

SELF-MONITORING, CULTURAL TRAINING AND PRIOR INTERNATIONAL WORK EXPERIENCE AS PREDICTORS OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE – A STUDY OF INDIAN EXPATRIATES

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Abstract. *The present study examined the role of self-monitoring, expatriate training, and prior international work experience on the cultural intelligence of expatriates. The data was collected from 223 Indian expatriates through a questionnaire survey. The results of data analysis indicated that self-monitoring has a significant impact on the cultural intelligence of the expatriates. Further analysis was done to examine the effect of these independent variables on individual dimensions of cultural intelligence. The findings signify that self-monitoring has a significant effect on all the three cultural dimensions, namely, cognitive, emotional/motivational and behavioral, and that expatriate training has a significant impact on the emotional/motivational dimension, but not on the other two. Prior international work experience was found not to have a significant effect on cultural intelligence and its dimensions. These findings provide significant insights into organizations for selecting and training the expatriates leading to their effective adjustment and performance in a different culture context. This paper contributes to expatriate management literature highlighting the effect of personality variables along with expatriate training. Further, it is a contribution to the research in cultural intelligence which is a relatively nascent area of research.*

Key words: *cultural intelligence, expatriate, expatriate training, self-monitoring*

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1. Introduction

With the advent of globalization, and breakdown of trade barriers, innovation in communication mechanism etc. have facilitated organizations across the globe to enter the various markets. As a result, employees in organizations are now exposed to unfamiliar cultural contexts and culturally diverse workforces. These cross-cultural interactions are challenging for individuals and their organizations since cultural differences increase conflicts and frictions (Black *et al.*, 1991; Caligiuri, 2000a; Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Lievens *et al.*, 2003; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002). The inability to acclimatize and understand a different culture can lead to inappropriate use of language and behavior, which can negatively impact both relationship building and individual and organizational performance. There is abundant evidence that international assignment managers experience severe problems in terms of effectiveness and meeting organizational and personal expectations (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000a; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Harvey *et al.*, 2002; Yan *et al.*, 2002). The meta-analysis carried out by Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) of over 50 determinants and consequences of expatriate adjustment, signified that cultural adjustment “is perhaps the strongest determinant of disengagement and withdrawal decisions” (p. 273). The failure of international assignment results in significant direct and indirect costs (e.g., Harzing, 1995; Osland, 1996) and loss of business confidence and damaged relations to the host country market (Harzing, 2002; Selmer, 2002).

Research on expatriate management has recognized that various individual variables, like personality traits, ability, skill, gender, marital status, prior international experience, local language fluency etc. are important predictors of expatriate effectiveness in their international assignment (Caligiuri, 2000b; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Holopainen & Björkman, 2005; Kim & Slocum, 2008). Landis and Brislin (1983) suggested that it is necessary to train people in order to help them to fit in the diverse global environment, and work effectively. Further studies have demonstrated that cultural intelligence (CQ) is vital for expatriates working on international assignments (Alon & Higgins, 2005). However, there is dearth of studies examining the combined effect of individual and organizational factors on expatriates adjustment with another culture. The aim of the present study was to examine the cultural intelligence of expatriates, which is considered to be one of key factors influencing their adjustment with another culture. A further objective was to investigate the independent and interactive effect of self monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on the cultural intelligence of expatriates.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Cultural intelligence (CQ)

Earley and Ang (2003) proposed the Cultural Intelligence (CQ) term to capture the ability to adapt across cultures, and they stated that it reveals a person’s capability to gather, interpret, and act upon radically different cues to function effectively across

cultural settings. Although CQ is a relatively new concept, concepts related to it have been studied for a long time, including intelligence (Thorndike, 1936), culture (Hofstede, 1984, 1997), global mindset (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002) and cross-cultural competence (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). CQ has been the first effort to separate out and focus on the unique characteristics and behaviors that differentiate a culturally intelligent individual (Thomas, 2006).

The concept of CQ is not simply social intelligence or emotional intelligence with slight modifications for multiculturalism (Ang *et al.*, 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ is a multidimensional construct that includes the four fundamental components: meta-cognitive facet (CQ-strategy), cognitive facet (CQ-Knowledge), motivational facet (CQ-Motivation), and behavioral facet (CQ-Behavior) (Ang *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003, Earley *et al.*, 2006; Ng & Earley, 2006). The essence of these domains can be summarized by asking three questions: “Do I know what is happening? . . . Am I motivated to act? . . . [and] Can I respond appropriately and effectively?” (Early & Ang, 2003). These questions reflect the three core elements of CQ: cognition, emotion/motivation and behavior (Ng & Earley, 2006).

