

BENCHMARKING TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES: A MULTI-COUNTRY COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Ellen A. Drost, Colette A. Frayne, Kevin B. Lowe,
and J. Michael Geringer

This study compares training and development practices within and across nine countries and one region, and addresses whether there are universal training and development practices. After a brief review of the literature on training and development for the countries and region examined, the study identifies country-specific and region-specific training and development practices. The results are descriptive in nature and discussed as benchmarks of current and desired levels of training and development practices within and across countries. While the results do not indicate any universal practices across all countries studied, they do indicate significant similarities in practices within country clusters. The common practices found within these clusters are believed to be influenced by cultural values and industry trends. The study emphasizes the importance of context and provides practitioners with guidelines in designing training and development practices across countries and researchers with insight into future research questions. © 2002 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Benchmarking Training and Development Practices: Introduction

The human resource management (HRM) function has increasingly been recognized as an important element of a company's strategy. Organizations attempting to succeed in today's global business environment must invest in the acquisition and development of employees. Indeed, a recent study of managerial attitudes about HRM practices in different countries found that training and development is perceived as the most important HRM practice (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995).

There are, however, substantial limitations associated with existing empirical research on training and development across nations, impeding organizations' capabilities to design and implement effective HRM practices within and particularly across nations. Recent literature on comparative HRM has called for more

direct comparisons of HRM practices in different countries in order to understand the variety of practices within different contexts (Hendry, 1991; Easterby-Smith, Malina, & Yu, 1995). This provided some of the motivation for our research.

The purpose of this study is to analyze training and development practices within and across nine countries and one region, namely, Australia, Canada, China, Japan, Korea, Indonesia, Mexico, Taiwan, the United States, and the region of Central and South America (referred to as "Latin America" in this paper and comprised of respondents from Costa Rica, Guatemala, Panama, Nicaragua, and Venezuela).¹

The nature of the study is exploratory and only a first step toward identifying cross-cultural training and development practices in an attempt to discover a set of common or universal practices. As such, the study has two main objectives: (1) to report on current and

desired training and development practices across countries and one region, and (2) to establish whether there are common or universal training and development practices across countries, or whether these practices are country or region specific.

In the next section, we briefly review the literature on training and development for the countries and region examined and the methodology used in this study. We then present and discuss the results and conclude with implications for future research.

Literature on Training and Development Practices Across Countries

The literature on organizational training and development practices is both diverse and extensive, particularly for the U.S. and many other developed nations. With the exception of Indonesia, the following subsections provide a brief overview of training and development for the countries and the region included in this study.

Training and Development Practices in Japan

Japanese companies place great importance on the concept of lifetime employment, which creates a unique context for the skill development and learning opportunities provided to Japanese workers (McMurrer & Van Buren, 1999). Two things that stand out in Japanese training and development are the systematic use of on-the-job training and the content of employee on-the-job learning (Morishima, 1995). Training and development tends to be planned and executed in a diligent and disciplined manner at every level in the organization (Brown, Nakata, Reich, & Ulman, 1997). For instance, at the factory level, general managers typically review training monthly and formally recognize individual training accomplishments. Supervisors are responsible for training employees, enforcing policy, and guiding employees in development. Managers at all levels are held strictly accountable for the execution of employee training and development plans, which include technical and non-technical skill development. Negative attitudes toward training can damage a career, so the follow-through rate on training is high.

Koike (1991, 1993) found that training and development practices used for white-collar workers in Japan are quite similar to those employed for blue-collar workers. Nakamura (1993) posited that the long formative years of white-collar employees' careers, characteristic of most medium- and large-sized companies in Japan, contain systematic job changes within a set of interrelated jobs. Japanese organizations are also recognized for their use of broad job responsibilities and frequent rotation among job assignments to develop organizational skills. For the Japanese, these development practices are important, because they ascribe a crucial role to the horizontal coordination among employees (Aoki, 1988). Therefore, skills in coordination and communication have been considered to be at least as important as skills related to task performance (Kagono, Nonaka, Sakakibari, & Okumura, 1985).

Training and Development Practices in Korea

Koreans have generally evolved a management style that has mingled Japanese and American influences. In Korea, the corporate philosophy comes closer to a genuine guide for managers and workers. Korean companies, like their Japanese counterparts, consider human resources to be the central building block for attaining long-term corporate success. Technical training programs, and their counterparts at the managerial level, have been steadily expanded in recent years in accordance with Korea's growing economic achievements. According to research by Koch, Nam, and Steers (1995), the focus of management training and development in Korea, especially in larger companies, is somewhat different than in the West, where gaining job-related knowledge or skill is stressed. In Korea, emphasis is placed on molding current and future managers to fit the corporate culture: loyalty, dedication, and team spirit are key elements, rather than current job skills. The goal is to develop what is called the "all-around man" (Koch et al., 1995). The Korean "all-around man" is committed to the company and his coworkers, and training is seen as the way to guarantee the attainment of this goal throughout the corporation. However,

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this sustained interest in training and development may also have negative side effects, namely, stress and tension for employees. In many occupations, training and development corresponds directly with promotion and compensation. For example, government officials, managers in financial and banking institutions, and managers in large corporations must take an examination for promotion (Chan & Chang, 1994). Consequently, the role and outcome of training and development is linked closely with the evaluation and promotion of Korean employees.

The recent Asian economic crisis, however, has forced Korean *chaebols* (conglomerates) to restructure their portfolios in order to improve corporate performance. As a result, many companies downsized their workforce and reduced management costs, especially in human resource development (Cho, Park, & Wagner, 1999). In a survey conducted by Korea's *Human Resource Development Journal*, 70% of the respondents indicated that their companies cut training expenses 12.5% by June 1998 compared to 1997 spending. In a follow-up study, Cho, Park, and Wagner (1999) observed that companies keep on reducing their training and development programs into more costs-effective activities, including cutting training staff, consolidating training departments, shortening training periods, customizing programs, and using outplacement services funded by the government. Yet, the government continues to endorse training and development by making it government policy for corporations with more than 150 employees to establish training centers (Chan & Chang, 1994).

Training and Development Practices in China

In China, as in Taiwan, Korea, and Japan, companies have tended to place more emphasis on corporate values and interpersonal skills than their Western counterparts (Koch, Nam, & Steers, 1995; Kuo & Lin, 1990). In addition, there is a consistently high degree of governmental involvement in China with respect to the provision and regulation of training and development for the workforce (Nyaw, 1995). Every company has been legally obli-

gated to train its workers to a certain standard before offering them full-time employment. If a worker does not attain the required standard, then that worker has to be retrained. Worker education has typically consisted of two components: cultural-political courses and scientific subjects (Luk, 1990). The former are aimed at indoctrinating employees with communist ideology, moral values, and patriotism, while the latter are to provide them with the basics of everyday life and work (Nyaw, 1995). As in many Asian countries, secondary education has traditionally emphasized the qualities necessary for excelling in a factory environment, particularly discipline and memorization (Minehan, 1996).

