything about it” or the hidden statement behind words such as “that’s very difficult” meaning it is utterly impossible.

It is common with these transference inaccuracies that unknowingly lead to unintentional irritations in foreign cultural surroundings.

**Lack of equivalence**
A culture develops its own specific language to express philosophy and ways of life. The difficulties for a translator lie not only in finding the appropriate equivalent word of another language but also to learn to convey the real meaning and import – this real meaning such a word only gets through the whole cultural framework. Certain concepts undertake, depending on the context, another connotation which are returned if necessary only with great difficult or are also totally incorrect. Particularly for technical expressions there may not be a precise translation. Then a paraphrase must be found which possibly contains a lot of interpretation with possible misunderstandings.

Relating to intercultural aspects, another interpretation can still be derived: Equivalence as the challenge, appreciating as equal one’s opposite number and or other culture with respect, the ability to value and leverage cultural differences. Equivalence then becomes a question of personal attitude as has already been stated in remarks concerning communicative competence.

### 4.4.3. Three Domains of Cultural Knowledge

Besides communicative abilities, participative competence includes the area of cultural knowledge. Since Holden would like to remove/distance himself from the conventional essentialistic cultural definitions, it is logical to carry out a division of knowledge areas. The classification is as follows:

General cultural knowledge, culture-specific knowledge and cross-culture know-how. As the further explanations will point, the distinction between know-how and knowledge is of significance.

The borders of this division are by no means static, they freely flow out of what in practice are strongly overlaid areas. General cultural knowledge and culture-specific knowledge are passive in character and are converted by an interaction process of different cultures into implementational active know-how.
4.4. Participative Competence

**General cultural knowledge**
General cultural knowledge is the freely available and the universally obtainable knowledge concerning different cultures. It is accessible for everyone as in innumerable publications, encyclopaedias and the internet. It is extensive explicit knowledge, which already exists in a structured and classified form. It is objective in the general sense of the word.

**Culture – specific knowledge**
Culture-specific knowledge refers to a somewhat more limited range of common knowledge. It is subjective in the sense that it is applied enterprise-specific, depending upon the purpose for which it is needed. It can be available in public form, but also available to a small circle/group.

It can be both explicit and tacit, depending upon application, more crucial is the degree of relevant pre-existing knowledge on the part of those who gather and interpret it.

This specific-knowledge is narrowly interwoven with corporate culture and is also used by experts when for example drafting marketing plans, the setting up of a

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49 source: Holden (2002, p256)
4.4. Participative Competence

“foreign culture” distribution organization or the evaluation of technical information. Indeed in practice it is not always easy to separate both of these passive knowledge forms from each other, one could say culture-specific knowledge is embedded in the area of general cultural knowledge.50

Cross-Cultural Know-How
Here Holden introduces another central concept, which will receive further attention in the course of this dissertation. As is seen from fig.15, this know-how isn’t static, as with existing data retrievable knowledge. Rather the result of a dynamic interaction process is described here, which has a very strong – not to say almost exclusive - practice oriented, active applicability, and active translation goal. As already mentioned (see fig.14) this cross-culture know-how is the result of the interactive translation process. Furthermore we find it as a prerequisite on the one hand and also as an input to participative competence on the other. It is continuously updated through this joined experience. It receives a positive feedback according to the system theory.51

Although this know-how can be derived from the other two knowledge forms, we have to deal here with a more subjective and experimental knowledge, which frequently has a high tacit share. According to Nonaka`s modes of knowledge conversion new operational knowledge results from Internalisation (explicit to tacit).

General cultural knowledge and culture-specific knowledge form as the two passive knowledge kinds, a kind of potential, which can only unfold its effects if two cultures take to the application at the same time. This can also be regarded a type of fusion of knowledge and knowing, whereby knowing this freshly won extra-knowledge is what makes the two other sources useful in applications.52 If this know-how is used meaningfully, it becomes a valuable resource and thus organizational competence.

How this cross-cultural know-how becomes a resource, how with the help of knowledge management it can be meaningfully collected, processed and further distributed will be examined in following chapters.

50 see Holden (2002, p255)
51 Wagner (1995, p14)
52 see Holden (2002, p257)
4.5. Critical Analysis and Evaluation

In this Section it is to be first summarised what Holden understands by his knowledge management perspective. These explanations shall then be critically analysed against the background of the interview results.

The starting point of Holden was one of constituted dissatisfaction with the anthropological cultural understanding from which culture is seen merely for the point of view of culture as essence and culture as difference. This Hofstedian heritage restricts cross-cultural management as the managing of culture differences, which can appear in different value systems, behaviour limits or negotiation styles. Holden describes this approach as outdated.

His first - and probably most important - step to knowledge management perspective is a new aspect of culture. He defines culture, or rather cultural input, as an object of knowledge. According to Holden, today’s business world “…is creating new kinds of cultures which are […] understood as infinitely overlapping and perpetually redistributable habitats of common knowledge and shared meanings.” Holden regards this knowledge as a valuable organizational resource. He goes even further still and calls it a constituent element of core competence. In the next step he makes the connection to knowledge management. He applies to this knowledge resource the principles of knowledge management and characterises his perspective through three essential factors:

- decision support
- organizational learning
- knowledge sharing

Cross-cultural management contains - as the name suggests - management tasks. First “…it must give direction and purpose to the cross-cultural activities of people and facilitate their interactions to achieve organizational goals.” Second it must control resources, as represented by the expositions of Mintzberg in chapter 2.2.2. culture as knowledge becomes the resource “cultural knowledge”. It is a task of a manager to nurture and foster this resource and to use it purposefully for the benefit of the organization.

In a further step Holden combines both approaches. He orientates himself to knowledge management and derives from it six main tasks for cross-cultural management:

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53 Holden (2002 p 285)
54 ibid p 293
The first three tasks describe \textit{WHAT} is to be done, while the latter three tasks focus more on \textit{HOW} it is to be done. Through four in-depth case studies he identifies and analyses cross-cultural behaviour and comes to the conclusion that two new concepts are generated in knowledge management, writing from a knowledge management perspective – \textit{interactive translation} and \textit{participative competence}. He goes even a step further by claiming, “\textit{the notions of tacit and explicit knowledge are not helpful categories to determine or describe the relative transferability of knowledge in cross-cultural ambiences.}” \textsuperscript{55} He refers instead to the three dimension of cultural knowledge dealt with in chapter 4.4.3. According to this quotation Holden leaves a generally recognised theory base, which can be considered a solid basis for the majority of all knowledge management approaches.

At this point one must place an objection, in that Holden with his development of knowledge management perspective does not produce any references to common knowledge management models. Thus his expositions do not orientate themselves in an organizational context nor structures or processes, which aim to a knowledge management System. It remains unclear, how knowledge goals are to be derived from the organization’s goals, and/or how cultural know-how can become core competence. Holden’s expositions remain rather theoretical in that he does not offer suggestions for the implementation of his ideas and with no concrete steps as to how his knowledge management perspective can be put into actual practice. A possible solution shall be undertaken in chapter 6.1.

How does the implementation of Holden’s knowledge management perspective appear?

Holden directs attention to the cross-cultural manager and the tasks with which he has to cope with: the manager as a communicator and as a global knowledge worker. According to his explanations it is the so-called soft skills of the manager which are exclusively highlighted.

\textsuperscript{55} Holden (2002, p285)
According to Holden it is the main task of the cross-cultural manager to create the best possible framework conditions for successful interactive translation. For this the manager needs participative competence. According to Holden participative competence is first needed to allow a suitable positive atmosphere to arise, in which intercultural transfer can prosper. This atmosphere is marked by a mutual acceptance, based upon adequate social competence. At the same time participative competence contains along side with cultural knowledge important communicative abilities, which - as already mention - go considerably beyond purely linguistic skills. Holden describes these communication abilities indirectly. He summarises the interference factors during communication under the concept Noise. Then he states that by the avoidance and extensive elimination of Noise, good communication comes about, and exactly therein participative competence exists.