The cognitive aspect of CQ refers to the information-processing aspects of intelligence, and can be conceptualized by the self-concept theory (Earley, 2003). The emotion/motivation aspect of CQ reflects a self-concept, and directs and motivates adaptation to new cultural surroundings (Earley & Peterson, 2004). The behavioral aspect implies that adaptation is not only having the understanding of ‘what and how’ (i.e., the cognitive element) and ‘having the willingness’ (motivation) but also the response needed for a given situation in one’s behavioral repertoire. Thus, CQ refers to a person’s ability to acquire or adapt behaviors appropriate for a new culture (Earley & Peterson, 2004).

Research suggests that expatriates having high cultural intelligence are more likely to effectively function and develop effective social relations with other host country individuals. According to Kim *et al.* (2006), for the expatriate with high cultural intelligence it is easier to understand unfamiliar cultures compared to the expatriates who lack this ability. Expatriates high in cultural intelligence have the ability to seek pertinent information about the host country, recognize culture specific behaviors, adjust easily, and interact effectively with individuals from other cultures (Brislin *et al.*, 2006). CQ has a unique explanatory power in predicting intercultural effectiveness; cultural judgment and decision making; cultural adaptation and task performance (Ang *et al.*, 2007). It might contribute to the level of expatriate adjustment which leads to higher performance (e.g., Earley & Ang 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2012; Ramalu *et al.*, 2011).

Studies have demonstrated that the variations in the success of international assignment are also influenced by personality related factors. In order to understand the role of personality variables in successful adjustment with cross cultural settings, Ang *et al.* (2006) investigated the relationships between the Big Five personality traits and cultural intelligence. The findings of the study signified that openness to experience is significantly related to a person’s capability to function effectively when interacting

with individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Ang et al. (2007) suggested examining the effect of various other potential individual predictors of CQ, including self-monitoring.

2.2. Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is considered to be a central concept in the analysis of social interaction (Anderson, 1987; Furnham & Capon, 1983). It entails both sensitivity to situational cues and the ability to adapt to situational demands (Bell et al., 2000). According to self-monitoring theory, people are internally or externally motivated (Snyder, 1974). Internally motivated individuals are characterized as low self-monitors (LSM), and externally motivated individuals are characterized as high self-monitors HSM. HSMs are attentive to contextual cues and they adjust their behavior accordingly, while LSMs mostly operate from internal states (Nelson & Quick, 1994). HSMs have the orientation driven by the situation to be the right person, in the right place, at the right time (Snyder, 1987) and mentally construct carefully tailored images and use these images as guides to engage in the appropriate behaviors. LSMs use internal attitudes, values, and beliefs as guides to behavior and are consistent in their expressions across situations (Snyder & Monson, 1975). Most of the time, high self-monitors have a tendency to be more involved in their jobs, have higher levels of cognitive ability, perform at higher levels, are rated as better managers, and are more likely to emerge as leaders (Day & Schleicher, 2006).

Studies have reported that self-monitoring influences the adaptation to other culture. High self-monitors have better interaction and adjustment to their host culture than the low self-monitors did (Harrison et al., 1996). A study of 162 Polish immigrants indicated that self monitoring was positively related to socio-cultural and psychological adaptation (Kosic et al., 2005). Day and Schleicher (2006) stated that a self-monitoring personality is an important construct in understanding how relationships in different culture are formed and maintained.

2.3. Expatriate Training

Literature on expatriates has pointed out that the problem which expatriates, their families, organizations, and subsidiary employees come across is when expatriates do not have required cross-cultural skills (Forster, 2000; Osman-Gani, 2000; Sargent & Matthews, 1998; Zakaria, 2000). Hence cross-cultural training before taking up an expatriation appointment has often been viewed as a way to increase the likelihood of success during the assignment (e.g., Bolino & Feldman, 2000; van Emmerik & Euwema, 2009; Hurn, 2007; Qin & Baruch, 2010). Studies have indicated the positive relationship between cross-cultural training and job satisfaction (Bozionelos, 2009), lower failure rate and reduce culture shock (Deal & Kennedy, 1982) when expatriates are trained before the expatriate assignment. The justification for providing cross cultural training is the conviction that management skills are not necessarily generalizable and expatriate