Over the past two decades, the training and development of managers has become an increasingly important issue for the government to promote its economic objectives (Nyaw, 1995). Chinese managers are being trained in modern management techniques, as well as appropriate industrial or commercial skills, by the companies themselves as well as by universities, professional associations, and foreign consulting firms. Companies are working with the government to develop school criteria that will produce skilled workers. In addition, many multinationals, such as ABB, Ericsson, Procter & Gamble, Motorola, and Siemens, have established state-of-the-art, corporate-style, campus training centers (Minehan, 1996). The establishment of corporate training centers sends a strong message to employees and prospective recruits that these employers are investing in China for the long term.

Training and Development Practices in Taiwan

As Taiwan's economy has moved from labor-intensive to skill- and capital-intensive industries, there has been an increasing effort to train and develop human resources, both at the government and enterprise levels (Wu, 1990). Since 1981, the government has built a vast educational system and established 13 public vocational-training institutes for students who are unable to access higher education (Farh, 1995). New curricula that encourage the creativity and free thought are

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under development to supplement or replace traditional educational approaches that focus on discipline, memorization, and job-specific skills (Minehan, 1996).

At the enterprise level, private companies have historically viewed employee training and development as a cost to be tightly controlled, rather than as an investment. However, as investment and employment migrates from traditional labor-intensive and cost-based industries to more knowledge-intensive sectors, increased training efforts are correspondingly emerging to facilitate this shift by enhancing mobility and cross-training. Among the different training and development practices utilized in Taiwan, job rotation is generally perceived to be most effective, followed by in-house training and outside training (Li, 1990).

In general, Taiwanese companies have a greater interest in managerial rather than technical training. Turnover among managers is lower than among technical employees, which makes investments in management training less risky (Farh, 1995). Taiwanese companies often send their low to mid-level managers to management development seminars offered by universities and consulting firms. Courses on interpersonal relations, leadership, motivation, and communication skills are exceptionally popular in Taiwan (Kuo & Lin, 1990).

Training and Development Practices in Mexico and Latin America

The wave of changing regulations and developments in international trade and investment in Mexico and many other Latin American nations (e.g., North American Free Trade Agreement, NAFTA, and the Southern Cone Customs Union, MERCOSUR) has been accompanied by an increase in attention to training and development activities. In many cases, increased levels of training have been driven by standards established by industry requirements and by international investors concerned with seeing consistency across their international operations. A major focus of companies' training efforts has been on-the-job training and skill-development of lower-level employees.

In Mexico, business and cultural practices often collide with a variety of manufac-

turing and foreign business techniques such as just-in-time (JIT) and participative management. Transfer of these practices requires careful negotiation and customization (Flynn, 1994), particularly in the area of training and development. For example, initial basic orientation and on-the-job training are the primary vehicles used in Mexican processing and assembly plants, also known as *maquiladoras*, to familiarize workers with job requirements (Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992). In addition to job-related training, some employers offered on-site general education courses and high school equivalency instruction. *Maquiladoras* that offer training, both job-related and general, report lower turnover rates than industry averages, and higher productivity (Teagarden, Butler, Von Glinow, & Drost, 1995).

In Latin America, most countries are characterized by large populations of young and poor. It is typical for an individual to start contributing to his or her family's income at a very young age, adding to problems associated with illiteracy and low skill levels among the general population of employment-age individuals. Training and development within the company is seen as an important stepping stone to a better future, and, therefore, considered a highly desired reward, especially by *maquiladora* workers in Mexico.

Training and Development Practices in Australia

For decades, Australia's economic success has been built almost exclusively on the efficient and inexpensive development of natural resources. The economic boom and inflated prosperity tended to obscure the need for an emphasis on enhanced work force training. Recent changes in the economy, however, pressured Australian businesses to consider the role of training in its economic development. The Australian government initiated discussions regarding the need for a trained and educated work force that is flexible, able to embrace new technologies, and prepared to participate effectively in value-added production (Shelton, 1995). Subsequently, the government introduced the 1990 Training Guarantee Act, which requires Australian em-

employers with payrolls above a specified amount to spend 1.5% of annual payroll expenses on employee training. The objective of this legislation is to increase and improve the quality of the employment-related skills of the Australian work force (Beresford & Gaité, 1994).

Subsequently, the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that overall expenditures on training increased (Smith, 1993), with some evidence suggesting that more training is being provided at the managerial level than at the blue-collar level (Waters-Marsh & Thompson, 1993). Beresford and Gaité (1994) reported a higher growth in demand for training consultants and training and development programs. However, according to these authors, this growth is not matched by initiatives for evaluating or assessing training programs that can provide guidance to managers in deciding what type of training to implement (Beresford & Gaité, 1994).

Training and Development Practices in Canada

Because of NAFTA and global economic shifts, Canadian companies are facing a different set of pressures today, especially in the area of human resource management. International competition results in enormous cost-cutting pressures on firms, which are often passed on directly to the HR function (Moore & Jennings, 1995). In a study of large Canadian organizations, Murray, Whitehead, and Blake (1990) noted that the use of outside consultants is becoming more common, especially in rapidly evolving areas such as training and development. In another study of HRM practices, Moore and Jennings (1995) observed that only half of corporate HRM departments in Canada are involved in training and development practices.

In 1996, the Conference Board of Canada studied the training and development practices of 219 progressive Canadian companies. Their report reveals that the sectors with the highest level of training and development practices include oil and gas, finance, insurance, real estate, and mining (Benson, 1997). Sectors with the lowest level of training and development practices include education, health, and manufacturing. Of the companies

surveyed, 43% expect their training budgets to increase, and 18% expect to affiliate themselves with a training school or corporate university for providing some or all of their training and development needs.

