

MODULE IV

UNIT 14

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATING MANAGERS Crossing the cultural Rubicon

So what exactly is culture? Alan Maley focuses on the content and aims of the cultural syllabus.

A major problem in the teaching of culture is the breadth of potential subject matter. Many attempts have been made to carve up the best to make it more digestible (1). The simplest and perhaps most useful is Hammerly's 1982 classification (2). He distinguishes between:

- Information (or factual) culture, i.e. the sorts of things an average native speaker knows, including history, geography, general knowledge, etc.
- Behavioural culture, i.e. the way people typically behave towards each other, their attitudes and values. This includes body-language and conversational formulae and the way these are combined in successful communication.
- Achievements (or accomplishment) culture, i.e. artistic and literary achievements; (traditional Culture with a capital C).

Six aspects

Stern (3) also tried to keep the areas for cultural syllabuses to manageable proportions. He isolates just six aspects for culture teaching:

1. Places – native speakers personal geography.
2. Individual persons, with a focus on people, how they live, and what they think, value and do.
3. People and society in general: the way society functions and how social, economic, professional, regional, age, sex, ethnic, and religious groups interact within it.

4. History: not only the objective facts but the perceptions and beliefs native speakers have about their own history.
5. Institutions, including the system of government, education, social welfare, the law, the media, etc.
6. Art, music, literature and other major achievements. (Hammerly's Achievement culture.)

Teaching aims

Turning from the syllabus content for culture to the aims of teaching it, there seem to be three main aims:

- to *raise awareness* of cultural features (both similarities and differences);
- to *modify behaviour* to take account of these features;
- to *impart knowledge* about the other culture;

These aims encompass Bloom's affective, cognitive and psychomotor domains (4). If we apply these aims to Stern's six categories, the major emphases would seem to be:

1. Places – Awareness (and Knowledge);
2. Individual persons – Awareness (and Behaviour);
3. Society – Awareness (and Behaviour);
4. History – Knowledge (and Awareness);
5. Institutions – Knowledge (and Awareness);
6. Achievements – Knowledge.

Student priorities

Clearly what we decide to emphasise will depend on the priorities of students. These will be very different, for example, for those preparing to study in the target culture, for those learning the language in secondary school in a neighbouring country, for newly-arrived immigrants, or for those learning a very alien tongue at the other end of the world. I would argue however that categories two and three will be most important for a majority of students, if only for the opportunities they offer for integrating language learning with culture work.

Leaving aside real-life exposure to the target culture through visits, exchanges and the like, and vicarious exposure through

video, film, and other media, there are, I think, three major categories of classroom activities which yield results.

Making comparisons: the focus can be any visual or observable aspect of everyday culture: cartoons, TV advertisements, newspapers front pages, song lyrics, classified ads, etc. Students are first encouraged to identify what features are observable in the target culture material and then to compare these features with analogous ones in their own culture.

Critical judgments: one technique involves the use of critical incidents, where a communication breakdown has occurred, for analysis and discussions. Another approach is to analyze a piece of target-culture media (e.g., a TV commercial) in terms of the underlying values it projects.

Questioning stereotypes: one way of doing this is to ask students to list five things they think are characteristic of English people, and five things which characterise their own nationality. These are then analysed and discussed. It helps to ask students to recall people who do *not* fit the stereotypical statements. I cannot hope to catalogue all the activities which might be used. For those interested in greater detail see Tomalin and Stempleski (5) and Valdes (6).

To summarise, I believe we need to:

- limit culture content to avoid overload;
- focus on cross-cultural communication rather than knowledge;
- choose activities with the greatest language-learning spin-off.

References

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3. H.H. Stern, *Issues and Options in language Teaching* (Oxford University Press, 1992).
4. B. S. Bloom (ed), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Linguistic Society of America, 1956).
5. B. Tomalin & S. Stempleski, *Cultural Awareness*, (Oxford University Press, 1993).
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How and what managers should learn and from whom

Cultural differences are an important factor when it comes to how and what managers should learn and from whom. Different cultural responses to management education are particularly revealing. For example, German and Swiss managers tend to favour structured learning situations with clear pedagogical objectives, detailed course outlines and schedules, and the 'right answer' or superior solution. This is very much in contrast with the view typically held by people from Anglo-Saxon cultures such as Britain and the USA. Most British participants in courses dislike a structure that is too rigid. They tend to prefer more open-ended learning situations with loose objectives and practical tasks. The suggestion that there could be only one correct answer is less acceptable to them.