managers need to integrate their existing management skills with cross-cultural skills to attain intercultural ineffectiveness (Osman-Gani, 2000). According to Zakaria (2000), cross-cultural training could switch attitude from home-cultural management mind-set to diverse-cultural management mind-set which helps expatriates adapt better. It is also regarded as a means of reducing pressure and uncertainty, and enhances the expatriates' ability to fit in the new environment and prevent failures (Befus, 1988; Caligiuri *et al.*, 2001; Zakaria, 2000). Some researchers have reported a weak relationship between cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment in the host workplace (e.g., Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Bozionelos, 2009); others have suggested that there may be indirect impact, and not immediate (van Eerde *et al.*, 2008). Studies also have examined the impact of the type of training on different dimensions of CQ. Rehg *et al.* (2012) reported that training using a lecture format significantly improved mean levels of CQ on the cognitive and behavioral dimensions, while less significantly improving motivational CQ. Further, Kate (2003) pointed out the need of examining the cross-cultural training in emerging economies as most of the studies had been conducted in western firms.

3. Proposed Model and Hypotheses

The literature review indicated that studies have examined the role of self-monitoring on cultural adaptation and adjustment and another group of studies demonstrates the impact of expatriate training on cultural adjustment. Lee and Suckoco (2010) reported that prior international working and travel experience moderate the effects of CQ on cultural adjustment and cultural effectiveness. The present study examines the independent and interactive effect of self-monitoring, cultural training and prior international work experience on cultural intelligence. It further investigates the effect of these variables on individual dimensions of cultural intelligence, namely, cognitive, emotional and behavioral. The study proposed the following model (Figure 1) for investigation.

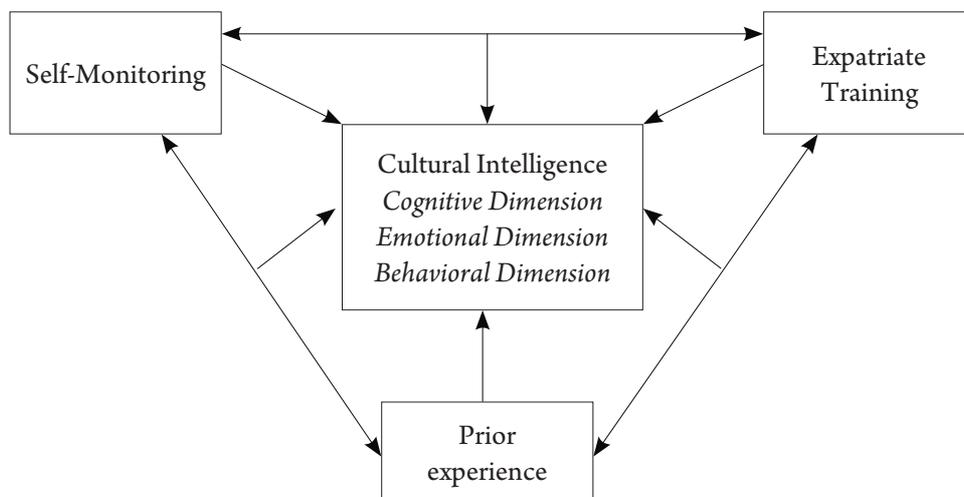


FIGURE 1. Proposed Model for the Study

The hypotheses that were framed to examine the relationship among study variables are as follows:

H1. Expatriates with high self-monitoring will have higher cultural intelligence compared to expatriates with low-self-monitoring.

H2. Expatriates who have been given intensive training will have higher cultural intelligence than others who were not given any training or were given the basic training.

H3. Expatriates who have prior international work experience will have higher cultural intelligence than those who do not have prior experience.

H4: Self-monitoring will affect differently the different dimensions of cultural intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).

H5: Training will have a different impact on different dimensions of cultural intelligence: (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).

H6: Prior international work experience will have a different impact on different dimensions of cultural intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).

H7. There will be a significant interactive effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on cultural-intelligence.