However secondary suggestions are also missing here, which show how all this is to be put into practice. Holden places a very high requirement profile for the manager as an intercultural knowledge-worker. Besides business skills he shall have very high social and communicative competence, based upon multifaceted experience of many years standing, best combined with humanitarian and a classical education. It is left to the reader to consider how best these very comprehensive skills are to be acquired. Here it is ideal to introduce the area of coaching and training and which is also taken up later in this dissertation.

Taking the critical analysis a step further: now if by forming all necessary optimal framework conditions, and a productive and constructive Interactive translation can be reflected, what then is the result? Holden then talks about the creation of cross-cultural know-how, even describing this at one stage as core competence. This know-how is however to a large extent person-bound and therefore in the classic meaning tacit knowledge with all the difficulties of utilization. Holden’s intended avoidance of this concept as “not too helpful” does not appear to be quite plausible this point. In the interviews it was often stressed on this point how difficult it is expressing cross-cultural know-how, to formulate and codify so that it is made available for use for others. In this way it can only become an organizational resource. Here in the opinion of this author lies the strongest challenge to Holden’s knowledge management perspective.

A further inconsistency one finds when considering General Culture Knowledge. This knowledge is presupposed as a component of participative competence. It is of vital importance as an information basis, to allow a good a conversation atmosphere to arise in an intercultural environment. It is so to say, the basis or initial entrance for such situations. Where are the sources for this basic knowledge? Is it not offered at all in those innumerable training measures, learned and practiced which more or less all fall back to Hofstede? The obsolete culture shock prevention industry still seems to have an important task in the wide area of cross-cultural management.
5. FIELD RESEARCH - THE INTERVIEWS

5.1. Objectives of the interviews

With the interviews several goals should be achieved. The first goal was to examine Holden’s knowledge management perspective in a practical light. As shown in the previous chapter, there are many references which show that a simple practical realisation is doubted. The work of Holden is developed from four quite extensive case studies, with which he looks from a Cross-Cultural Perspective and then expanded upon from the viewpoint of knowledge management perspective. The interviews were aimed at looking for comparable clues in the chosen organizations and then comparing these with the expositions of Holden.

The questions where particularly aimed at identifying such interfaces in which intercultural knowledge transfer took or could take place. A further emphasis was put on the new vocabulary introduced by Holden (such as participative competence, interactive translation and cross-cultural know-how) and how such appear in practice or even how such vocabulary is already applied. Are these concepts only new wording for already applied methods and positions or is there an interest or need for such new approaches.

Parallel to these questions attention was directed to a further point during the interviews. Without explicitly asking the interviewee the answers were taken in connection with the question, what consequence or implications these could have on the wide-ranging area of consulting, training or coaching.

At this point it should again be pointed out to the fact that the evaluation of the interviews concern only very subjective statements of individual managers. These have delivered from the environment of their respective organizations valuable indications and insights into their work and experiences. Definitive representative statements of the questioned organizations is with this method is neither possible nor intended.

5.2. Gathering of Information Needed

To achieve these results, the interviews where, as set out in the guidelines, subdivided into 3 positions around the following questions:

1. The knowledge management practiced in an organization.
2. Of personal experiences in an intercultural context,
3. as well as the combination from both these areas.
5. The Interviews

P 1
Here quite generally was asked, what knowledge management systems exist in their organizations? How are these systems used, in so far as, are they the basis for decisions or coping of everyday work? How is available knowledge organized, codified, how is access regulated, how is data maintained and the system supplied? What technical solutions were/are selected for knowledge management? To what extent is knowledge management promoted or exemplified by the organization’s management, how is the value of these resources measured, to what extent are such resources internalised in corporate culture? How is available knowledge management evaluated from interviewees?

P 2
Here a large area was given to report on the individual intercultural experiences. Were there particularly positive or negative experiences (critical incidents). How have these experiences had an effect on a day-to-day basis, how have they become integrated, and what consequences have resulted therefrom? If exchange or reflection took place, if so in what form? What preparations were there in connection with intercultural applications and how was this promoted, push or pull-principle. Is or was there on the job support through training or coaching?

P 3
Where and how can one access cross-cultural knowledge in the organization, how is the need for information covered? Is this knowledge already established in the knowledge management and is there access thereto? Does there exist a network or platform from which cultural knowledge exchange takes place? How in practice is newly developed cultural knowledge passed on and/or made accessible to others? Is there debriefing of projects in view of cultural experiences?

5.3. Choice of Interviewees

As already mentioned in the Introduction only persons employed in companies which display a very strong international presence or which already belong to the so-called Global Players were considered. Because face-to-face contact is a preferential setting of in-depth interviews, they, the interviews were first taken up with contact to branch offices in the regional environment. It was frequently HR divisions which were named as the first contact persons. After the forwarding of Guidelines further Interviewees were there arranged. With some of the Interviewees (particularly with managers living abroad) the interviews took place via telephone.
So far as it was possible, with the selection of the Interviewees it was made certain that as large a multiplicity of factors as possible were considered. This concerned the areas of responsibility of the managers, their training and naturally the spectrum of the various foreign cultures.

In the appendix is to be found a tabular overview of the undertaken interviews.

As already mentioned in the introduction, the results of the interviews flow both in the critical analysis of Holden and into the expositions of chapter 6.

In addition in the following the results will be gone into in greater detail with respect to the companies BASF and ABB. The statements with regard to BASF are based upon two interviews.

5.4. BASF

The knowledge management of BASF is completely devoted to the Verbund philosophy. The German word Verbund\(^{56}\) stands for extensive cooperation being interwoven with each other within all areas of the organization. Verbund not only refers to the production department and their value adding chain, it encompasses individual branch offices such as the organized exchange and application of personnel resources.

In BASF, knowledge is organized in so-called competence-centres. There is an assigned competence centre for necessary topics and areas of responsibility. The relevant knowledge is by means of networking and dialogs collected and stored. Through a worldwide matrix organization the knowledge is task-specific available.

This applies to a special extent to the area of intercultural knowledge. cross-cultural management principles are explicitly embodied as intercultural competence in the BASF example.

With regard to intercultural and international operations there are possibilities for intensive preparations. Here the “pull” principle is heavily referred to, i.e., a manager with such ambitions is expected to show self-initiative and credible performance.

If these are forthcoming and they are evident, supervisor and personnel department working together examine which beneficial measures task-related are in addition granted. Here a broad spectrum is available. Starting from intercultural training sessions to preparing seminars up to coaching and sponsoring. With foreign assignments the partners upon request can also be involved with the training.

\(^{56}\) Not translated on the English version homepage
These specified measures can be designated according to Holden as general cultural knowledge as well as Cultural Specific Knowledge. Both these two forms of knowledge can be accessed in sufficient extent in BASF at any time. According to the statements of the two Interviewees, cross-cultural know-how derived from interactive translation will, to be more precise, be formed out of different situations, but however more in the sense of individual competence expansion. Systematic codifying does not take place. This individual bounded know-how is transmitted through personal exchanges. Here the personnel departments deliver assistance with supporting arrangements if desired.

5.5. ABB

The interview partner from ABB is an experienced sales manager of many years standing – area of responsibility South America, with emphasis on Brazil.

Despite its European roots ABB sees itself now as a global enterprise with English as the business language. Special value is put on autonomy and independence of the local units. Here a lot of individual playing-room is allowed, which promotes the integrity to ABB. With knowledge and know-how transfer one falls back to less hierarchical structures. It is a business goal, to persuade the local units of the benefit they can attain by European input for achieving of value-added.

ABB maintains a quite extensive knowledge management system. The basic columns form the IT solution Lotus Notes and the telephone. In the intranet files and databases every conceivable field of knowledge is deposited, access to which is regulated by access authorization. In the process net meetings, team and chat rooms are facilitated, at the same time there are extensive databases on persons who are available as know-how bearers and contact persons. A critical objection raised here is that this data abundance is so extensive that it becomes very difficult to retain quickly and suitably the desired and necessary information.