The idea of working in groups may come more naturally to Asian managers than to the more individualistic Anglo-Saxons. On the other hand, Asian participants experience more difficulty having to "sell" their ideas in a group, with the potential for open disagreement and conflict, and therefore possible loss of face. Nor do they quite see the point of learning from other students who are no more knowledgeable than themselves. Wisdom resides in the hierarchy.

Group discussions may seem perfectly natural to Americans, who have been encouraged as students to express their own ideas and opinions. British students too have been educated to challenge and debate the ideas put forth by each other, including the teacher. British culture values the ability to prove one's case, eloquently,

even at the expense of others. Anglo-Saxon culture is more tolerant of confrontation and uncertainty, and is less concerned with status differences, either among participants or between themselves and the teacher. This can be quite a shock to students from Asia and many Central European countries, who are not used to either voicing their opinion in class, disagreeing with each other, or actively debating with the professor.

Training that makes extensive use of case studies, business games, and management exercises such as role-plays, favours learning by doing rather than learning by lecture and reading. It indicates a preference for experiential or active learning rather than cognitive or reflective learning. It also reflects an inductive rather than deductive approach; cases or exercises are used to arrive at general principles or theories (the Anglo-Saxon approach) rather than starting with a theory or framework, which is then applied to a given situation (the approach in many countries in Europe). As a result, European managers may not always see the point of some of these exercises, and some complain that seminars conducted by US trainers are not sufficiently serious or theoretical. US managers, on the other hand, want training to be more concrete, practical and fun.

Italian people are said to belong to a generally polychronic culture (although not all people are exclusively polychronic). Polychronic means many or multiple times. Polychronic people are used to doing several tasks at the same time. They do not have to complete one task before beginning the next. Instead, they can flow back and forth between tasks easily. As they work on one task they may decide to go back and change parts of a previous task.

In a polychronic culture, the future tends to be seen as unpredictable so the tight schedules are considered difficult and impractical. Therefore, schedules are often flexible to allow for unforeseeable interruptions and changes in plans. People understand that delays are a part of life and are necessary for developing the best possible product or service. They would rather spend more time perfecting a product or service than meeting a deadline.

Summary

With each culture favouring different training and development practices, it may be difficult to integrate these into a coherent or consistent policy within an international organization. However, standardizing training methods may be important if the company needs to communicate specialized knowledge quickly across different units, or if the special quality of the company training programmes is regarded as a major source of attracting new recruits.

On the other hand, multinational companies may have a lot to gain from cross-fertilizing different approaches, and providing opportunities for training and development that appeal to people with different abilities, learning styles, educational backgrounds, and, of course, cultures. In fact, working with groups of managers from different countries often requires a mixed pedagogical approach, as well as the use of trainers of different nationalities.

UNIT 15

MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES IN GERMANY AND BRITAIN STYLES OF EXECUTION

Before you read discuss this question

1. Based on your experience or what you may have read, how do you think British and German managers would differ in their approach to management?

Cristopher Lorenz looks at the contrasting attitudes between German and British managers.

A study comparing British and German approaches to management has revealed the deep gulf which separates managerial behaviour in many German and British companies. The gap is so fundamental, especially among middle managers, that it can pose severe problems for companies from the two countries which either

merge or collaborate. The findings are from a study called “Managing in Britain and Germany” carried out by a team of German and British academics from Manheim University and Templeton College, Oxford.

The differences are shown most clearly in the contrasting attitudes of many Germans and Britons to managerial expertise and authority, according to the academics. This schism results, in turn, from the very different levels of qualification, and sorts of career paths, which are typical in two countries.