Training and Development Practices in the United States

Changes in the U.S. economy and labor pool have been impacting the work place in a variety of ways. For instance, the shift from manufacturing to services has led to more capital- and skill-intensive industries. In such an environment, companies require that employees are capable of not only technical service and product knowledge, but are equally capable of critical thinking skills, teams building skills, job rotation, and learning abilities on the job. Unfortunately, a "training gap" appears to exist in some of these skills and may be widening. The American Society of Training and Development (ASTD) reported that most organizations train about 74% of their employees. Technical training accounted for more than 29% of training expenditures in a typical company, while quality, competition, and business practices made up only 5% and interpersonal communication 6% of training expenditures (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999). Despite the emphasis on team building, the ASTD data indicated that in 1997 only 52% of the organizations used self-directed work teams for only 1% of their employees.

Moreover, a recent review of training practices in U.S. firms (Salas, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999), Zenger (1996) argued that training has become peripheral to organizations rather than integrated into organizations. Similarly, recent data from ASTD indicated that the size of many training departments is shrinking while the use of training sources outside the organization is increasing. As training moves outside of the organization, training consultants may develop programs that might not fit the organization's training needs (Salas et al., 1999). This trend in outsourcing could cause employees to perceive that training is neither valued nor effective.

In summary, it appears that the "training gap" in the U.S. work force reflects the com-

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petitiveness of the U.S. market place. Experts estimate that between 42% and 90% of the U.S. workers need further training to make them competitive (Bergman, 1994).

Conclusions Regarding Literature on Training and Development Practices Across Nations

The literature suggests that there may be some important differences in training and development practices across countries. However, it is still necessary to see if these results are sound and apply across a broad international sample. It is worthwhile for both theory and practice to assess whether, and to what extent, there are differences—or similarities—in the training and development practices across nations. These concerns are the primary stimulus for the current study. Next, we introduce the methodology used for addressing these issues.

Methods

This study is part of a larger research project, the Best International Human Resource Management Practices project (or “Best Practices Project”), which was designed to study a range of HRM practices and organizational contextual factors across countries. A detailed discussion of the genesis of the “Best Practices” project and its methodology is provided elsewhere in this special issue by Geringer, Frayne, and Milliman (2002). A brief discussion of the sample and survey is given below.

Sample

The sample is comprised primarily of managers and engineers in nine different countries and one region responding to functionally equivalent survey items. The survey was distributed to both managers/engineers and nonmanagers in some countries and to only managers/engineers in other countries. In an effort to improve sample comparability, only manager data are included in the analyses reported in this paper. Significant differences in the samples remain in the depth and breadth of industries surveyed in each country. Though differences in sample comparability with respect to type of industry are

common to comparative international research, caution is advised when interpreting the results (Milliman, Nason, Von Glinow, Huo, Lowe, & Kim, 1995).

The respective categories for respondents are as follows: the number of respondents completing the survey; approximate average age; percentage that are male; and percentage with a bachelor's degree or higher education level. Australia ($n = 437$, 36 years, 58% male, 67% bachelor's or higher), Canada ($n = 125$, 41 years, 81% male, 75% bachelor's or higher), China ($n = 190$, 36 years, 67% male, 66% bachelor's or higher), Japan ($n = 223$, 37 years, 92% male, 70% bachelor's degree or higher), Korea ($n = 237$, 32 years, 98% male, 71% bachelor's or higher), Indonesia ($n = 242$, 82% male, 77% bachelor's or higher), Latin America ($n = 143$, 33 years, 59% male, 81% bachelor's or higher), Mexico ($n = 180$, 32 years, 80% male, 77% bachelor's or higher), Taiwan ($n = 241$, 36 years, 86% male, 84% bachelor's or higher), and U.S. ($n = 144$, demographics not available).

Survey

The survey items assessing training and development practices were developed by a team of content area experts who were familiar with cross-cultural issues in HRM training and development. The intent was to examine a broad range of practices, rather than to explore only one or two practices in great depth. Consequently, the training and development items were not selected with an *a priori* intent to constitute a set of scales or to mimic a set of scales previously established within the academic community as being both valid and reliable. While we recognize the inherent limitations associated with single-item measures, we would also argue that our broad approach is appropriate given the current stage of comparative international research.

The ten training items and three training outcome items were answered with a five-point Likert-type scale with the anchors 1 = Not at all, 2 = To a small extent, 3 = To a moderate extent, 4 = To a large extent, 5 = To a very great extent. Training items queried the extent to which the purpose of training and development practices in the respondent's

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company were intended to: (1) provide a reward to employees; (2) improve employees' technical skills; (3) improve employees' interpersonal skills; (4) remedy employees' poor past performance; (5) prepare employees for future job assignments; (6) build teamwork within the company; (7) provide substantial initial training; (8) help employees understand the business (e.g., competitors, technologies); (9) provide cross-training; (10) teach company values. Respondents were asked two types of questions with respect to each training practice: first, to indicate the current state of practice in their organization ("is now"), and second, to indicate the desired future state ("should be"). Thus, a total of 20 responses were made to the ten items, ten "is now" assessments, and ten "should be" assessments.

Three training-effectiveness items queried the extent to which training practices: (1) help our company to have high-performing employees; (2) help our company to have employees who are satisfied with their jobs; and (3) make a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization. Only the current state was assessed for outcomes of training. The set of training practices and training effectiveness items, including their instructions, are provided in Appendix.

Analysis

The intent of this study is to explore the data and establish a preliminary foundation for whether there are common or universal international training and development practices within and across nations. Consequently, as we explore across-country "is now" differences, across-country "should be" differences, and within-country differences in what "is now" and "should be," the analysis is confined at the item level. Direct comparisons of mean differences must be evaluated with some caution, since respondents from different cultures may incorporate different frames of reference in assessing their work experience (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; Meindl, Hunt, & Lee, 1989). For this reason we do not include *t*-tests of the differences across countries in our discussion of the results, but instead make more general observations about overall trends in the data.

The results of our discussion are organized around the twofold objective of the study. First,

we report on "is now" and "should be" means to better understand which practices are currently used in the countries studied and their desired level in the future. Second, we report on the within-country-difference scores between the "is now" and "should be" means to identify what we will refer to as the "gap" between current and desired levels of training and development practices.

We hope to gain a better insight into country-specific attributes by examining the "gaps" between the "is now" and "should be" scores. A small "gap" or no "gap" between "is now" and "should be" means within a country, what we shall refer to as a within-country "gap," might suggest the existence of a common or universal practice (i.e., respondents are mostly satisfied with the company's current training and development practices). A small within-country "gap" or no within-country "gap" across countries might suggest a common or universal training and development practice.