Cross-cultural management is consistently promoted by ABB as part of its corporate culture. The core thereof is the purposeful team building by meaningful exchange of employees. Already with the choice and placement of new employees are possible prospects provided to get to know many areas of the organization, including over-seas. Further a mentor is usually as a rule put at the disposal of new employees who passes on his advice and coaching experiences. The quite high entry investments of this individualized support are consciously accepted. A Corporate University offers supplemental possibilities to give further training on topics like personality education or negotiation leadership. Specific seminars with intercultural content are rarely offered. Here ABB completelybacks the principle of coaching. Coaching does not just take place in the preparatory phase but also
later “on the job”. It is expected from executives to impart their knowledge and experience in the context of coaching to other employees.

This principle is confirmed by the personal experiences of the Interviewee. Should merely prior learnt general cultural knowledge be practiced, this cannot lead to success. If an adaptation to a strange culture takes place only by the imitation of behaviours, this is experienced as phoney and un-authentic and is rejected. The experiences described here can be explained very well by Holden’s concept of interactive translation. It is confirmed that the gained know-how represents actual intercultural competence. However it turns out extremely difficult to profitably feed this acquired tacit knowledge in a suitable form into data banks. This confirms again the approach of ABB, imparting intercultural knowledge, individualized quite specifically as experience exchange in personal contacts.

5.6. Summary of further results

In this section some interview results or statements which were not mentioned in the expositions regarding BASF and ABB, shall be briefly highlighted.

All of the Interviewees could not fall back on or rely upon a comparable knowledge management system, also cross-cultural management was by no means firmly embedded in the organizations’ given examples. There were different gradations. All those questioned confirmed an existing data bank in the human resources area, which partially but not encompassing company networking stood at their disposal.

With regard to technical questions from the areas of R&D, Production and even IT, is was common, putting solutions down in knowledge management and receiving necessary data from it. There are differences here nevertheless in the manner of processing, the organization and access to such data. Thus it becomes very difficult in individual cases to attain currently needed information and in meeting demands.

None of the interviewed organizations processed a data bank system in which intercultural knowledge is stored and is organized and structured in topics and knowledge maps. Nevertheless employees can fall back on extensive help and support in the preparation of international assignments. This takes place usually in two ways. Firstly a direct link exists to the appropriate HR departments, or to external sources of information - in the sense of freely available general cultural knowledge - on the internet. Secondly extensive offers exist for externally undertaken intercultural training measures.
A somewhat surprising result attained when enquiring into intercultural teamwork. The Interviewees were selected under the criteria that they all practiced in some form or other multi-cultural co-operation. On no account were measures reported, of processes which were supported through offers of intercultural knowledge or know-how. Rather it was reported that it was those work-tasks with can be mastered together, which shaped co-operation and gave to the team suitable orientation. These proposition appears in Holden, he stresses that with today’s conditions of globalisation, different culture origin is to be seen not as a separation barrier, but rather as a chance and resource to be used.

Finally, two aspects to be mentioned, which remarkably were frequently brought up. Just as with the subject of intercultural learning all interlocutors prefer the personal contact for the exchange of knowledge as the favoured learning environment. Correspondingly a difficulty mentioned was that of putting into order, inter-human conflicts of employees from other cultures. It concerns thereby characteristics of individual personality, or does the corresponding employee react to these ways, because it corresponds to his cultural shaping.

57 Excluded are the Sales Manager
6. IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Implications on Consulting

In this chapter three areas shall be dealt with.

The first part is based upon the concept introduced by Holden’s interactive translation. These connections are graphically shown in Fig.14. This diagram forms the starting point for consideration, how can one have a knowledge management system implemented on this theoretical basis.

In the second part, Arthur D. Little’s Knowledge Management Approach with the focus on cultural knowledge is adapted.

The third part has analysis of, and recommendations for knowledge management, the contents of which have been derived for the most part from the interviews themselves.

6.1.1. Holden`ś KMP – a Suggestion for Implementation

The expansions seen in fig.16 take into account the new concepts introduced by Holden.

Culture is understood as knowledge, from this hereafter the three different domains of cultural knowledge must be taken into account. The model of interactive translation will therefore in the area of external general cultural knowledge be expanded upon, and which one is made accessibly directly with the knowledge management system. With the expositions in channel 3 specific cultural knowledge finds consideration.

Knowledge management doesn’t serve an end in itself it always orientates itself to the tasks to be fulfilled. When or where required it delivers access possibilities to currently required knowledge elements. At the same time it guarantees that in the daily course of events newly generated knowledge is recorded, saved and provided to others. Here the linking between an organization’s management and active corporate culture become visible. A cultural knowledge management system delivers valuable information for the planning of strategic orientation. At the same time it becomes a component of such strategy. Top management must promote and exemplify knowledge management, as well as creating the needed organizational conditions.
In Fig. 16 the represented connections shall be described in the following as channels and shall be explained in detail.

**Channel 1**
As the expositions in chapter 4.3 treat in detail, during the interactive translation, the acquired cross-cultural know-how flows directly to participative competence. Here this know-how is integrated and is then immediately available for further application. It is personally held knowledge, part consciously, part unconsciously acquired, thus is typical for tacit knowledge. Although according to Holden it is at this actual point that new knowledge is generated, this channel does not supply knowledge to the knowledge management system. This occurs with channel 2.

**Channel 2**
Only by converting the newly acquired tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge can it be utilized by others. Cross-cultural know-how must be identified as cultural knowledge, and must be structured and codified according to particular criteria. Only now in this form can it be utilized in a knowledge management system. In the interviews carried out the indications are, that probably the greatest difficulties for implementation may arise here. In chapter 6.3 these connections will be taken up.

**Channel 3**
Intercultural contacts are always integrated into quite concrete and specific working environments in which the central theme is the carrying out of tasks. Here cor-
porate culture and national culture mix with orientation towards actual business goals. Here specific cultural knowledge is acquired, e.g. with a target culture, adapted distribution channels and culture-specific marketing strategies.

Channel 4
This channel supplies the entrance to external sources of general cultural knowledge for example such as the internet, existing data banks, literature etc. also what must be mention here is the acquiring of knowledge through external experts, such as for example through intercultural training or coaching.

Channel 5
Here the two building blocks of Probst come into effect. Sharing/Distributing and Using knowledge. Available knowledge is recalled, integrated and used as participative competence.

Channel 6
The channel describes the interaction between business management and knowledge management. On the one hand cross-cultural management as a organizational resource is accessed on the other it is clear that cross-cultural management becomes part of the strategic orientation and thus part of the management system. This can turn out through the organization of enterprise specific adapted learning environment with networking and collaborative learning up to integration in Corporate Universities. Therefore this channel can also be looked at as a kind of double loop learning in the context of Argyris58.

6.1.2. Implementing Knowledge-Management

The following model modifies the knowledge management approach of Arthur D. Little and contains five dimensions which when implementing must find equal consideration. Here it is again pointed out that within the scope of this work no expositions/explanations are made with regard to the technical IT area of knowledge management. For a better understanding of the connections necessary, here the necessary tasks are merely indicated.

Content
What knowledge content is relevant for a firm’s competitiveness?
Where is existing knowledge not used?
Where are there knowledge gaps?

From the area of cultural knowledge and cultural know-how described in chapter 4.4.3. to be identified are the necessary knowledge and the knowledge gaps for

58 see Argyris, Schön (1978)
organizational and business tasks. A prioritisation should be carried out taking into account use and effort by the development of these knowledge potentials. What proves to be helpful is the definition of concrete aims, which shall be reached through the introduction of knowledge management. These goals must be embodied in and derived from the business strategy.