German managers – both top and middle – consider technical skill to be the most important aspect of their jobs, according to the study. It adds that German managers consider they earn their authority with colleagues and subordinates from this “expert knowledge” rather than from their position in the organizational hierarchy.

In sharp contrast, British middle managers see themselves as executives first and technicians second. As a result, German middle managers may find that the only people within their British partner companies who are capable of helping them solve routine problems are technical specialists who do not have management rank. Such an approach is bound to raise status problems in due course.

Other practical results of these differences include a greater tendency of British middle managers to regard the design of their departments as their own responsibility, and to reorganise them more frequently than happens in Germany. German middle managers can have “major problems in dealing with this”, the academics point out, since British middle managers also change their jobs more often. As a result, UK organisations often undergo “more or less constant change”.

Of the thirty British middle managers in the study, thirteen had held their current job for less than two years, compared with only three in Germany. Many of the Britons had also moved between unrelated departments of functional areas, for example from marketing to human resources. In contrast, all but one of the Germans had stayed in the same functional area. Twenty of them had occupied their current positions for five years or more, compared with only five of the Britons.

The researches almost certainly exaggerate the strengths of

the German pattern; its very stability helps to create the rigid attitudes which stop many German companies from adjusting to external change. But the authors of the report are correct about the drawbacks of the more unstable and less technically oriented British pattern. And they are right in concluding that the two countries do not merely have different career systems but also, in effect, different ways of doing business.

FINANCIAL TIMES (world business newspaper)

A. Understanding main points

1. The text describes two main differences between British and German management. What are they?

2. Mark these statements T (true) or F (false) according to the information in the text. Find the part of the text that gives the correct information.

- a) Mergers between British and German companies rarely succeed. – F
- b) The study mainly concentrated on middle managers.
- c) Both German and British managers consider technical skills to be very important.
- d) German managers prefer working with technicians in British companies.
- e) British managers are very concerned about their executive status.
- f) There is much more change in British companies than in German companies.
- g) German companies are strong and successful because of the way they are organised.
- h) British managers are probably more flexible than their German counterparts.

3. In your opinion does the article suggest that one country's approach to management and organisation is better than the others?

4. Pick out some extracts from the article which make posi-

tive or negative comments about British or German approaches.

B. How the text is organised

These sentences summarise the main idea of each paragraph.
Match each sentence to the correct paragraph.

- a) British managers change jobs within a company far more often than the Germans.
- b) A study has shown big differences in managerial behaviour in Britain and Germany, (paragraph 1)
- c) Approaches to management in both countries have disadvantages which are clearly different
- d) British managers are “generalists” rather than “specialists”.
- e) Attitudes to the qualifications and the role of managers are different in Britain and Germany.
- f) The structure of British companies changes frequently
- g) German managers are “experts” in their jobs.

C. Word search

Find a word or phrase from the text that has a similar meaning.

1. work closely with another company

c *ollaborate*.

2. skill of being a manager

m..... e.....

3. sequence of jobs you take during your working life

c..... p.....

4. structure of an organisation with its different levels

o..... h.....

5. companies that you are working closely with

p..... c.....

6. problems which are not complex or difficult

r..... p.....

7. position of being a manager

m..... r.....

OVER TO YOU

1. From what you have read and heard, do you agree with the points made in the text?
2. If you have experience of working with managers from countries such as Japan, Sweden, USA or France, how would you describe their approach to management and organisation?
3. If you were going to collaborate with a British or German company, what could the potential problems be?
4. Write a short report giving suggestions and recommendations on ways to try to avoid or reduce these problems.

UNIT 16

Task 1. Discuss the text from the managerial viewpoint

MARKS AND SPENCER

1. In 1884, a Polish immigrant named Michael Marks began visiting town markets in northern England. There he set up stalls that feature a sign that read, "Don't ask the price – it's a penny". This slogan became so popular he began to open more shops that featured goods that cost a penny. High turnover overcame the low margins, and the business began to flourish. In 1894 Marks took Thomas Spenser as a partner. By 1903 the company had forty branches, and it was in this year that Marks and Spenser, Ltd. was formed with headquarters in Manchester.
2. By 1908, both Marks and his partner Spenser had passed away and the business left the family control. In 1914, the founder's son Simon Marks regained control of the company with then-140 branches. After that time the family maintained a tight lock on the company control. In fact, in 1974 there

were no outside members on the board of directors. Currently three of seventeen board members are from the family.

