

**Culture as a Mitigating Factor in the Perception of Path-Goal Leadership Styles and
Workgroup Effectiveness**

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**CULTURE AS A MITIGATING FACTOR IN THE PERCEPTION OF PATH-
GOAL LEADERSHIP STYLES AND WORKGROUP EFFECTIVENESS**

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Lynn University, 2009

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CULTURE AS A MITIGATING FACTOR IN THE PERCEPTION OF PATH- GOAL LEADERSHIP STYLES AND WORKGROUP EFFECTIVENESS

Alison Rampersad

Abstract

Sustaining a competitive edge in today's global business environment depends upon highly effective levels of teamwork from within an organization. During the last few decades, there has been a continuing trend of flattening or compressing the organizational hierarchy and depending on groups of employees working together as units, or workgroups, in a variety of industries. Corporate stockholders and stakeholders tend to consider workgroups an effective way to improve various aspects of organizational performance.

With the advent of the borderless organization, the workgroup has emerged as a significant entity involved in decision-making; project planning, design and implementation; inter-departmental endeavors; and other corporate activities. This is not to imply, however, that workgroups operate autonomously or without some type of leadership. Whether a leader is appointed by management, chosen by peers, or simply emerges due to strong character or personality, there is always someone responsible for the group's effectiveness. As challenges and personality conflicts arise, leadership style plays a pivotal role in group members' perceptions, interactions, and levels of collaboration.

Culture is a unique variable that helps to determine levels of interaction of team members, and to what extent they consider their own interactions effective relevant to the strategic plan of their corporation. Culture can be a uniting or a dividing factor for teams

and groups, and it appears that culture also influences team members' perceptions of their leader's effectiveness and that relationship to the workgroup's general effectiveness.

Cultural differences within workgroups can have a direct effect on key aspects of overall profitability performance such as effective resource allocation and management, turnover and training cost reductions, and decisions to outsource. Culture, and its relationship with leadership style and workgroup effectiveness, is crucial in the success and long-term sustainability of an organization.

This research focused on the relationship of culture with workgroup members' perceptions of the style their leader uses to accomplish established goals, as well as workgroup leaders' perceptions of their own leadership styles as they interact with workgroup members. This investigation also examined workgroup members' and leaders' perceptions of workgroup effectiveness based on their cultural backgrounds.

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Organization of the Study

Chapter I of this research study provides an overview of the relevant topics to be examined and discusses the issues and purpose of the study. The chapter also includes definitions of key terms, assumptions, and justification for and delimitations of the research. In this chapter, the experimental, co-relational, and causal design is introduced.

Chapter II reviews existing theoretical and empirical literature regarding culture, perceptions, leadership styles, and workgroup effectiveness. Also included in this chapter are findings from the critical analysis of the literature about the relationship between and among culture, perceptions, leadership styles, and workgroup effectiveness. The hypothesized conceptual model has been developed from the core findings in the literature.

Chapter III provides a complete accounting of the proposed methodology for this research. The chapter includes the study design, population and sample, survey instruments, procedures and ethical concerns, and plans for analysis and evaluation of the data collected. The instrument design section includes discussion of the conceptual model and the scales, questionnaires, and additional metrics used to evaluate the proposed relationship between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness. The data analysis section includes justification for the assessment of construct validity for all measures addressed in the study.

Chapter IV reveals the test results of this research and provides a more in-depth investigation into the hypothesized relationship between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

Chapter V provides a discussion of the results reported in Chapter IV. This study presents the first examination and exploration of the relationships between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and workgroup effectiveness.

CHAPTER I

Introduction and Background to the Problem

This chapter commences with an overview of leadership and leadership styles. This section also provides the theoretical foundation, research question, and hypotheses researched in this study.

Leadership

Literature about leadership roles, behaviors, and styles began to appear as far back as the early 1900s. Early theories assumed that certain physical, social, and personal characteristics are intrinsic in leaders, and that a leader interacted with group members in a particular manner (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Moving beyond trait theory, researchers began to classify leaders into various behavioral roles, assigning “styles”, in order to provide further understanding as to the nature of leadership. Behavioral theorists identified influencing factors of leadership with an eye on developing leaders through training programs, behavioral change models, and choice of the “best” style of leadership for the individual.