![Diagram](image_url)

**fig 17 knowledge management (adapted from ADL)**

**Context**

*In which structures can the contents be illustrated so as to give fast and simple access thereto?*

*To which knowledge maps can the contents be summarized?*

The task here is to allow efficient access to usually unstructured data. The structure to be developed has to be specifically coordinated with the respective company. A first pre-structuring can be carried out by the division of knowledge-carriers as well as fields of knowledge. In the next step the contents are organized into so-called knowledge-maps. These knowledge-maps supply hierarchical illustrations of sources of information and organizational structures. The knowledge is represented including its networking in text and/or diagram structured form. Thus a basis for efficient knowledge-retrieval-techniques and visual navigation systems develops. These Topics as important constituents have to be mentioned, without which a structured search for contents would not have been possible. Further constituents form associations, meaningful combinations between individual topics. The structure of the topics and key words must fully reflect the language of the organization.

**Processes**

*How do processes develop identification, preservation, distribution and use of (culture) knowledge? What organizational requirements arise from this?*
The process oriented model of the *Building Blocks of Knowledge Management* from Probst are again found here. In addition suitable mechanisms are selected for the support of these knowledge management processes. Firstly the process steps have to be described. Four steps can be summarized:

1. Identification and development.
2. Structures and codifying.
3. Distribution and usage.
4. Adoption and modification.

Thereafter it concerns the regulation of roles and responsibilities. A way must be found to make the cultural knowledge available and to filter out the essence of working routines.

The debriefing of a project can be a suitable means as to what shall be shown here in an exemplary process-sequence.

- Before such debriefing preparations are made by project leaders and knowledge managers. The available context structures form the first screen for pre-sorting, further newly defined structures must be added if necessary. Suitable and relevant topics are selected and sent out first of all per agenda.

- In the context of discussions and in personal exchanges between team and knowledge managers “lessons learned” results are treated and discussed, and implicated knowledge grasped.

- The knowledge is then judged on its usefulness and selected by relevance. Therewith it is condensed and compressed to be summarized in suitable knowledge components or constituents.

- Here the topic structure - described and prepared under the heading “context” - helps, both when purposefully filing away and when later retrieving the knowledge.

- Finally there takes place a meaningful networking of these structures. This happens for example through hyperlinks to suitable resources. Just as with cultural know-how, it offers references through team-rooms on the intranet, and or else lists of employees who are available for deepening personal experience exchange.

**Corporate Culture**

*Which aspects or characteristics of corporate culture support or hinder knowledge management?*
Possibly the most important aspect of the introduction to knowledge management may well be the support of top management, as well as their definition of priorities attached to knowledge management. Motivation and activation of employees are quite essential tasks, because to a large extent knowledge management stands or falls on the readiness of the employees to make their knowledge available and to make use of the knowledge of others. The style of management of a supervisor should promote this behaviour, and create a culture in which knowledge management is firmly embedded in the organization. In examples from the BASF and ABB the meaning and significance can be seen through knowledge management’s integration in the companies’ principles and values.

Infrastructure
*Which systems allow for the effective construction of a knowledge management solution? What requirements arise from this for IT infrastructure?*

The task of infrastructure is to guarantee the connection between the above mentioned dimensions. Therefore it should:

- reflect knowledge structures
- connect and bind structured and un-structured data
- permit global access
- be easy to use
- illustrate new processes and aspects
- fulfil local and global cultural needs
- make possible defined interfaces to existing systems
- illustrate the language of the organization
- integrate external data bank access.

With this task catalogue arise the software requirements, which are necessary for knowledge management. Additionally aspects, which should be taken into consideration are, on-line cooperation or support meetings, as well as the creation of team rooms, which should be taken into account in the IT solution.

6.1.3. Additional Aspects and Recommendations

In this section difficulties and barriers, which can occur during the introduction of a knowledge management system are dealt with. Firstly the indications can derived from the interviews and secondly such considerations are already to be found in the appropriate literature on knowledge management.

The following allocation to different levels should facilitate clarity, also in practice there is clear overlapping.
Level of the individual

The most frequently expressed reservation questions the use of such a procedure. A high expenditure of time is feared, without which this effort would not be rewarding. Depending upon the corporate culture, this knowledge is for the bearer of such knowledge merely status and power or a valuable building block for one’s own career. There is such a lack of confidence that, in the end, the passing on of knowledge and know-how brings in itself disadvantages.

Recommendations

Dispelling such obstacles requires indeed the readiness for basic changes. As known from the methods of Change Management, the employees should be included early in the planning phase. For the avoidance of resistance the building of relations and confidence should be promoted through personal meetings. The requirement for transparency is therefore always to be considered. From a technical point of view IT-support should be established as simply as possible, so that effort and use come into an acceptable relationship. Thus it brings advantages, at least in the introduction phase with incentives to work. The more a formal integration succeeds in the daily working routine, the more easier the advantages of such a system alone are later appreciated.

In connection with incentives a re-orientation or changing of one’s views during the performance review will also have to take place. Not the availability but the readiness for the passing on of knowledge should be included as a new criterion.

Level: Department, Groups, Team

It is in the group’s nature (consequently also with working groups, and teams) to disassociate from other groups. This allows for the possibility for its own identity and for the identification of members with their own group. However the introduction of knowledge management can also represent an obstacle. Thus there is competition between units with the known “not-invented-here” syndrome, linked with a scepticism of anything new and perhaps in addition an ignorance exists over the knowledge needs of others.

Recommendations

It applies here also: involve the people who are actually doing the work! There must be conviction of work so that the sharing of knowledge is rewarding. A re-orientation should not be aligned so as to use knowledge as a hierarchical means of power. The quality of an idea is to be evaluated more highly than that of source of knowledge. Enterprise-wide co-operation, the development of best practice networks up to the creation of special knowledge marketplaces, all of which should be supported by simple IT access.
Level Corporate Culture

Unfortunately during the interviews there were also indications that not all managers support and promote knowledge management, let alone one which contains intercultural aspects. Thus a corporate culture can be for the purposes of “unwritten rules” or “tacit expectation” counterproductive when a too narrow and formal view of productive work prevails. This can take on quite different forms. There is intolerance in relation to errors and ignorance, it is laid out as a weakness or incompetence for one to search for help or support, an informal, cooperative exchange is stopped by lack of appropriate venues for meetings, and the list goes on.

Recommendations

Without the often mentioned support from Top Management, an effective and profitable implementation of knowledge management, if it takes place, is only then possible under severe difficulties. Besides, not only the structures must be created but also new values must be arraigned. Decision-makers and managers have to be early on in a proper frame of mind for these new values, and already involved in the planning phase of specific projects.

This can have consequences up to the area of staff choice. It may not mean a status loss, if one dies not always know everything, creative mistakes find acceptance, successful co-operation projects acknowledgement and reward. Temporal and spatial possibilities are provided for active knowledge transfer, this can already happen quite practically by the setting up of rest areas for breaks near coffee machines up to the re-designing and ordering of offices. With support through IT, virtual team rooms or net meetings can also be established. As a possible strategy with the above introductions it is recommended to point to well operating reference solutions both selectively and organization-wide.

Aspects of personal Exchange

Sometimes the direct contact with an employee cannot be substituted. Personal meetings are the most important channels for the transfer of knowledge. Even when it is about the mediation of cross-culture know-how, it has to be taken into account that this knowledge is to a high extent implicit and tacit. It is not easy to consign it to documents or data banks or to codify. It remains largely unstructured. At this point it is again referred to, to ABB where cultural knowledge management promotes personal exchange specifically amongst employees. Across the intranet not only are extensive forums and networks offered, but also specific topics with contact person(s) who are ready to impart their knowledge and assigning of corresponding information.
6.2. Implications on Training

This chapter is devoted to expositions on intercultural training. A detailed treatise of this topic would increase the framework of this dissertation out of all proportions, so numerous and versatile is the literature and existing concepts. This therefore is only a brief overview of intercultural training. In the second part the mutual influence existing between intercultural training and Holden’s knowledge management perspective are analysed. First and foremost, there are practically no references or indications that existing intercultural training needs to be modified by Holden’s ideas.