H8. There will be a significant interactive effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on different dimensions of cultural-intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants

The participants were 223 Indian expatriates in US and European countries. The majority were from Information Technology sector (around 65%) and the rest were from various sectors such as electronics, retail, chemical, pharmaceutical, etc. 49.4% belonged to the age group of 26-30 years, followed by 19.8% from 31-40 years, 8.4% from 21-25 years age group and the rest (7.2%) were 40 and above years of age category. 59.7% have work experience less than five years, and others (40.3%) have work experience more than five years. Male respondents accounted for 79.8% of the sample and 22.2 % were females (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Age Group (in Years)	% of Participants	Experience (in year)	% of Participants	Gender	% of Participants
21-25	8.4	Less than 5 years	59.7	Male	79.8
26-30	49.4	More than 5 years	40.3	Female	22.2
31-40	19.8				
40 and above	7.2				

4.2. Instruments

4.2.1. Cultural Intelligence

Culture intelligence was measured using the instrument designed by Early and Mosakowski (2004). It is a 12-item instrument and assesses three dimensions, namely, cognitive dimension, emotional/motivational dimension, and behavioral dimension of cultural intelligence. The participants were asked to rate each item on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicated higher cultural intelligence. In the current sample, the Cronbach alpha for the instrument was 0.82.

4.2.2. Self-Monitoring

It was measured with 13-items taken from the Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) scale. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (5) = always true to (1) = always false. Items 9 and 12 were reverse scored. Higher scores indicated higher self-monitoring. The scale shows reliability coefficient of 0.70.

4.2.3. Cultural Training

The participants were asked about what type of training was imparted to them before international assignments. They were asked to indicate their responses on one of the three options, namely: a) not given any training, b) given the basic training c) given intensive cross-cultural training.

4.2.4. Prior experience of International assignment

The participants were also inquired about whether they have prior international work experience. The responses indicated that 78% expatriates have prior experience of international assignment while for 22% expatriates it was the first international assignment.

4.3. Analysis

Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. Hypotheses were tested using Analysis of variance (ANOVA).

5. Results

5.1. Descriptive Statistics

The means and standard deviations for cultural intelligence, its dimensions and self-monitoring are presented in Table 2. The mean scores indicate that on average the expatriates have high cultural intelligence.

TABLE 2. Mean and Standard Deviations for Study Variables

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cultural Intelligence	3.97	.44
Cognitive dimension	3.98	.52
Emotional/motivational dimension	4.07	.53
Behavioral dimension	3.85	.53
Self-monitoring	3.57	.36

5.2. Cultural Intelligence, Self-monitoring, Expatriate Training and Prior International Work Experience

ANOVA was applied to assess the main and interaction effect of self-monitoring, training and prior international work experience on cultural intelligence. For self-monitoring questionnaire, individuals' item scores were summed and totals divided by the mean to convert them into high and low category on the self-monitoring scale. The mean score for the sample was 3.57. The respondents with a score higher than the mean value were categorized as high on self-monitoring (n= 101) and the respondents with a score lower than the mean value as low on self-monitoring (n = 122). To examine the impact of training on cultural intelligence, the respondents were divided into three groups on the basis of training they were provided. Out of 223, 139 were not given any type of training before the expatriate assignment, 41 were imparted language training and basic information of the host country, and 43 were given intensive cross-cultural training and were sensitized about the differences in home country and host country culture. With reference to prior international work experience, 49 participants did not have prior international work experience and 174 had the prior experience of international assignment. Significant results of ANOVA for cultural intelligence and dimensions of cultural intelligence are reported in Table 3 and Table 4 respectively. Mean scores for cultural intelligence and dimensions of cultural intelligence as a function of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior experience of international assignment are reported in Annex 1.

TABLE 3. Results of ANOVA for the effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on Cultural Intelligence¹

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Self-monitoring	6.35	1	6.35	50.15	.000
Expatriate training	.67	2	.33	2.62	.075
Error	27.010	213	.13		

The results of the analysis indicated a significant main effect of self-monitoring on cultural intelligence ($F(1, 213) = 50.15, p < .000$) suggesting significant differences

¹ Only significant results are reported in the table.

between high and low self-monitoring expatriates for cultural intelligence, which supports the hypothesis (H1) (Table 3). The Mean scores indicate that expatriates high in self-monitoring have better cultural intelligence ($M = 4.25$), compared to the expatriates low in self-monitoring ($M = 3.75$) (Annex 1). For expatriate training the main effect was significant at .07 level, while it is low compared to the generally expected criteria (.05 and .01 significance level) to reject and accept the hypothesis. However, this gives some indication that expatriate training has some effect on cultural intelligence.