3. M & S was founded and run with the strong personal values of its founders. There was a strong commitment to the customer and to the employees of the company. There was also a deep concern for the society in general that had made the company very popular. In 1924 Simon Marks visited the U.S. and saw the “super stores” that were prevalent here. He returned to England committed to making M & S a chain of super stores with continuous merchandise flow and a central organization sensitive to customer needs. In 1926, M & S went public, and by 1936 it was present in very major town in England.
4. In 1933 a welfare department was established to look after the employees’ needs. In 1936 a pension fund was initiated for employees. Benefits of employment included dental and medical coverage as well as special treatment for chiropody (prevalent among people who stand a lot). The stores had special rooms for the staff to eat and relax in.
5. In 1928 M & S had its own brand name (St. Michael) and was committed to selling only brand name products at moderate prices. Quality was also critical to the M & S way. To help maintain quality, M & S began to work very closely with its suppliers. Since the suppliers were generally small firms they were anxious to cooperate, M & S made sure that suppliers used the newest technology and continually managed to keep their costs down. This created quality products at the best margins possible. M & S has worked with some of its suppliers for over thirty years.

“Snow ball” interpreting. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. After WWII, M & S experienced phenomenal growth. The St. Michael brand name became synonymous with quality and value. M & S became the dominant force in its market and

began a modernization and expansion plan to reduce the bureaucracy and paperwork at the company. This plan was called "Operation Simplification". The emphasis of management was to increase sales while not increasing the overheads of 120 tons of paperwork each year. The number of company staff declined from, 32,000 to 22,000. Managers were freed to personally get involved with their departments.

2. The efficiency emphasis has become a part of the corporate culture. Through the 1970s, the officers literally ate, step, and dressed M & S. All executives wore only M & S clothing and worked about sixty hours a week. On their way home and on Saturdays they would drop in on stores to see how things had been going. This attitude was prevalent not only for management but also for all employees.
3. The employees of M & S were deeply committed to their jobs because the company was committed to them. M & S paid good wages and provided good benefits to its employees. The company sponsored social and recreational clubs for employees.

UNIT 17

SO MANY PEOPLE, SO MANY CUSTOMS

Egypt

In Egypt, the government is usually the customer; private businesses usually do not have big international accounts. A good introduction in Egypt requires governmental references. For example, an American businessman in a large company in Arizona, United States, wanted to do business in Egypt. His company had no history of working in the Middle East. He had to get letters of reference and introductions from a U.S senator and the U.S. government's envoy (government contact) in Egypt before the Egyptians would consider doing business with his company.

The social relationship that develops between the two busi-

ness purlies is also very important. The social relationship is not limited lo the one person in charge of the account. During the first meetings, the same respect and social interest should be shown to all persons who are in the key contact's office, even if they are not directly involved in the business deal. These people may influence the key contact's opinion.

South Korea

It is best to make the first contact with a Korean company through a third party. If this method is chosen, it is important to contact a highly respected Korean. South Korea has a clear social structure. People work with people who are on their own social lev-el. In high business circles in South Korea, everybody knows every-body. An introduction through a well-connected individual will open many doors. High-level government officials are the most effective contacts because they can promise some governmental cooperation. The government has a lot of influence on business in South Korea. There are also many trading companies and banks that successfully introduce foreign businesspeople to Korean businesses.

In Korean society, a person's status is defined by education, family, place of birth, current address, friendships, connections, and the size of the company. When businesspeople are introduced in South Korea, it is important that they give personal information about their own connections and education along with the company profile. People sometimes give biographies (a short description of their life) to provide additional personal information. All this information should be given before the first meeting so that the people involved have a chance to learn about each other.