6.2.1. Components of Intercultural Training

Fig. 18 illustrates the connection between the components of intercultural training, which are explained in the following detail:

fig 18 the intercultural trainer model

59 Source: Fowler, Mumford (1999)
6.2. Implications on Training

**Culture**
Culture encompasses the complete model. Every single component is influenced by culture. Mumford illustrates this impressively with the following picture: if culture where a colour, green for example, than everything in this culture circle would accordingly be dyed green. This has of course a corresponding influence on the Trainer.

**Trainer**
It is exactly these connections, which a Trainer must always be aware of. Regarding the tasks of an intercultural trainer, comprehensive self-experience and self-knowledge is necessary. The Trainer knows the basis of his own values and assumptions and he knows how these affect his behaviour and action patterns. He can make a distinction between cultural influence and his own personality and naturally knows his own limitations. In addition he partakes on an on-going basis in self-reflection processes and seeks regular feedback.

**Content**
The Intercultural Trainer has an ability to put into use of the necessary theories. Psychology, communication and mediation bases are likewise familiar to him, as are the general and specific cultural knowledge concepts as introduced in this work.

**Design**
Sure and familiar dealing with the required theory helps him draw up for training suitable situations designs. Structure and processes are co-ordinated with the target group. At the same time however so much flexibility is expected so that a pre-defined training concept can be spontaneously modified, adapted or redesigned and where necessary completely formed anew.

**Resources**
Resources are developed early and in the course of time are constantly extended. This is necessary, in order to ensure that the training is up to date. Especially with the forming of area specific training, it is absolutely essential to have the necessary bases comprehensively and correctly investigated.

**Methods**
An extensive, well filled bag of methods belongs to the skills of an intercultural trainer, the following shall, in short key-words, list these in the broadest spectrum.

- case studies
6.2. Implications on Training

- small group exercises
- role plays
- simulation games
- critical incidents
- cultural assimilator (or more aptly named intercultural sensitizer)
- self-awareness inventories
- videotapes
- area specific trainings

6.2.2. Considerations Beyond

As a result from the interviews it can be held that intercultural training has a firm place in cross-cultural management, at least with all the so-called global players. As a rule, it is then used when definite foreign commitments of an employee is due. Here it is also quite usual to include the employee's spouse in the training. Intercultural training in connection with the improvement of team-culture in multicultural work groups was not mentioned by any of the interviewees.

The in-house interface to training is the Personnel Department. There exists depending upon the organization, subsections which are specialized in the area cross-cultural management. Intercultural training offers are predominantly through external trainers with the appropriate co-operation agreements – in the case of Siemens even with their own on-site offices. It is of surprise just how few there are of actual intercultural training offers through corporate universities.

So how is this knowledge brought into a knowledge management system? The answer is short. Not at all or only indirectly. As a rule, an enormous supply of external training measures can be accessed through the in-house intranet, and sorted by countries, topics or trainers. Of course the knowledge content themselves are only conveyed through active participation in the training. The result is not by any means surprising. So it is just the nature of the training that knowledge contents in an interactive setting are made experienceable. If is offered in the training possibilities to internalise cultural knowledge content in self-reflecting learning processes. Therefore the emphasis is considerably on the acquisition of experience knowledge and not on cognitive knowledge. Or as Nonaka says: in these settings should mainly tacit knowledge be acquired through a process of socialization.

We now turn to the implications in connection with Holden's knowledge management perspective. Here two areas can be agreed on, where intercultural training is purposefully used, namely the domains of cultural knowledge as well as the promotion of soft skills of the intercultural manager.

Even though Holden was one or more times disparaging of the “culture shock prevention industry”, the talk was - in the opinion of this Author - that intercultural
training was a very suitable measure, finding both general and specific cultural knowledge for the participants, and integrates and makes this new knowledge (at least partially) practicable and experienceable. This meaning is also indirectly claimed by Holden, by his calling of the above mentioned knowledge as a substantial condition of participative competence.

The requirement for the development of soft skills, i.e. the communicative and social competence, points to the fact for the use of intercultural training. Holden stresses the meaning of the atmosphere in an intercultural meeting. The Cross-cultural Manager shall form such an atmosphere, which is beneficial for interactive translation. He should bring his ability to be sensitive to the foreign cultural qualities of his opposite number and to be able to grasp the intercultural context correctly. It is upon these bases with which interactive translation is based.

Here now a certain inconsistency in the argument arises. Sensitivity for the creation of a suitable atmosphere, as claimed by Holden, presupposes a deep understanding and knowledge of the other culture. Right here the concept, culture as essence and culture as difference become (in special measure) clear. Right here fortunately there is quite a large offer of training methods.
6.3. Implications on Coaching

6.3.1. Delimitation for Training

Despite the undisputed meaning of inter-culture training, there are always situations in which one cannot do without individual advice. The various training modules are particularly suited for delving into the topic of intercultural behaviour. The knowledge imparted here corresponds to general cultural knowledge. Additionally there are module offers for the receptiveness and (self)awareness, both for one’s own culture background and the target culture. However mostly with training setting, the timeframes are usually little limited and are not cut to size for specific needs of individual participants. Also training cannot deal with the different learning styles and individual personality structures. Further prior intercultural experiences are not taken into account. Here however the need for a more thorough consideration is insisted upon in order to improve the individual action ability in critical situations or to avoid such in the first place. For this reason an individualised and adapted form of intercultural learning was developed, *intercultural coaching*.

Before I delve into intercultural coaching in greater detail, the meaning of coaching shall be clarified in the following.

6.3.2. Overview Coaching

The term coaching is variously used today so that the concept - that which must be understood by it - is often no longer clearly understood. Formerly coaching typically referred to sport, it is today partly used and normally found in consultation discussions. This alone raised the need to provide a more exact demarcation and definition.

According to Rauen\(^60\) coaching can be taken to mean a combination of individual, problem-solving support, and personal advice at process level for different professional and private requests. The basic aim then is one of self-help and self-responsibility. Coaching is not a one-sided process in which the coach works on the problems of the client. Coaching is, on the basis of a transparent and trusting relationship, an interactive process, during which the resources of the client are awoken and in such a way that it leads to the implementation of adequate problem solutions. The coach should not impose his own views and ideas on the client, but rather his position should remain natural and independent. Among current situate context, prior professional experiences as well as biographic background also become the object of consideration. Thus coaching becomes a process whose purpose or goal is the process of improvement or the extension of perception, experi-

\(^{60}\) see Rauen (2002, pp68)
ence and behaviour of the client. Therefore the process as a rule takes place over several meetings and from the point of view of time is limited.

A coach is an advisor with qualified training, psychological as well as economic knowledge. Therefore it is not necessary to have at one’s disposal the specialist knowledge of the client. Therein the coach should have practical experience, be able to access situations soundly and be qualified to advise so that he the client can find again his abilities for self-regulation, so that a good coach makes himself in the end superfluous.

**Different coaching variants**

Here we look at the types of and origins of the coach and then the possible setting in which the coaching takes place.

As a rule coaches work in three person groups:

1. The organization-external coach: A self-employed or an employee of a consultation firm and who mainly works with different organizations.

2. The staff-coach: An internal employee who specializes in and whose main job is coaching

3. The line-coach: a supervisor whose coaching tasks form only part of his leadership duties, that those coached are directly under his supervision, otherwise known as supervisor coaching.

Possible setting considerations come in four areas:

1. Individual-Coaching: The typical one-on-one advice situation

2. Group-Coaching: This coaching takes place simultaneously within a group of people, who however must not have a particular function connection.

3. Team-Coaching: Unlike group coaching the persons are involved in direct job roles. Coaching as a rule takes place in a direct work related environment.