Frederick Fiedler’s (1993) theory suggests that there is not “one best way” to manage or lead, and that leadership style is contingent upon various ad hoc factors that may dictate a given managerial situation. In short, one leadership style may garner the best performance in a static work environment, while the same leadership style may produce poor results in a dynamic work environment. He therefore deduced that in a given situation, a manager with a particular style might be more effective or, a manager who could switch styles to suit the situation, might be equally effective. Thus a manager or leader could manipulate the work environment according to the appropriate leadership style.

There are four leadership styles:

1. telling - low follower maturity; high leader direction
2. selling - moderate follower maturity; leader encouragement to build confidence and impart responsibility
3. participating – increased follower maturity; less leader direction, and
4. delegating – highest follower maturity; lowest leader involvement.

Accordingly, the choice of appropriate leadership style is determined by follower maturity level relative to the task set being attempted. As maturity levels increase, the leader should gradually cut back on task direction, as well as on relationship behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974).

The Path-Goal leadership theory was developed by Robert House (1996) and is based, in part, on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation and Fiedler's (1993) contingency model. Unlike Fiedler's 1993 model, Path-Goal leadership allows for flexibility in leadership behavior. Accordingly, a manager is seen as a coach who guides employees to select the best way to achieve their goals while, at the same time, achieving the goals of the organization. The theory suggests that environment and follower characteristics will dictate how goals are set and the use of different leadership styles as required. Subordinates' personal characteristics control how the environment and leader are interpreted.

Culture

In the early 1980s, scholars began to analyze culture to better understand human motivation. One of these researchers was Geert Hofstede. In his 1980 book, *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Hofstede defined culture as "collective programming of the mind" and spoke of these "mental programs" specifically in relation to values and culture (Hofstede, 1980). He recognized that these mental programs could be universal, collective, or individual. Further, he formulated and applied four dimensions of

culture - Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Individualism (IDV), and Masculinity (MAS) – to his research.

Hofstede's research showed that culture is deeply rooted in value systems and that, over time, these value systems stabilize. He was one of the first to point out that groups within societies can form *subcultures*. Researchers have concluded that there are multiple aspects of culture that contribute to the cultural make-up of an individual (Hofstede, 1980 & Trompenaars, 1994).

Hofstede (1980) noted distinct variations in perceptions of leadership styles from country to country and reported that American theories and participative approaches that were acceptable in the United States were considered inappropriate elsewhere. According to Maier & Hoffman (1962), British managers were more accepting of an authoritarian style than American managers. These findings coincide with Hofstede's (1980) categorization of countries into groups like Asian, Mideastern, and Western, but are not supported by Heller & Porter's (1966) conclusions regarding similarities in the operational practices of American and British managers.

Schein, in his 1985 research, found that culture and leadership performance are inseparable. Negandhi (1983), on the other hand, contended that leadership styles differ by culture, but that technological and economic discrepancies were the cause of such variances.

Hundal (1971) found that leadership principles are universal, but that the manner in which they are adapted by individual cultures dictates success or failure. In 1983, Anderson compared various effective leadership behaviors to the cultural composition of workgroups in New Zealand and deduced that a workgroup's cultural makeup in no way affected leadership behavior. Bresnen, Bryman, Ford, Beardsworth, & Keil (1986), however, stated that linking relationships to leader orientation more likely would improve overall performance than

emphasize behavior. They also noted that there is a scarcity of literature pertaining to leader orientation and its relationship to effectiveness in complex organizations, and even less when culture is added to the equation.

Workgroup Effectiveness

During the early 1990s, many organizations began to move toward team-based management. Fisher (1994) touted this paradigm shift as the “second industrial revolution”; Fortune (1990) magazine referred to teams as “the productivity break-through of the ‘90s”; and Tom Peters (1995), renowned management expert, labeled teams “a basic organizational building block”.

The underlying significance of team-based management, also referred to as self-managed teams, is empowerment. Employees acquire a substantial amount of involvement and ownership which enables them to make decisions, thereby fostering motivation and productivity (Pett & Miller, 1994). The mathematical formula $Empowerment = f(Authority, Resources, Information, Accountability)$ identifies and integrates four variables (included in the formula) that must be present for empowerment to occur (Fisher, 1994).

Self-Managed work teams are divided into two types: permanent work teams performing daily activities, and temporary problem-solving teams with specific assignments. They generally include from 5 to 12 employees who have varying degrees of technical abilities and the power to manage themselves (Stokes & Stewart, 1991). These teams often are responsible for innovative products or services and for saving their organizations huge amounts of money (Brucker, 1995 and Barry, 1991).

Culpan and Kucukemiroglu (1993) compared Japanese and U.S. management styles and unit effectiveness and found significant differences based on six dimensions of supervision style.