Because within-country differences do share a common frame of reference, we did perform *t*-tests for differences in within-country "is now" and "should be" scores. However, statistical significance is a function of both sample size and sample standard deviation. Given the exploratory nature of this research, we were interested in differences that were not only statistically significant but were also practically significant. Since all sample combinations with mean differences of 1.0 or greater were statistically significant, and we believe that differences of this magnitude are also practically different, we chose a mean difference of 1.0 as an indication of both large statistical and practical differences. Our attempt is to make sense out of this large group of data and to discover whether there are universal or country-specific trends in training and development practices within our sample.

Results

Table I presents the means and standard deviations for the ten training and development items for the nine countries and one region examined. The results are organized at the item level and discussed in a manner consistent with our twofold objective described in the previous section.

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TABLE I A Comparison of “Is Now” and “Should Be” Means and Standard Deviations of Training and Development Practices Across Countries.

Item ^a	Australia		Canada		Indonesia		Japan		Korea	
As a reward for employees	2.25	(.90)	2.45	(.95)	2.72	(1.01)	2.30	(.98)	2.43	(.94)
	2.65	(1.11)	2.73	(1.20)	3.67	(1.06)	2.78	(1.16)	3.27	(1.10)
Improve technical abilities	4.01	(.75)	3.85	(.86)	3.22	(.89)	3.64	(.87)	3.48	(.90)
	4.33	(.65)	4.38	(.58)	4.24	(.83)	4.29	(.73)	4.27	(.65)
Improve interpersonal abilities	3.23	(1.01)	3.19	(1.0)	2.84	(.87)	3.04	(.94)	2.91	(.90)
	4.19	(.71)	4.06	(.77)	3.81	(.89)	3.73	(.87)	3.82	(.75)
Remedy poor performance	2.90	(.95)	2.68	(.97)	3.02	(.90)	2.16	(.97)	2.87	(1.01)
	3.68	(.98)	3.62	(.98)	4.19	(.81)	3.16	(1.03)	3.53	(1.00)
Prepare for future job	3.07	(1.04)	3.00	(1.18)	2.96	(.95)	3.12	(1.00)	2.54	(1.04)
	4.16	(.69)	4.25	(.71)	4.17	(.83)	3.90	(.79)	3.34	(1.08)
Build teamwork	3.01	(1.06)	3.02	(1.05)	2.95	(1.02)	2.95	(.90)	3.02	(1.04)
	4.21	(.71)	4.15	(.66)	4.07	(.96)	3.61	(.89)	3.87	(.93)
Orientation to work	3.10	(1.10)	2.56	(1.10)	2.77	(.97)	3.63	(1.00)	3.32	(.98)
	3.97	(.85)	3.75	(.89)	3.92	(.90)	3.85	(.89)	3.77	(.89)
Help understand business	2.72	(1.04)	2.69	(1.08)	2.60	(.96)	3.06	(.96)	3.20	(.94)
	3.85	(.79)	3.89	(.83)	4.00	(.90)	3.80	(.79)	3.96	(.79)
Provide skills to do different jobs	2.87	(1.00)	2.62	(1.00)	2.75	(.93)	2.81	(.93)	2.93	(1.03)
	3.91	(.79)	3.93	(.81)	3.85	(.96)	3.64	(.91)	3.87	(.86)
Teach employees about values	2.89	(1.14)	2.76	(1.02)	2.82	(1.00)	2.90	(.94)	3.19	(.97)
	3.92	(.84)	3.99	(.86)	3.95	(.88)	3.40	(.88)	3.83	(.85)

^a “Is now” mean and standard deviation provided first (top value); “should be” mean and standard deviation provided next (bottom value). (Continued on next page.)

Training and Development as a Reward to Employees

The managers’ responses to training and development as a reward for employees indicated a moderately wide range across the studied countries. For the “is now” responses, the means ranged from a low of 2.24 in Australia to a high of 3.38 in Taiwan. The “should be” responses ranged from a low of 2.64 in China to 4.00 in Mexico. The largest differences or “gaps” between the “is now” and “should be” responses were observed for Indonesia, Mexico, and Latin America.

Training and Development to Improve Employees’ Technical Skills

The responses to training and development as a means to improve technical job abilities were

relatively equal across countries. The “is now” responses ranged from a low of 3.25 for Mexico to 4.01 for Australia. The “should be” responses ranged from a low of 4.07 in Taiwan to 4.74 in Latin America. Large “gaps” between the “is now” and “should be” scores were observed for Indonesia, Latin America and Mexico.

Training and Development to Improve Employees’ Interpersonal Skills

The managers responded relatively equal to the item addressing training in interpersonal skills. The “is now” responses ranged from a low of 2.91 in Korea to 3.43 in Taiwan. The “should be” responses ranged from a low of 3.63 in China to 4.45 in Latin America. Large “gaps” were reported for Mexico, Latin America, and the U.S.

TABLE 1 (continued.)

Item ^a	Latin America	Mexico	PRC	Taiwan	US
As a reward for employees	2.64 (1.36) 3.54 (1.33)	2.36 (1.09) 4.00 (.94)	2.84 (.99) 3.58 (.96)	3.38 (.92) 3.98 (.85)	2.39 (.84) 2.78 (1.17)
Improve technical abilities	3.88 (1.14) 4.74 (.62)	3.25 (1.03) 4.67 (.52)	3.77 (.72) 4.27 (.56)	3.59 (.79) 4.07 (.59)	3.67 (.93) 4.38 (.65)
Improve interpersonal abilities	3.31 (1.11) 4.55 (.88)	2.96 (.99) 4.43 (.69)	2.99 (.91) 3.63 (.78)	3.43 (.81) 4.00 (.62)	2.99 (.97) 4.28 (.61)
Remedy poor performance	3.33 (1.24) 4.21 (1.26)	2.94 (1.04) 4.43 (.80)	3.56 (.78) 4.13 (.67)	3.14 (.82) 3.66 (.83)	2.54 (1.04) 3.64 (.94)
Prepare for future job	3.38 (1.26) 4.73 (.74)	2.86 (1.03) 4.65 (.54)	3.39 (.91) 4.05 (.67)	3.44 (.82) 4.16 (.59)	2.74 (1.00) 4.28 (.65)
Build teamwork	3.14 (1.39) 4.61 (.64)	3.01 (1.08) 4.36 (.78)	3.12 (.94) 3.82 (.72)	3.41 (.76) 3.95 (.69)	2.84 (1.04) 4.24 (.73)
Orientation to work	3.20 (1.40) 4.56 (.66)	2.83 (1.13) 4.55 (.64)	3.70 (.71) 4.13 (.58)	3.57 (.80) 4.10 (.71)	2.54 (1.23) 3.96 (.86)
Help understand business	2.83 (1.40) 4.60 (.64)	2.67 (1.15) 4.37 (.73)	3.30 (.86) 3.93 (.73)	3.62 (.76) 4.18 (.62)	2.46 (1.19) 4.10 (.78)
Provide skills to do different jobs	2.72 (1.38) 4.41 (.83)	2.70 (1.02) 4.41 (.80)	3.35 (.91) 4.03 (.69)	3.54 (.83) 4.22 (.65)	2.36 (1.04) 3.91 (.88)
Teach employees about values	3.14 (1.29) 4.66 (.58)	3.07 (1.12) 4.67 (.60)	3.27 (.88) 3.97 (.69)	3.11 (.84) 3.68 (.76)	2.64 (.96) 4.06 (.81)

^a "Is now" mean and standard deviation provided first (top value); "should be" mean and standard deviation provided next (bottom value).