4. Project-Coaching: This is a special form of team-coaching. Here the coach’s help is directed towards the implementation of projects. Also where necessary group or single settings may be combined. Further the interaction of internal and external coaches is conceivable.
As we see from table 9, many conceivable possibilities arise, however not everyone is useful and practicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manner of the coach</th>
<th>Individual Coaching</th>
<th>Group Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>External coach</strong></td>
<td>A common and established variant, e.g. Coaching for (top) executives or self-employed persons</td>
<td>A common and established variant for the cooperation of groups, e.g. as an accompanying measure of team development processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal staff coach</strong></td>
<td>An ever more popular variant for internal staff development of executives of lower to mid level</td>
<td>A still further developing variant, e.g. the collaboration of internal and external coaches particularly with large or many groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervisor as a coach (Lines -- coach)</strong></td>
<td>Original variant, only lower rank employees as the target group are considered as part of the development orientated executive duty.</td>
<td>As a rule, it is not part of the tasks of an executive since it exceeds his competence and time frame</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here for completion are some additional aspects.

**Individual coaching through external coaching**
Executives frequently lament a lack of substantial feedback. In their business environment there are - if at all - few suited people to reflect with and to exchange opinions. This can lie, on the one hand, with the fact that the private sphere of individual and confidential problems require the necessity of protection. On the other hand there may be the fear that incapability or incompetence are validated and one could then loose face. In group situations relevant or specialized topics dominate, here one behaves rather tactically and strategically and therefore one can never exclude the factor self representation.

In such cases the external coach provides the possibility for an outside view for new momentum without the risk of business blindness. At the same time he guarantees secrecy and intimacy also when searching for fully new ways of organization innovation. The factors independence, discretion and confidence speak out for the choice of external coaches.

**Internal coaching**
Always when exact knowledge of organizational processes or deeper insights into internal conditions are required the internal coach is preferable. These measures

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61 source: Rauen (2002, p71)
have over time been established to be an appropriate instrument for personal development.

It is necessary to take into account though, that this concept only functions in conjunction with an appropriate personnel culture. Otherwise doubts and mistrust could arise with regard to neutrality or discretion. Also the danger of stigmatisation exists, if coaching is understood in the sense of obvious backwardness in the area of competence. Under no circumstances should internal coaching be combined with performance evaluation or career planning.

Therefore with this coaching more technical oriented study partnerships for junior executives who are mainly involved with project support predominates. It is less suitable for senior executives as they are unlikely to accept an internal colleague as an equal partner in such a setting.

**Supervisor as coach**

Although this variant is the origin of the coaching, it is not indisputable. Positively, is that for the executive the responsibility for his employees is clarified and the cultivating of an acceptable relationship is stressed. The employee receives the exact befitting support for the expected requirement profile.

However critical aspects predominate. Supervisor coaching comes from the USA and is not suitable for every culture here the explanations of the culture dimension, *power distance*, take effect. This setting is made all the more difficult with the question of the voluntarily wanting and readiness to talk about difficult personal interests. These fears cannot be dismissed out of hand, as it may appear that one is not qualified enough or that one’s requirements do not suffice.

**6.3.3. Intercultural Coaching**

As it follows from the concept, there is an additional dimension to the complexity. According to Barmeyer it is the aim of intercultural coaching firstly sensitise the existing culture differences and to convey knowledge about the target culture. These bases allow for the client an adequate and purpose-oriented action in intercultural situations. In this way cultural differences are seen not just as a cause for misunderstandings and difficulties, but as a chance for effective and complementary collaboration. This agrees with Holden’s explanations in chapter 4.1.

**Choice of the right coach**

At first the question arises as to the cultural origin of the coach. Where the coach belongs to the culture of the client it is advantageous because through the culture proximity and common mother tongue a stable and confident relationship is built.

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62 see Barmeyer in Rauen (2002 pp199)
and there is a greater ability to understand the interests of the client. Possibly however behaviour may be harder for both coach and client to understand as they can result in possible problems when they are from another culture. Always then, when it concerns a deeper understanding and more exact knowledge of the modus operandi of a foreign-culture, is a coach from the target culture preferred.

**Qualifications of the Intercultural Coach**
Firstly the usual standard of qualifications for a coach are needed. Add to it knowledge and experience from the areas therapy, psychology and management. It is part of the bases of consultant/advice-experience, and besides having a distinctive communication ability, a methodical repertoire is also needed. To coach in the intercultural area additional broader abilities are needed: lengthy foreign stays, a good knowledge of human nature, general cultural knowledge in the sense of cultural awareness as well as cultural dimensions, particularly important however is distinctive specific knowledge and experiences of the target culture.

**Starting Point of Intercultural Behaviour**
This situation is marked by the fact that the protagonists of both cultures have only incomplete information and knowledge. It is only a small cut-out which is visible which is affected by the effective factors in the background (see different culture models in chapter 3.1). This can lead to wrong expectations, to misunderstandings and wrong interpretations.

Here it is the coach’s task at hand to dilate upon the characteristic complexity, non-transparency, incompleteness and the dynamic viewpoint of the other culture. It is necessary to give the client a better understanding of both one’s own and the foreign culture. Both for one’s own and for the foreign culture an enlarged view is to be obtained.

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63 source: Barmeyer in Rauen (2002 p209)
The necessary for cultural self-awareness is well represented by Richard Lewis. He speaks here of culture horizons. In the following illustration it is clearly expressed how we with the perception of our own culture have our own _blind spots_ outside the conscious perception\(^{64}\). To cite Hofstede again Culture is to a large part unconsciously programmed, taken-up and internalised, and then to become a matter of course. For these reasons we are not always aware of our own cultural coinage.

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\(^{64}\) Lewis (1996)

\(^{65}\) source: _ibid_ p103
Intercultural competence.
It is the aim of intercultural coaching to increase the intercultural competence of the client. It shall become an efficient, successful behaviour into foreign culture overlapping situations, i.e. where different cultures collide. Before the intervention possibilities of the coach are looked into we must first examine what is meant by intercultural competence.

In Literature there are different approaches to this subject, which at long last arrive at the same conclusions. Thus Martin (1987) examined this topic on the basis of four intercultural competence dimensions: 66

1. awareness of self and culture
2. awareness of implications of cultural differences
3. interpersonal flexibility
4. ability to facilitate communication

Gudykunst, Wisemann and Hammer (1977) developed a three-factor model of cross-cultural attitude including the following variables:

1. cognitive, stereotypes of the other culture
2. affective, ethnocentrism
3. cognitive, behavioural intentions 67

The above model was taken up by Barmeyer (2000) and was further developed as seen from the following graph:

![Intercultural Competence Diagram](source: Barmeyer (2000) in Rauen (2002))

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66 see Dinges, Baldwin (1996)
67 *ibid*
1. Affective Level
Here we speak of personal attitudes. Intercultural competence is often associated with social competence. Of great importance here is, in the broader sense a distinctive communication ability, just as it is also needed in an mono-cultural environment. In addition here we name positive emotional attitudes towards foreign and one’s own culture and which are usually called self-awareness and cultural awareness.

2. Cognitive level
This level contains the wide area of knowledge to do with cultural backgrounds. The categories of a culture’s values and dimensions of another culture should be just as well known as the specific knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication styles or cultural methods of the target culture. With this it then becomes easier in arranging and interpreting strange behaviour correctly.

3. Behaviour
To be effective, the personality features described in the affective and cognitive levels need successful implementation into the respective intercultural situation. Intercultural competence can thus be understood as the successful adjustment and application of these abilities. The behaviour is then determined by the ability to combine affective and cognitive competence respectively.

Step model of intercultural competence

With intercultural coaching it is of significance that the coach together with the client reflect upon past experiences, how these are arranged and evaluated and the attitudes which result therefrom. Here intercultural socialization and the degree of sensitisation of the foreign culture is looked at. This is the subject of much intercultural training. Of course in addition to this the coach can pick up individual action and interpretation patterns. These patterns can be processed and made accessible for new learning processes against the background of personal biography.