Although their conceptual model does not mention “culture”, their findings do align with Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimensions. For example, American managers use a more non-participatory style of decision-making than do the Japanese. This would indicate an Individualist attitude on the part of the American managers and a Collectivist attitude from the Japanese. Examples such as this can be identified throughout Culpan and Kucukemiroglu’s (1993) study.

Smith, Peterson, and Misumi (1994) studied event management and effectiveness of work teams in British, Japanese, and U. S. electronics assembly plants. Their findings support their theory that work teams’ performance is directly linked to supervision rather than training or experience, regardless of country. This would seem to support Smith and Tayeb’s (1988) theory that organizational structures tend to be universal, while leadership styles and workgroup practices vary. Tayeb (1988) also found that even formal technological structures would be affected differently by dissimilar cultural environments.

A hypothesized model (Figure 1-1) was used to guide this research of culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness and to establish the parameters of this study.

Purpose of the Study

The topics of culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness are relevant to a variety of industries around the world. Given the trends of globalization, consolidation, mergers and acquisitions, and escalating competitiveness in various U.S. industrial sectors, coupled with the infusion of cultural diversity into organizational workgroups, evaluating leadership styles and measuring workgroup effectiveness have become increasingly important to executives and to scholars who study these topics.

As more and more organizations compress their hierarchies and move to team management, or increase the number of workgroups responsible for project implementation and completion, the perceptions of leadership style and its direct relationship to perceived workgroup effectiveness become key components to long-term organizational strategies.

Some questions to be answered through this critical analysis of the literature are:

1. What are the key theories of leadership behavior and style?
2. What are the key theories of culture?
3. What research has been done regarding the relationship between and among culture, perceived leadership style, and perceived workgroup effectiveness and what results have been yielded?

Available literature about Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions is not equally dispersed. Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) and Power Distance (PDI) are the two most popular; Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Masculinity/Femininity (MAS) are the next most widely studied; and Long/Short-Term Orientation (LTO) is the dimension with the least available research.

Although a sizeable quantity of literature exists regarding the relationship between culture and leadership styles, there are no studies in which all five of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions are measured. There is considerable literature available which examines the relationship between leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness, but there is less available regarding the relationship between culture and workgroup effectiveness. There is no literature available that analyzes the relationship between and among Hofstede's five dimensions of culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

The researcher has thus identified a gap in the literature and proposed that this experimental study will make a sizeable contribution to the literature regarding these topics. The specific purpose of this experimental, correlational quantitative and causal comparative study was to:

1. Determine if, and to what degree, culture influences one's perception of leadership style from a workgroup member's viewpoint.
2. Determine if, and to what degree, culture influences a workgroup leader's perception of his/her own leadership style in comparison to workgroup members' perceptions of same.
3. Determine if, and to what degree, culture influences one's perception of leadership style relative to perceived workgroup effectiveness.

The study took place over a three to four-week period and was conducted with university students in South Florida (U.S.). Study participants, working in workgroups, completed a business-related case, answered socio-demographic questions, and filled out a questionnaire with sections about culture, leadership style, and workgroup effectiveness.

Definition of Terms

This study contains two dependent variables: perceived leadership style and perceived workgroup effectiveness. Culture is both an independent variable and a mediating variable.

Culture

Theoretical Definition: “Culture is the shared beliefs, social behavior, practices, and customs of a particular society or people” (Hofstede, 1980). House et al. (2004) state that, generally speaking, culture is used by social scientists to refer to a set of parameters of collectives that differentiate each collective in a meaningful way”.

Operational Definition: The operational definition of culture is (House et al., 2004, p. 15): “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations”. Culture was measured by grouping related responses from study participants to various statements reflecting each of Hofstede’s (1980) five cultural dimensions.

Geert Hofstede™ Cultural Dimensions¹

Power Distance Index (PDI)

Theoretical Definition: Power Distance Index (PDI) is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality (more versus less), but defined from below, not from above. It suggests that a society's level of inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders. Power and inequality, of course, are extremely fundamental facts of any society and anybody with some international experience will be aware that 'all societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others' (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com>).