Training and Development to Remedy Employees' Poor Past Performance

The managers indicated considerable variability to the item addressing training and development as a means of remedying poor past performance. The "is now" responses ranged from a low of 2.16 in Japan to 3.56 in China. The "should be" responses ranged from a low of 3.16 in Japan to 4.43 in Mexico. For all countries, the "should be" scores were higher than the "is now" means. Large "gaps" were reported for several countries, including Indonesia, Mexico, Latin America, and the U.S.

Training and Development to Prepare Employees for Future Job Assignments

The responses to training as a means to pre-

pare employees for future job assignments were relatively equal across countries for the "is now" responses, but exhibited considerable variability for the "should be" responses. The "is now" means ranged from a low of 2.54 in Korea to 3.44 in Taiwan. The "should be" means ranged from a low of 3.24 in Korea to 4.73 in Latin America. Canada, the U.S., Mexico, and the Latin American region indicated the four highest means. The difference scores or "gaps" were large for the U.S., Canada, Australia, Indonesia, Mexico, and Latin America.

Training and Development to Build Teamwork Within the Company

The responses to building teamwork within the company were relatively equal across coun-

Managers' perceptions of the extent to which training and development practices are effective in helping the company to have high-performing employees, to have employees who were satisfied with their jobs, and to make a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization had a remarkably consistent set of means and patterns across the nine countries and one region examined in this study.

tries for the “is now” responses; however, they exhibited considerable variability for the “should be” responses. The “is now” means ranged from a low of 2.84 in Japan to 3.41 in Taiwan. Noteworthy are the low “is now” scores for the U.S. and Japan, given the broadly asserted emphasis in the literature on the team form of organizing in those countries. The “should be” means ranged from a low of 3.61 in Japan to 4.61 in Latin America. The countries from the Americas (i.e., Canada, the U.S., Mexico, and the Latin American region) had the four highest “should be” means.

Large “gaps” were observed for several countries, including Indonesia, Mexico, Latin America, the U.S., Canada, and Australia.

Training and Development to Provide Substantial Initial Training

The managers' responses to providing substantial training when employees first start working in the company differed from the first six training items. In particular, there was more variability in the “is now” means than in the “should be” means. The “is now” responses ranged from a low of 2.56 in Canada to 3.63 in China. The relatively high “is now” mean for Japan is notable given that responses from the Japanese managers were consistently among the lowest for the first six training items. The “should be” responses ranged from a low of 3.75 in Canada to 4.56 in Latin America. Large “gaps” were reported for Indonesia, Mexico, Latin America, the U.S., and Canada.

Training and Development to Help Employees Understand the Business

The managers' responses to helping employees understand the company's business indicated greater variability in the “is now” means than in the “should be” means. The “is now” means ranged from a low of 2.46 in the U.S. to 3.62 in Taiwan. The “should be” means ranged from a low of 3.80 in Japan to 4.60 in Latin America. Large “gaps” between the “is now” and “should be” scores were observed for Indonesia, Latin America, Mexico, the U.S., Canada, and Australia.

Training and Development to Provide Cross-Training

The managers reported greater variability in the “is now” means than the “should be” means when asked about their companies' cross-training practices. The “is now” means ranged from a low of 2.36 in the U.S. to 3.54 in Taiwan. Canada, the U.S., and Mexico reported the three lowest “is now” means. For the “should be” responses, the means ranged from a low of 3.64 in Japan to 4.41 in Mexico and Latin America. Large “gaps” in difference scores were reported for Indonesia, Latin America, Mexico, the U.S., Canada, and Australia.

Training and Development to Teach Company Values

The items which queried employees about their companies' training practices in corporate values had less variability in the “is now” means than in the “should be” means. This outcome was consistent with the first six items, and in contrast to the preceding three items. For “is now” responses, the means ranged from a low of 2.64 in the U.S. to 3.27 in China. The “should be” means ranged from a low of 3.40 in Japan to 4.66 in Latin America. The “gaps” were large for Indonesia, Mexico, Latin America, the U.S., Canada, and Australia.

Training Effectiveness Items

Managers' perceptions of the extent to which training and development practices are effective in helping the company to have high-performing employees, to have employees who were satisfied with their jobs, and to make a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization had a remarkably consistent set of means and patterns across the nine countries and one region examined in this study. Means for “having high performing employees” ranged from 2.96 in the U.S. to 3.63 in China. Means for “having satisfied employees” ranged from 2.74 in the U.S. to 3.56 in China. Finally, means for “overall effectiveness of the organization” ranged from 3.08 in the U.S. to 3.70 in Latin America. The U.S. managers were consistently the least optimistic about the impact of training and de-

velopment practices, whereas managers in Latin America, Mexico, and China were the most optimistic.

Summary of Results

The variability in responses for the ten training and development practices and three training effectiveness items should lessen concerns about response patterns. Correspondingly, the greater variability in responses to training and development items, as compared to those measuring the perceived role of training and development in achieving organizational effectiveness, suggests that respondents gave thoughtful responses to items rather than exhibiting within-country, scale-anchor preferences.

In conclusion, in each country, managers perceived that training and development “should be” used more for the ten training and development items investigated here. Large within-country differences or “gaps” between the “is now” and “should be” items were observed for Indonesia, Latin America, Mexico, the U.S., Canada, and Australia. Only small differences or “gaps” were observed for Taiwan, Japan, Korea, and China.

Discussion

The results indicated that perceptions of current and desired training and development practices were to some extent country specific, while, on the other hand, the data provided evidence for country-cluster approaches to training and development practices.