For prior international work experience the results of ANOVA were also not significant. These findings do not support the stated hypotheses (H2 and H3) for the effect of expatriate training and prior experience of international assignment on cultural intelligence. The interactions between self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience were not significant and do not support the stated hypothesis (H7).

Further analysis was done to examine the impact of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on individual dimensions of cultural intelligence. The results of the analysis indicated significant differences between high self-monitoring and low-self monitoring expatriates for cognitive dimension, ($F(1,213) = 18.91, p < .000$), emotional/motivational dimensions ($F(1,213) = 53.74, p < .000$), and behavioral dimension ($F(1,213) = 24.56, p < .000$) and support the stated hypothesis (H4) (Table 4). Expatriates with high self-monitoring were found high in cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions ($M = 4.25; 4.39; \text{ and } 4.10$, respectively) compared to low on self-monitoring ($(M=3.78; 3.82; \text{ and } 3.65$, respectively) (Annex 1).

TABLE 4. Results of ANOVA for the effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on the individual dimensions of Cultural Intelligence²

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cognitive Dimension					
Self-monitoring	4.04	1	4.04	18.91	.000
Error	45.53	213	.214		
Emotional/motivational Dimension					
Self-monitoring	10.25	1	10.25	53.73	.000
Expatriate training	2.23	2	1.11	5.83	.003
Prior international work experience *	1.48	2	.74	3.87	.022
Expatriate training					
Error	40.63	213	.19		
Behavioral Dimension					
Self-monitoring	5.54	1	5.54	24.56	.000
Error	47.99	213	.23		

² Only significant results are reported in the table.

The type of training significantly influenced the emotional dimension ($F(2,213) = 5.83, p < .003$) of cultural intelligence, which partially supports the hypothesis (H5). Expatriates who were imparted intensive cross-cultural training, were better in emotional dimension of cultural intelligence ($M = 4.38$) compared to those who were not given any training or were given only basic training ($M = 4.04; M = 3.84$, respectively). There was no significant effect of prior international experience on the cultural intelligence of expatriates and this does not support the hypothesis proposed for the investigation (H6). The interaction between prior international experience and expatriate training was found to be significant, and it partially supports the stated hypothesis (H8). The expatriates who did not have prior international work experience and were not given any training were found low on cultural intelligence ($M = 3.95$) compared to those who had prior experience and were given intensive cultural training ($M = 4.20$).

6. Discussion and Conclusions

Historically, 80% of all companies selected their international managers on the basis of technical expertise and ignored the personal traits and other competency considerations. Later studies (e.g., Brownell, 2006; Chin et al., 2001) suggested that organizations should consider the various other capabilities that will enable employees to function effectively in multiple contexts. The novelty of the present study is that it examined the effect of self-monitoring, cross-cultural training and prior experience of international assignment on cultural intelligence in the emerging economy. The findings of the study support the propositions made by numerous scholars who emphasize the importance of non-technical factors in explaining the effectiveness of international assignment (e.g., Caligiuri, 1997a, b, 2000a). These findings become very important given the greater cultural distance between India, US and European countries (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997), which emphasizes the learning of the skills that would help expatriates to achieve intercultural competence.

The study proposed eight hypotheses for the investigation. The summary of the accepted and rejected hypotheses is reported in Table 4. The findings suggest that self-monitoring is a significant predictor of cultural intelligence and its dimensions, which supports the hypotheses related to the relationship of cultural intelligence with self-monitoring. These findings suggest that the self-monitoring skill offers an individual a superior ability to adapt their approach resulting in greater influence over others in another culture context, hence choose people who already possess some of the skills for international assignment. This is consistent with the literature that argues that in addition to technical competence, expatriates should be chosen who exhibit personality traits which make them more suitable for expatriate posting (Tung, 1981, 1990).