Colombia

In Colombia, the phone is not used as much as it is in information-centered cultures like the United States. Important business is taken care of in person or on paper. A phone call is an inappropriate way to introduce oneself or sell something.

One can introduce oneself or go through an agency in Colombia, but the most effective way to be introduced is through a common friend or contact. It is very important to be well connected

to decision makers.

The character of the person who represents a business is more important than the character of the business he represents. This means that in the initial contact the most commonly asked question is: "Can I do business with this person?", not "Can we do business with this company?" Business relationships operate on a personal level and last a longer time than in the United States.

In Colombia, the better connected a person is to important decision makers, the more attractive he or she is as a business partner. The more associations a person has, the more power that person has.

Because personal relationships are important in business in Colombia, one expects to spend some time in the beginning to get to know each other. Trust and loyalty are the foundation of a good business relationship. They don't develop in a day. In the first contact, time is spent getting to know each other. A dinner talking about general interests, not about business, is a common way to begin a business relationship. The relationship may develop with small favours, frequent visits, and time.

Europeans

In a series of studies in the seven countries, they turned up some surprising and sometimes contradictory facts about us, Europeans. Common trends in lifestyles and spending habits are slowly emerging in all seven, Mintel concluded, but it isn't exactly a runaway process. In particular, there's a long way to go before the standard Euro-consumer emerges. That's not from lack of trying, or lack of money for that matter. In 1992, consumers in the seven countries spent £ 2.2 billion on domestic expenditure of all kinds, with nearly a fifth going on food, drink and tobacco.

Would you expect the French to run up the biggest grocer's bill? You'd be wrong. The Belgians led the checkout queue, followed by France and Germany. The British and the Dutch were way down the list. The same spread, though not in the same national order, turned up in clothing purchases. An average 7,5. per cent of domestic expenditure went on clothes and shoes, but the Italian spending, at nearly 10 per cent, was roughly twice that of the

British. This may say something about Britain's current reputation of being the worst-dressed nation in Europe. But alternatively, it may say something more about the price of Italian designer label clothes.

Surveys like this always throw up something odd, such as the idea that Britons, unequally in the EC, shop more often for underclothes than they do for outerwear. Something to do, no doubt, with Briton's injunctions about always wearing clean underclothes in case you are knocked down by a bus.

There are an awful lot of Europeans just at present who would like a little more expenditure and a little less leisure. The national average expenditure is almost exactly nine per cent of domestic income, and the Germans head the list at ten per cent, with Britons lose behind. The Belgians, by contrast, spend barely six percent.

Knowing the Belgian's formidable reputation as beer drinkers, it seems possible that the Belgian idea of leisure expenditure is a cool lankard in front of a telly. Interestingly, there is evidence to suggest a relationship between drinking and television watching. To be blunt, we, Euro goggles, have little to learn from each other when it comes to slumping in front of the Box. An eye-glazing 215 million of us round 83 per cent of all adults spend at least an hour a day watching TV. Germany led with 87 per cent, but Britons were seated close beside them, while Belgium, France, the Netherlands and Italy were all over the 80 per cent mark. The exception was only Spain, where only 70 per cent watched for an hour a day or more, and that's where the alcohol connection comes in. Drink consumption outside the home is higher in Spain than anywhere else in Europe.

The average British executive has a game of squash or swim after work. Then he goes home to his detached house, washes up after dinner and sits down in front of the television with a scotch. This is according to a survey on the different lifestyles of business people in 13 different countries. Researchers for the Pan European Survey interviewed 8,604 professional people with a high income, educational level or occupational status. Those interviewed were all aged between 25 and 74 and most of them were in the 35-54 age group.

The survey found that European executives have very different attitudes to life, but there is one thing on which they all agree. They are all patriotic when buying a car. The British prefer Austin,

Rover and Ford, the French have Citroens and Peugeot, the Germans have BMWs and Mercedes and the Italians have their Alfa Romeos and Fiats.