Training and Development as a Reward to Employees

For all of the countries and the region examined, managers reported a moderate use of training and development as a reward for employees, with the exception of the Taiwanese managers, who reported using training and development to a larger extent. Only the Mexican managers reported a desire to substantially increase this practice in the future. As other researchers have found, training and development has represented an opportunity for employment or promotion, not only in Tai-

wan and China, but also in Mexico (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995; Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992; Salas, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999). In many developing countries, salaries have tended to be low and job mobility has often been limited. Therefore, training has represented a method of moving ahead in the employment system. It may not be surprising that in many developing countries such as China, Taiwan, and Mexico, the value of an employee’s contributions to a company may be compensated, at least in part, in the form of training and career development.

Training and Development to Improve Employees’ Technical Skills

The managers from the sample countries claimed that their organizations used training and development to a large extent to improve employees’ technical skills. These results are consistent with international training and development research which has found that gaining job-related knowledge or skills is stressed in both developed and developing nations (e.g., Morishima, 1995; Koch, Nam, & Steers, 1995; Nyaw, 1995; Wu, 1990; Li, 1990; Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992; Shelton, 1995; Murray, Whitehead, & Blake, 1990; Benson, 1997; Salas, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999).

The sampled managers also indicated that their organizations should increase this practice in the future, especially in the Mexican and in the Latin American organizations. Given the growing importance of Central and South America as both manufacturing and exporting platforms, the need to systematically train employees in technical skills is necessary to meet business objectives.

Training and Development to Improve Employees’ Interpersonal Skills

The managers reported moderate training efforts in current interpersonal skill development. However, managers from Mexico, Latin America, and the Anglo countries indicated a significant desire to increase interpersonal skills training in the future. These findings may provide a valuable indicator regarding the in-

It may not be surprising that in many developing countries such as China, Taiwan, and Mexico, the value of an employee’s contributions to a company may be compensated, at least in part, in the form of training and career development.

creasing importance of the “softer” management practices in the Anglo and Latin countries in our sample. In contrast, the Asian managers reported no significant desire to increase their organizations’ level of training in interpersonal skills, an indicator that these skills are thoroughly incorporated in their corporate cultures and development of their human resources. These findings are consistent with existing literature which posits that, in China, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan, companies tend to place more emphasis on corporate values and interpersonal skills than is typically the case with their Western counterparts (Koch, Nam & Steers, 1995; Kuo & Lin, 1990).

Training and Development to Remedy Employees’ Poor Past Performance

Substantial differences in training and development practices were found with respect to correcting employees’ past poor performances. The Japanese managers indicated that correcting past performance was currently used to a small extent in their organizations and that their organizations should substantially increase this practice in the future. These observations are both noteworthy, because the Japanese are widely cited for their systematic use of on-the-job training (Morishima, 1995), and are part of the continuous improvement (*kaizen*) system. We would expect the Japanese to include improvement of past performance in their training and development practices. Another explanation might be that these benchmarks reflect a pressure to continuously improve on the job and, therefore, a desire to increase the level of training is reported.

The American and Canadian managers reported little use of current corrective training and development practices, but did report an interest in significantly increasing their organizations’ training to correct performance problems. These results might be further evidence of the training deficiencies in our literature review about these countries.

The Mexican and Latin American managers reported a moderate use of corrective training practices, and a desire for a significant increase in this practice. In Mexico, em-

ployee training and on-the-job learning have been done more on an “ad hoc” basis with the exception of foreign multinationals (Flynn, 1994; Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992). For instance, American and Japanese multinationals, like Ford and Sony, have invested heavily in additional training and development for key technical personnel. These activities have often included sending workers to manufacturing facilities in the U.S. and Japan.

Training and Development to Prepare Employees for Future Job Assignments

The extent to which managers reported that their organizations’ employees were being prepared for future jobs was moderate to large, with the exception of U.S. managers, whose responses were below average. However, managers from China, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan reported only a slight interest in better preparing their employees for future job assignments.

These results appear consistent with research in international HRM, which posits that, in China, Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, organizations make a formal commitment to an employee’s future. Even though the organizations’ formal commitment to their employees’ futures appears similar on the surface, it is quite different in practice. For example, in Japan training and development tends to be planned and executed in a diligent, disciplined manner. Systematic job changes are part of the long formative years of employees with a high degree of commitment apparent at every level (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995; Brown, Nakata, Reich, & Ulman, 1997). In Korea, more emphasis is placed on molding future managers to fit the corporate culture, and training is seen as the way to obtain this goal across the corporation (Koch, Nam, & Steers, 1995). In China, the high degree of government involvement compels companies to train and retrain their workforce at every level (Nyaw, 1995). In Taiwan, both the government and local companies play an important role in training and developing the work force. However, Taiwanese companies seem to have a greater interest in managerial training rather than technical training (Fahr, 1995).

... in Japan training and development tends to be planned and executed in a diligent, disciplined manner.

Training and Development to Build Teamwork Within the Company

The managers reported moderate levels of training and development in team building, with the exception of the Taiwanese managers, who reported a substantially greater orientation toward team building. The Asian managers in our sample reported only a slight interest in increased future team building practices, which is evidence of their high levels of current commitment to this practice. For example, in Korea, team spirit, commitment to the company and coworkers are emphasized in management training (Koch, Nam, & Steers, 1995). In Japan, for both production and white-collar workers, the use of cross-functional teams and coaching are two main mechanisms of on-the-job training (Morishima, 1995).

To the contrary, managers from the Anglo and Latin American countries in our sample indicated a desire to substantially increase future team building practices. As others have reported, these results are evidence of the current lack of commitment to team building in U.S. organizations (Salas, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999), and the hierarchical business culture in Latin America (Drost & Von Glinow, 1998). A recent study of U.S. organizations posited that half of the companies surveyed trained only 1% of their employees in team building practices (Bassi & Van Buren, 1999). In Latin America's hierarchical business culture, most line workers have not been involved in participative management. Line workers have generally been more interested in pleasing their direct supervisor than in contributing to the company as a whole. This can create a wariness of instituting change when it comes to implementing team building.

Training and Development to Provide Initial Training

The Korean, Taiwanese, Japanese, and Chinese managers reported that their companies provided substantial initial training and development to their employees. From observations of Korean, Taiwanese, Japanese, and Chinese companies, it has been repeatedly

stated that in-house and on-the-job training and development are essential building blocks their HRM strategies for both blue- and white-collar workers (Morishima, 1995; Nyaw, 1995). This once again accounts for the small difference between the "is now" and "should be" responses.

Managers from the U.S., Canada, Latin America, and Mexico reported that employees received relatively limited initial training, while Australia's managers reported moderate initial training practices. In Mexico and Latin America, initial training and development activities have not typically gone beyond that of basic training at the factory level. All the non-Asian countries indicated a desire for substantially more initial training in the future.