Milton Bennett developed a model in which six different steps of this sensitisation process are assigned. A development takes place from ethnocentrism – a basis which is very much related to one’s own culture – to ethno-relativism, a tolerant, respectful openness in relation to foreign cultures.\(^\text{69}\)

\(^{69}\) Bennett (1993)
The three steps of ethnocentrism are:

1. Denial
   The cultural differences are perceived either not at all or only very selectively and superficially. The behaviour is restricted to known culture structures, hardly any interaction possibilities exist. In this step are usually only such persons who have none or only very limited contact to a foreign culture.

2. Defence
   Cultural differences are perceived but openly refused because they are considered dangerous to one’s own culture. Negative stereotype clichés are maintained.

3. Minimization
   Differences are also recognized here, but are neither denied nor fended off unlike the previous steps, but explained as insignificant and minimal. While the common characteristics are stressed, one’s own cultural background needs are not longer called into question.

With the shift of view from one’s own culture to the foreign culture, a more openness and tolerance is usually learned and developed. One’s own culture no longer stands alone in the centre.

Here begins the level of ethno-relativism.

4. Acceptance
   The most important characteristic of this step is that positive and negative assessments are replaced by an attitude of neutrality. Now cultural differences are recognized and are unbiased which is also reflected in corresponding behaviour and communication.

5. Adaptation
   Since cultural differences are accepted as unbiased, this phase is about being able to appreciate, to learn and to integrate one’s own behaviour more and more. We are not talking here about mere imitation, on the contrary the spectrum of possible action competence enlarges itself under retention of one’s own cultural identity.

6. Integration
   On the basis of unprejudiced, constructive and - where necessary - critical dealings with cultural differences, aspects of a foreign culture are integrated in one’s own personality development.
With this model it can be estimated at the beginning of a coaching process which degree is given to the consciousness and sensibility with regard to the individual development with the client. The complexity of intercultural competence is due to the fact that each of the parties involved show a different level and these previous intercultural experiences have to be taken into account by the coach. On this basis the first interventions are built.

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6.3.4. Coach - Intervention possibilities

The intervention possibilities of the intercultural coach orientates itself to Bar-
meyer` model of intercultural competence (see fig. 21). Here however some adaptations were carried out. The author is of the opinion it is not sensible to describe the cognitive and affective area as sequential consequence. Rather these areas stand in constant interaction and brings reactions to light, which then become visible behaviour. Here the circle closes. This behaviour is then brought in as an intervention into intercultural context and thus becomes a component of a new situation.

Starting Point
frequently forms a problematic situation, a so-called critical incident. The behaviour or the reaction of the participants seem difficult to understand, such behaviour or reaction does not fit in with personal background experiences to date. There is no congruence with one's own experience, in addition perhaps the situation even
contradicts it. It cannot be arranged or compartmentalised and understood or only with difficulty.

The **cognitive side** cannot provide satisfactory explanation models, which could resolve this tension. Old experiences no longer suffice for convincing interpretations.

An **emotional reaction** follows. A whole sequence of feelings can be aroused. The spectrum can reach from uncertainty to frustration, annoyance, rage, and faint up to resignation.

This emotional reaction manifests itself in the form of **behaviour**, where verbal and non-verbal are communicated with a communication/relationship breakdown. This is interpreted in turn for his part by the other participant as being inappropriate, with further corresponding consequence for the critical situation outcome.

At this point coaching begins.

The first step concerns the analysis of critical incidents. In this phase it is the first intervention of the coach to go into the rather passive role of the listener. It concerns client understanding and the building of confidence. After mutual expectations of the common processes are cleared, the personal experience background of the client is to examine. Here biographic, intellectual together with prior intercultural experiences influence such examinations. It comes to an exchange with the inner values of the client. Behaviour and reaction models are identified and have to be understood. With increasing realization of logic, which hides itself behind these patterns, the client attains a deeper understanding as to how he comes to his interpretations. He learns to analyse his own behaviour and opens up for new views and outlooks.

One calls this procedure **unfreezing** the former being reference framework. It is the task of the coach now to give the corresponding input at the cognitive level. Here all his knowledge in an intercultural context as well as the above dimensions and value categories are used. At this point the expositions from chapter 3 are referred to and emphasized particularly again that this knowledge must be part of the indispensable component of tools of an intercultural coach.

This newfound knowledge forms the initiation for new realization and insights. With these enlarged interpretation possibilities, intercultural context can be interpreted differently, the client attains a changed view of a strange culture, to the extent that he understands the foreign and unknown and can come to a reassessment and modification of his own behaviour. **Reframing** occurs, a re-ordering of observations, new connections and a combining of all prior experience.
All this will influence the next intercultural situation, and becomes with the next meeting of the coach the subject of evaluation. In the process these new learning experiences are deepened or where necessary modified. With these interventions client and coach will compile common solution methods with the goal of making modified and adapted behaviour possible, which does justice to the requirements of the foreign culture. Thus one can react to critical situations differently, with suitable action strange situations can be influenced in a new way. If in the approach such situations are already properly weighed-up, many a future critical incident can be avoided.

### 6.3.5. Considerations Beyond

After it was extensively explained in the preceding sections, how coaching in an intercultural context can have such considerable meaning, the reference to knowledge management perspective shall now be briefly established.

As already adequately explained, Holden demands in this connection the expansion of personal competences, both communicative and social. Typically it is soft skills, which become a large part of coaching. Here in-depth reflection processes can be initiated, which take up questions or topics from Interactive translation. Thereby can coaching become a support measure to promote and protect the acquisition of cross-cultural know-how.

This also applies to the interface of utilization of this knowledge. As is in the meantime well known there is know-how bound to persons as tacit knowledge, and must in an externalisation process be made explicit. Coaching could, along side the otherwise predominant reflection work, take on a special form. It could be conceivable, in the context of project-debriefing to codify task orientated coaching with the aim cross-cultural know-how and thereby made accessible and usable for others.

In conclusion to go back again to the interview with the ABB Manager. Here a variant of coaching is carried out which is judged rather sceptically particularly in the German culture zone and that's why it still does not find wide common acceptance. The talk is one of coaching through the supervisor. It seems that intercultural competence can in this way be successfully imparted. Coaching is then understood as a kind of counselling or training on the job in an intercultural environment. According to the statements of ABB, these initially quite high investments soon pay off, in that the required competences are considerably faster arranged and therefore the newly won resources can be put quicker into action.
7. CONCLUSION

The summary of the results begins with the question, what Holden understands from his own introduced knowledge management perspective.

He describes a new position of cross-cultural management, which is not just about the management of culture differences. Rather culture becomes the subject of the management. He defines culture as knowledge, which represents a resource for an organization. He examines the interfaces of intercultural meetings and claims that with the interactions taking place there, new, and additional knowledge is being formed. He applies the principles of knowledge management to this knowledge, to make this resource available within the organization and to draw use from it.

In the process Holden takes several more steps.

He begins with the analysis of conventional positions of culture. These approaches are based on anthropological bases and are taken up by Hofstede in this well-known and comprehensive empirical study. The results of this study formed the foundation for cross-cultural management over the years. Today through the development of globalisation these aspects are no longer up to date. He defines culture in a new way as verities of common knowledge. To utilise and foster this knowledge within an organization he describes six main tasks for Cross-cultural Management:

- Cross-cultural transfer of knowledge, experience and values
- Collaborative cross-cultural learning
- Cross-cultural networking
- Interactive translation
- Development of participative competence
- Creation of collaborative atmosphere

Thus he had simultaneously established new concepts – or as he calls it a new vocabulary – which for him form the core of his knowledge management perspective. They are the concepts interactive translation, participative competence and cross-cultural know-how. These new concepts steer on the one hand, the focus on the tasks which the manager has to fulfil as an intercultural knowledge-worker, as well as the competence which is needed for it. These competences demanded of Holden are almost all assigned to the area soft skills. He emphasizes the meaning of comprehensive social and communicative abilities, which together with a cultural knowledge basis forms the participative competence. These create a suitable frame and atmosphere for productive cross-cultural knowledge transfer and interactive translation. From this process arises a new cultural knowledge, the cross-cultural know-how. With this know-how Holden sees a valuable resource for the organization.
7. Conclusion

What consequences does this new knowledge management have for area of cross-cultural management?