Contrasting customs

Country	Custom
In Australia	People don't leave tips in restaurants
In Brasil	People don't go to bed till very late
In Britain	People don't smoke in a friend's home without asking
In Canada	People go to bed fairly early on weekdays
In Egypt	People allow their hosts to treat them to meals in restaurants
In New Zealand	People usually pay for their own meals in restaurants
In Spain	People are late for most appointments
In Sweden	People arrive on time for most appointments
In Turkey	People smoke almost anywhere they like
In the USA	People leave tips of 15%-20% in most restaurants

Comment on the Ukrainian people's behaviour in the situations mentioned above. How are national mentality and life styles reflected in people's behaviour (use the situations from the chart).

Cross-cultural Communication Skills

Now many companies are helping their employees build their cross-cultural communication skills. These companies offer cultural training workshops and seminars. Each year more and more companies are offering this type of training. They realize the importance of preparing their employee for the very different and challenging international business world.

Three American national characteristics most frequently mentioned are: a friendliness to strangers, a strong sense of community and neighborliness, and a general informality. No door in the world is more open to the stranger than the American's. With this sociability goes hospitality.

You are invited to theatres, dinners, sports meetings, motor trips from the first minute you are on 'first name' terms with the people you meet ('Hi, Susan, pleased to meet you'); they also show the keenest interest in your affairs and ask you to let them know if they can help you. But ... by the following week they have forgotten all about you.

Englishmen would prefer to live in the same house, be in the same job for many years and would hate to pull up their roots and change to something new. Americans are descended from the folk who moved away, which explains the fact that the English, the French, the Germans, the Italians, even the Russians, have all got one thing in common: they are descended from the men who stayed behind.

America is a prosperous country; it has the highest standard of living in the world. A British family has less money than the typical American family. But there is the point that the wealth that most people seem to be enjoying, is not theirs in reality. The house and the furniture in it, the cars, fridges, TV sets are usually bought on hire-purchase and are being paid for by monthly installments over a number of years. And even in the period of the country's prosperity many people have a struggle to pay these monthly installments.

Americans are a nation on wheels. Almost every American has at least one car, and he doesn't believe in walking anywhere if he can go in a car. There are drive-in banks where you can cash a cheque without even turning off your engine, drive-in post offices, drive-in cafeterias where a meal is brought to you on a tray that fits neatly on to the door of your car, a drive-in church and even a drive-in cinema with a skyscraper screen, that you could see more than a mile away, and loud-speakers, that you fix and switch on inside the car.

Use the material from the chart to discuss communicative behavior of different nations:

Emotions	Decision making	Social interaction	Strategy
<i>The Japanese</i>			
Emotions are valued but must be hidden. Self control is highly valued: no argumentation. Respect, patience, modesty.	Decisions are made by the group rather than individuals.	Face-saving is very important. Choice is often made to save someone from embarrassment.	To reach agreement in harmony and consensus without direct pressure. This is the reason why negotiations take much longer.
<i>The Americans</i>			
Emotions are not highly valued.	Emotions are not highly valued.	Team work gives input to decision makers. Decisions are made quickly.	To be strong is highly valued. Pressure tactics are often used. Arguments are made in an impersonal & facts based way.
<i>The Germans</i>			
Suppression of personal relationship beneath the subject.	Suppression of personal relationship beneath the subject.	Well prepared for negotiations. Try to win argument before it begins.	They will say "NO" if necessary.
<i>The British</i>			
Establish social relationship.	Establish social relationship.	Group oriented in making decisions.	Semi-formal, collaborative.

Emotions	Decision making	Social interaction	Strategy
<i>The Russians</i>			
Emotional sensitivity is highly valued.	Emotional sensitivity is highly valued.	Better discuss partner's offers than make their own.	Interaction can be emotional. Strict hierarchical relationships between superiors and subordinates.
<i>The French</i>			
Emotional when arguing.	Emotional when arguing.	Usually have no options. Members are less independent in making decisions than Americans.	Enjoy a warm interaction as well as lively debate.
<i>The Arabs</i>			
Focus on the person.	Focus on the person.	Avoid conflict. Never say "NO".	Group harmony. Much emphasis on status.

Task 3. In the Internet find the material concerning communicative behavior of other nations and continue the list.