Training and Development to Help Employees Understand the Business

Our literature review revealed little on training in business practices, per se, which we interpreted to mean an understanding of the company's products and markets. The Asian managers reported the highest mean scores for current practice. Interestingly, the Japanese managers reported the lowest average score compared to their Asian counterparts. None of the Asian managers reported an interest in increasing training in understanding business practices, because, once again, their more integrated approach to training and development already includes this practice.

The non-Asian managers reported little current training in understanding their company's business practices, and a substantial interest in increasing this practice. An explanation of the large "gap" reported by the U.S. managers in this training practice reflects the minimal expenditure for this type of training by U.S. companies.

Training and Development to Provide Cross-Training

Chinese and Taiwanese managers reported above-average responses to current cross-training practices. In Taiwan, job rotation is perceived as one of the most effective training and development practices (Li, 1990). In China, we believe that cross-training is a part

None of the Asian managers reported an interest in increasing training in understanding business practices, because, once again, their more integrated approach to training and development already includes this practice.

of the government's on-going involvement in aggressive training and development of their workforce. The other Asian managers, namely Korean and Japanese, reported below-average levels of cross-training. This is surprising because in Japan, for example, jobs are structured broadly and flexibly, and workers are exposed to a large variety of tasks and duties, which encourages multi-skilling (Morishima, 1995). It may be that in Korea and Japan, such value is placed on cross-training that more is always desired. Additionally, none of the Asian managers reported an interest in increased cross-training, because we again believe that their organizations are already committed to this practice.

The non-Asian managers reported little current cross-training and a substantial desire for increased cross-training. These findings could be a result of the lack of planned training in American companies, cross-skilling in Australian and Canadian companies (Sales, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999; Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995) and the basic skill-building orientation of Mexican companies (Flynn, 1994).

Training and Development to Teach Company Values

The Asian managers in our sample reported moderate levels of training in corporate values and little desire to increase these practices. These results were somewhat surprising with respect to current practice, particularly, for Korea, where training and development, especially for managers, is centered on mold-

ing managers to fit into the company's corporate culture (Koch, Nam, & Steers, 1995). The small "gap" between current and desired practice for the Asian countries, we again believe, is a function of their more holistic approach to human resource development and that their organizations are already committed to this practice.

The non-Asian countries indicated below-average levels of training in corporate values and an interest in substantially increasing the level of their organizations' training in corporate values. Even though the HR literature on corporate values is limited, it may be the large "gap" in corporate value training in the U.S. sample is a result of the more task and skill orientation of U.S. corporate training programs.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study is to analyze training and development practices within and across nine countries and one region. It is also to address whether there are common or universal training and development practices across countries. While we could find no universal or common practices across all the countries and region examined, we found significant similarities in practices within country clusters.

Among the nine countries and one region represented in Table II, the managers from the Asian countries stood out as the most consistently satisfied with their organizations' training and development practices. In contrast, the managers from Mexico and Latin America most consistently perceived their or-

TABLE II Within-Country Mean Difference Scores by Item.

Item	COUNTRY									
	US	CAN	AUS	JAP	PRC	TAI	KOR	MEX	LAT	IND
1. Reward	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	L	M	M
2. Technical	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	L	S	L
3. Interpersonal	L	S	M	S	S	S	S	L	L	M
4. Remedy perf.	L	M	S	L	S	S	S	L	M	L
5. Future assign.	L	L	L	S	S	S	S	L	L	L
6. Team building	L	L	L	S	S	S	S	L	L	L
7. Initial training	L	L	S	S	S	S	S	L	L	L
8. Understand bus.	L	L	L	S	S	S	S	L	L	L
9. Cross-training	L	L	L	S	S	S	S	L	L	L
10. Corp. values	L	L	L	S	S	S	S	L	L	L

L = mean difference > 1.0; M = mean difference between 0.9 and 1.0; S = mean difference < 0.9.

ganizations' training and development practices to be largely inadequate and in need of improvement. The American, Canadian, and Australian managers perceived the "softer" training and development practices (i.e., team building, understanding business practices, and corporate values) as well as the more "pro-active" training and development practices (i.e., preparation for future assignment and cross-training) to be lacking and in need of substantial improvement. The common practices found within these three country clusters are, we believe, influenced by cultural values and industry trends.

Cultural Values

The individualism and collectivism value distinction is believed to be one of the most influential dimensions of cultural variation (Triandis, 1995; Hofstede, 1991). We find these dimensions in the Asian and Anglo clusters.

In Asia, the work culture has been characterized as emphasizing a collectivist nature. In collectivist societies, people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which, throughout their lives, continue to protect them in exchange for unquestionable loyalty (Hofstede, 1991, p. 55). According to Hofstede (pp. 64–65), in collectivist societies the relationship between employer and employee is perceived in moral terms. The work place resembles a family relationship with mutual obligations of protection in exchange for loyalty. Collectivist societies stress adaptation to the skills and virtues necessary to be an acceptable group member. Training is a benefit offered by the organization and reinforces the employee's dependence on the organization. Completion of training (i.e., a certificate of completion) is an honor to the holder and his/her group, which entitles the holder to associate with higher-status groups (i.e., a promotion on the job). It is a ticket to a better future. As such, training plays an important role in social mobility and acceptance. In collectivist societies, management is management of relationships. Consistent with this philosophy are our findings in Table II, which show commitment to training and development across the Asian countries.

A single exception is reflected in the Japanese managers' reporting of a large "gap" in remedying past performance. This seemed curious, at first, considering the Japanese *kaizen* system of continuous improvement. For the Japanese, this practice may be so ingrained in their business practices that the "gap" may reflect the pressure of constantly having to improve one's current performance.

In the U.S., Canada, and Australia, work cultures have been characterized as individualistic in nature. In individualistic societies, ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him or herself (Hofstede, 1991, p. 51). As discussed by Hofstede (pp. 64–65), the work place stresses the employee's independence from the organization. The relationship between employer and employee is considered a business transaction. Workers act as economic men, as individuals with their own needs. Freedom, personal time, and challenge are important work goals in individualistic societies, stressing the employee's independence from the organization. In individualistic societies, management is management of individuals. Consistent with this philosophy are our findings in Table II, which show a reactive, task-oriented approach to training and development practices in the Anglo countries, evidenced by the small "gap" in technical training and the large "gap" in pro-active, future-oriented training practices (Drost, 1995). Again reflecting individualism is the large "gap" in the "softer management" practices such as team building, understanding business practices and corporate values.