As mentioned, this perspective is focused on the manager as the person dealing with. Holden wants sensitivity for interpersonal human relations in an intercultural environment. These meetings create beyond task orientation, various possibilities of learning from each other: cross-cultural knowledge transfer for mutual use. His expositions are characterised by a humanistic ethic, these values are a component of his demanded competences. Therefore one can interpret Holden as having consciously turned away from “one-business-world-culture” At his point his knowledge management perspective places clear momentum in the direction of corporate culture and demands an anchorage in business management, i.e. in an organization model.

Unfortunately these arguments remain merely on a theoretical level. Holden gives no indication as to how the required change-process should be initiated. Whoever seeks approaches, such as how his concepts can be implemented in a knowledge management system or how cultural knowledge should be structured, i.e. codified, shall find no answers in this book. The strong orientation to social and communicative competence does not quite do justice to a further situation. During the conducting of the interviews, the applicability of these concepts were doubted by managers from engineering or IT areas. The multi-cultural co-operation within a team was much more ingrained through the aim of their team –objectives, than through the acquisition of cultural know-how.

Is this really a new approach?

This question has to be answered in the affirmative, when one looks at the new definition of culture as knowledge or else also the new vocabulary. As far as this author is aware, there are also no arguments, which examine intercultural communication upon this theory basis.

By no means are the approaches new, to regard cultural knowledge as resource or the integration of cultural skills in knowledge management. The meaning of a changed view of cross-cultural management to a component of strategic adjustment by top management, or the anchorage in corporate culture is already found in earlier attempts. Thus to name for example, Business Driven Intercultural Management™, concerning which Rolf-Dieter Reineke has already in 2001, met in large parts with corresponding or similar statements.71

Still it remains, in the end to look at a point of Holden`s knowledge management perspective critically. Just as through the derivation of his new culture definition and in the course of later treatises, Holden distances himself from – in his opinion – Hofstedian`s out-dated culture concepts and training methods based thereon.

71 Reineke in Reineke, Fussinger (2001, p 5-19)
Here a certain inconsistency must be noticed. Here at the very latest, with his expositions on general cultural knowledge as well as the importance of a positive atmosphere, Holden must go back further on exactly these existing concepts.

Implications on consulting

As already mentioned Holden does not provide any concrete explanations as to how his approaches are or can be put into practice. An attempt is undertaken by this author, and suggestions made, how can cultural knowledge management, with the inclusion of Holden’s new concepts be outlined. To give recommendations for a practical implementation, an existing knowledge management approach of Arthur D. Little has in addition to be referred back to, which when so adapted, cultural knowledge can also be grasped. A great challenge on the road to implementation will be to meaningfully structure, codify and to put into a knowledge map Holden’s cross-cultural know-how. It is the nature of this know-how to predominantly encompass tacit knowledge and connected with all the difficulties of making this available in databases.

Implications on training

The knowledge management perspective of Holden has in the view of this author no appreciable influence on existing training concepts. Neither during the conducting of the interviews or the study of existing literature could indications be found that there is here a need for change. Therefore there is not a necessity to modify existing modules, or to judge them as superfluous or even renounceable. Existing contradictions with Holden were already indicated, if one takes seriously his claims after general and specific cultural knowledge. But also in view of the competence expansion demanded by him in the matter of soft skills can training only be renounced with difficulty. For example one must mention here programmes for cultural awareness or self-awareness inventories.

Implications on coaching

More attention was dedicated within the scope of this dissertation to the subject coaching. This has several reasons. Firstly in the interview with the manager of ABB a very convincing call almost a plea for positive use of coaching was given. This stands in contrast to all the remaining interviews, in the course of which the interviewees attached only a subordinated role to coaching. The next reason lies in the meantime, in the adequately mentioned demands for the development of social and communicative competences in connection with Holden’s concepts.

72 With reference to the limitations of the research method, this is not a representative statement.
Here in the opinion of this author coaching provides suitable means to deepen, in an individual setting in personal exchange, specifically intercultural studying experiences. Therefore the recommendations are designed to attract a more frequent application of coaching. The initially little higher investment expenditure of time and money is justified in that through coaching, an optimal possibility for attaining the exact needed competences and reflecting personal behaviour is on offer.
Appendix 1  Interview Guideline

INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

Preliminary Statement

Within the framework of my MBA dissertation (field of Study: International Management Consultant) I delved into the wide-ranging subject “International Management”. In this regard I wish to examine how far cultural knowledge, or rather cultural know-how-supported by the principal knowledge management- can be utilized by an Organization.

Having with the help of literature attained an overview of the subject, I find it imperative to gain an insight into this topic from a professional/expert, who was or still is involved in this context, specifically, besides the classical foreign experience, but also intercultural project or teamwork and in special individual cases virtual.

The following questionnaire is built around the structure of the interview, this may be modified to make the empirical evaluation clearer. Above and beyond this there should be enough flexibility to consolidate specific main points. I would therefore ask you to kindly answer the following questions with your background of experience and where possible with the help of your organization’s own insight. I would also be grateful for any supplementary information, either in written form or reference to applicable publications.

Should you wish, I am of course most happy to let you have a copy of the dissertation.

Course Of The Interview

I hope you shall appreciate that for the proper evaluation of the meeting a record is necessary, but of course all such material shall be held in confidence. Should you so wish your personal anonymity and or that of your organization shall be kept. The minutes of such meeting I shall share with you for the purposes of editing, supplementing and permission of use. You shall then be able to decide which and in what form imparted information may be used in my dissertation.

The interview should take between 1 to 1.5 hours.
Appendix 1  Interview Guideline

Introduction

It would be in this context of significant value for me to ascertain—so as to have a better understanding and easier interpretation—your professional background, company position or rank and duties thereof.

Knowledge Management

How is your organization’s knowledge managed?

e.g.
- How is knowledge management in your firm/business organized, in particular how is it integrated into the structure of the business
- Who is charged with responsibility
- What is his/her input/influence in the area
- How is your knowledge database structured and who has access thereto

Intercultural Context

In which context (e.g. foreign countries, projects, teams etc.) have you had experience?

How do you value or judge these experiences

Are there examples of particularly positive or negative experience encountered?

Was or is there systematic preparation/accompaniment/reflection in conjunction with these elements?

- Training – what forms
  - Coaching
  - What experience/knowledge can you glean therefrom

Culture and knowledge management

Which data sources in the context of intercultural activities can you access?

How is cultural know-how systematized, codified and stored?

- What access to existing practical knowledge have you
- Is there a platform, forum or network etc. for cooperative exchange
- How can you pass on specific experience

What would you—with regard to your own personal experience—wish?
## INTERVIEW PARTNERS LISTING

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<th>Managers Department</th>
<th>Dealings with foreign cultures</th>
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73 [translated title]


[local thinking, global acting: intercultural cooperation and global management]


[Mintzberg about management: mythos and reality of management and organization]

[transference of knowledge – not as a matter of course. In: knowledge transfer in organizations]

Mittelmann, A. (2001) [www.artm-friends.at/am/km/basics/mod-schueppel-d.html](http://www.artm-friends.at/am/km/basics/mod-schueppel-d.html)

[knowledge-orientated management: adding value through knowledge]


[managing knowledge: how organizations utilize their most valuable resource]

[handbook of coaching]

[intercultural management: concepts – consulting – training]


[knowledge management: organizational learning within tensions of knowledge and learning barriers]


[organizational change-management in practice]

[systemic knowledge management]
Confirmation

I confirm that I have written the dissertation independently and without any unauthorized assistance. All publications employed in the writing of this dissertation have been cited accordingly as sources and noted in the bibliography.

Neustadt, 14.10.2003

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