The impact of prior international work experience on cultural intelligence and its dimensions was not significant suggesting that prior experience with other cultural contexts does not improve the capability of an expatriate to understand the other culture. However, when expatriates with prior experience are provided intensive

TABLE 5. The Summary of Results

Hypotheses Accepted	Hypotheses Rejected
H1. Expatriates with high self-monitoring will have higher cultural intelligence compared to expatriates with low self-monitoring.	H2. Expatriates who have been given intensive training will have higher cultural intelligence than others who were not given any training and were given only basic training.
H4. Self-monitoring will affect differently the different dimensions of cultural intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).	H3. Expatriates who have prior international work experience will have higher cultural intelligence than those who do not have prior experience.
H5. Training will have a different impact on different dimensions of cultural intelligence: (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions). – <i>Training was found to have a significant effect on emotional dimension but not on cognitive and behavioral.</i>	H6. Prior international work experience will have a different impact on different dimensions of cultural intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions).
H8. There will be a significant interactive effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on different dimensions of cultural-intelligence (cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions). – <i>The interaction between expatriate training and prior experience of international assignment on emotional dimension was found significant.</i>	H7. There will be a significant interactive effect of self-monitoring, expatriate training and prior international work experience on cultural-intelligence.

training, it improves their efficacy, confidence and affect for another culture. Regarding the effect of training on cultural intelligence, the result was found significant only for the emotional dimension of cultural intelligence. The findings suggest that intensive cross-cultural sensitivity training has a more significant effect on the emotional dimension of cultural intelligence of expatriates than the basic training about the language and information about the country. These findings are in alignment with the findings of the recent study with Korean expatriates who reported that comprehensiveness rather than length of the pre-departure cross-cultural training was more positively related to CQ (Moon et al., 2012). This study also has limitations that offer crucial venues for future research. First, the sample size was not large enough to generalize the findings; therefore, the study needs to be replicated using a larger sample of employees. Second, common method bias may be a concern since both predictor and criterion variables are from the same source in this study. Future study should be more concerned about common method variance. Third, in this study criterion variables of cultural intelligence were not included. Future study should explore more extended models of cultural intelligence and self-monitoring by adding cultural adjustment and job performance as criterion variables. The present study gives some indication that expatriate training influences cultural intelligence, but results were not significant at generally expected criteria. One reason of it may be that the number of expatriates who have been given intensive cultural

training was very low (N = 41) compared to those who were not given any training at all (N = 139). Future studies need to re-examine the relationship with a representative sample of trained and not-trained expatriates.

In conclusion, the study has implications for cross-cultural management practice. It would help human resource professionals in creating culturally competent workforce. By demonstrating the relationship between cultural intelligence and self-monitoring, this study allows organizations to improve their staffing system. Organizations can use the cultural intelligence test to identify the candidate who would be the best fit for expatriate assignments. The present study also indicates that expatriate training to prepare the employees for international assignments needs to be improved in India as the responses of the sample expatriates suggest that expatriate training is rarely provided and, where it is, tends to be very much ad hoc in nature. In very few cases extensive training has been provided before the departure for international assignment.

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Annex 1

Mean Values for Cultural Intelligence and Its Dimensions as a function of Self-Monitoring, Expatriate Training and Prior Experience of International Assignment

Self-Monitoring	Prior experience of international assignment	Expatriate training	Mean Values			
			Cultural Intelligence	Cognitive dimension	Emotional dimension	Behavioral dimension
Low	No	No Training	3.69	3.70	3.75	3.64
		Basic Training	3.58	4.00	3.50	3.25
		Extensive training	4.17	4.00	4.75	3.75
		Total	3.72	3.73	3.79	3.63
	Yes	No Training	3.75	3.77	3.85	3.61
		Basic Training	3.72	3.77	3.71	3.67
		Extensive training	3.85	3.88	3.92	3.78
		Total	3.76	3.79	3.83	3.66
	Total	No Training	3.72	3.74	3.81	3.62
		Basic Training	3.71	3.78	3.69	3.66
		Extensive training	3.88	3.89	4.00	3.77
		Total	3.75	3.78	3.82	3.65
High	No	No Training	4.06	4.00	4.15	3.91
	Yes	No Training	4.26	4.33	4.41	4.05
		Basic Training	4.19	4.10	4.31	4.16
		Extensive training	4.35	4.27	4.48	4.29
		Total	4.27	4.28	4.41	4.13
	Total	No Training	4.22	4.27	4.39	4.03
		Basic Training	4.19	4.10	4.31	4.16
		Extensive training	4.35	4.27	4.48	4.29
		Total	4.25	4.25	4.39	4.10