Industry Trends

In Mexico and Latin America, our data strongly indicate that training and development practices are related to changing economies and the expansion of trade. These changes alter the focus and structure of many industries across this country cluster. Training and development practices accommodate shifts in industry requirements and relate to needs for enhanced competitiveness. As we see in Table II, training and development in this country cluster is characterized by the continuous need to upgrade basic skills in la-

The work place resembles a family relationship with mutual obligations of protection in exchange for loyalty.

bor-intensive industries, as evidenced by the large “gap” in all training and development practices. This could imply that the respondents’ organizations were in a learning state with respect to modern management techniques, and in need of appropriate training and development.

In the U.S., Canada, and Australia, where industry technology are service oriented, worker productivity is increased by resourceful training and development practices (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995). In such an environment, companies require that employees are capable of thinking critically, building team skills, and learning on the job. Another indication of a relationship between the industry trends and the “gap” in training is the pressure of companies to cut costs and outsource training. As training moves outside of the organization, training consultants may develop programs that might not fit the organization’s training needs (Salas, Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, & Bowers, 1999). This could cause employees to perceive that training is neither valued nor effective.

In Asia, globalization and the expansion of trade have altered the structure of many industries. As a result, labor-intensive industries will shift locations to reduce cost (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995). For example, Taiwan and South Korea have traditionally been the preferred low-cost manufacturing sites. However, as wages and other cost-related factors began to escalate in these countries, multinationals began to look toward Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand for their operations (Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992). As a result, industries in Taiwan and Korea, for instance, will become more capital-intensive and technology-driven, creating different training and development needs. Despite these trends, and the recent Asian economic crisis, the training and development practices in our Asian cluster remained surprisingly stable and effective in the perception of their managers. Our result may reflect the collectivistic mind-sets of these managers, perhaps indicating an unwillingness to report inadequacies in their organizations’ training and development practices.

Limitations

This study contributes to the international training and development literature in several

ways. First, our framework of comparing managerial perceptions of current with desired training and development practices may be of use in determining whether current practices are a source of value-added for organizations (Jennings, Cyr, & Moore, 1995). However, we believe caution must be observed when managerial perceptions about desired future practices are used to form the basis for maintaining or prescribing future training and development practices, particularly when there is no objective utility data available on their value. Secondly, the samples are varied in terms of depth and breadth of industries surveyed for each country, which may account for variations our findings.

Implications

In many ways our study emphasized the importance of context. Throughout the article, we outlined government policy, economic development, and business practices which, we felt, influenced training and development across countries. In interpreting the results, we observed that similarity of training and development across country clusters was, indeed, influenced by industry trends and cultural characteristics. These observations should provide practitioners with initial guidelines in designing appropriate training and development practices across countries. They can also provide researchers with insight into future research questions as to how government and industry affect training and development practices, how business strategies affect training and development practices, and how we might measure the utilization of training and development across countries.

APPENDIX (SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS AND ITEMS)

The purpose of training and development

How accurately do the following statements describe the purposes of your company’s Training and Development practices? For each statement provide two responses.

First, use the left column to indicate the extent to which the statements below describe

the way Training and Development Practices are currently conducted (“is now”).

Second, use the right column to indicate to what extent the statements below describe the way Training and Development Practices ought to be conducted to promote organizational effectiveness (“should be”).

Training practice items

1. Provide a reward to employees.
2. Improve their technical job abilities.
3. Improve employee interpersonal abilities, i.e., how well they relate to others.
4. Remedy poor past performance.
5. Prepare employees for future job assignments.
6. Build teamwork within the company.
7. Provide substantial training when employees first start working in the company.

8. Help employees understand the business, e.g., knowledge of competitors, new technologies, etc.
9. Provide employees with the skills needed to do a number of different jobs, not just one particular job.
10. Teach employees about the company’s values and ways of doing things.

Please use the same scale to indicate to what extent your company’s training & development practices are effective

1. The training practices help our company to have high-performing employees.
2. The training practices help our company to have employees who are satisfied with their jobs.
3. The training practices make a positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organization.

ELLEN A. DROST is a visiting professor at American University, where she teaches international business. She was previously on the faculty of Thunderbird and San Diego State University. Ellen has authored numerous articles, manuscripts, and conference papers in international strategic human resource management and cross-cultural leadership. Her most recent research focuses on strategic decision making and entrepreneurship. Ellen is a principal researcher in an international research consortium, that investigates best international human resource management practices. She has collaborated as a consultant, benchmarked organizations in Mexico, and given lecture tours in Mexico. Ellen received her doctorate degree in international business and management from Florida International University. She received her management experience in Amsterdam and Brussels with the International Gold Corporation, an international marketing organization. Ellen was born in The Netherlands and speaks, reads, and writes Dutch, English, and French, fluently.

COLETTE A. FRAYNE is Professor of International Management in the Global Strategy and Law Area at California Polytechnic University in San Luis Obispo. She earned a B.S. in Business at University of Delaware, an MBA from University of San Diego, and a Ph.D. from University of Washington. Dr. Frayne has published over 50 articles and books on topics such as self-management, international joint ventures and alliances, and international human resource management and serves on several journal editorial boards. An award-winning teacher and trainer, she is active worldwide in consulting and executive development activities for corporations and government agencies.

KEVIN B. LOWE is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Business Administration at the University of North Carolina—Greensboro. Dr. Lowe obtained a B.S. in Finance from the University of Louisville, an MBA from Stetson University, and a Ph.D. from Florida International University. Professor Lowe worked for several years in finance and strategic planning for Baxter International and Florida Power and Light prior to pursuing an academic career. His primary research interests are leadership and international human resource management. He is currently serving a second term as an Associate Editor of *The Leadership Quarterly*.

J. MICHAEL GERINGER is Professor of International Strategy and Chairperson of the Global Strategy and Law Area at California Polytechnic University in San Luis Obispo. He earned a B.S. in Business at Indiana University, and both MBA and Ph.D. at University of Seattle. Dr. Geringer has published over 100 papers and nine books and monographs on topics related to strategic management, entrepreneurship, international business, joint ventures and alliances, and strategic human resource management. He has received over a dozen awards for his teaching and he is active worldwide in consulting and executive development activities.

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ENDNOTE

1. To date we were unable to find any relevant literature on training and development practices in Indonesia. Our treatment of Indonesia in this paper is, therefore, incomplete. We did, however, include the data in our results and tables as initial benchmarks of training and development practices in Indonesia to enable the reader to compare them to the training and development data from the other countries in our study.