¹ <http://www.geert-hofstede.com/>

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Power Distance (PDI) is the measurement of perceived, expected distance between social classes affecting decision-making, opinions, social interactions, delegating, and disagreement with others.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)

Theoretical Definition: Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it ultimately refers to man's search for Truth. It indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations. Unstructured situations are novel, unknown, surprising, different from usual. Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to minimize the possibility of such situations by strict laws and rules, safety and security measures, and on the philosophical and religious level by a belief in absolute Truth; 'there can only be one Truth and we have it'. People in uncertainty avoiding countries are also more emotional, and motivated by inner nervous energy. The opposite type, uncertainty accepting cultures, are more tolerant of opinions different from what they are used to; they try to have as few rules as possible, and on the philosophical and religious level they are relativist and allow many currents to flow side by side. People within these cultures are more phlegmatic and contemplative, and not expected by their environment to express emotions (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com/>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) is the knowledge of instructions, operations, standardized procedures, details and expectations.

Individualism (IDV)

Theoretical Definition: Individualism (IDV) is on the one side versus its opposite, collectivism, that is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. On the individualist side we find societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is

expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family. On the collectivist side, we find societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. The word 'collectivism' in this sense has no political meaning: it refers to the group, not to the state. Again, the issue addressed by this dimension is an extremely fundamental one, regarding all societies in the world (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Individualism (IDV) is an attitude of sacrificing self-interest, group cohesiveness, group welfare relative to success and rewards, and group loyalty. The focus is on the group rather than on the individuals in the group.

Masculinity (MAS)

Theoretical Definition: Masculinity versus its opposite, femininity, refers to the distribution of roles between the genders which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found. The IBM studies revealed that (a) women's values differ less among societies than men's values; (b) men's values from one country to another contain a dimension from very assertive and competitive and maximally different from women's values on the one side, to modest and caring and similar to women's values on the other. The assertive pole has been called 'masculine' and the modest, caring pole 'feminine'. The women in feminine countries have the same modest, caring values as the men; in the masculine countries they are somewhat assertive and competitive, but not as much as the men, so that these countries show a gap between men's values and women's values (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Masculinity is the importance and levels of career, approaches to problem-solving, behavioral issues, and questions regarding how males and females accomplish the same or similar tasks.

Long-Term Orientation (LTO)

Theoretical Definition: Long-Term Orientation versus short-term orientation: this fifth dimension was found in a study among students in 23 countries around the world, using a questionnaire designed by Chinese scholars. It can be said to deal with Virtue regardless of Truth. Values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and perseverance; values associated with Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one's 'face'. Both the positively and the negatively rated values of this dimension are found in the teachings of Confucius, the most influential Chinese philosopher who lived around 500 B.C.; however, the dimension also applies to countries without a Confucian heritage (<http://www.geert-hofstede.com>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Long-Term Orientation is reflected in styles of money management, perseverance in the face of opposition, personal stability, short or long-term planning, and sacrifice and hard work for some future benefit.

Transactional Leadership

Theoretical Definition: Transactional leadership is a leader's primary use of social exchanges, rewards, or transactions "that reciprocally affect or influence" others (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/transactional>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Transactional Leadership is the behavior of a leader in directing or motivating subordinates to achieve established goals and the use of rewards for productivity (cite).

Transformational Leadership

Theoretical Definition: Transformational leadership is leaders who can “articulate(d) an ideological message, set personal examples of the values inherent in their message, convey(ed) a sense of strong confidence in themselves and in their followers, and (were) in turn highly respected and trusted by their followers” (House et al., 2004, p. 66).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Transformational Leadership is the behavior of a leader in acknowledging the concerns and developmental needs of subordinates, in encouraging subordinates to see problems in a new light, and in exciting and inspiring subordinates to give extra effort to achieve stated goals.

Leadership Style

Theoretical Definition: Leadership style is “a (leader’s) distinctive manner or custom of behaving or conducting oneself <the formal style of the court>; a particular mode of living <in high style>; a particular manner or technique by which something is done, created, or performed” (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/style>).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Leadership Style is the ability of one person within a group to inspire, influence, motivate, and manipulate, in a positive manner, another member of that group.

Workgroup Effectiveness

Theoretical Definition: Work group effectiveness is the level of efficient potential, solutions, and innovative ideas among organizational subgroup members that produces profitable organizational results. Workgroups’ effectiveness provides measures of organizational success and value-added benefits (Knouse & Dansby, 1999).

Operational Definition: The operational definition of Workgroup Effectiveness is the evaluation of various work-related duties and tasks within the constraints of time and scope.

Justification for the Study

The gap in the literature about the relationships among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness is considerable. Although a substantial number of studies have been conducted using Hofstede's (1980) Individualist and Power Distance (PDI) dimensions as independent variables, no individual study has paired those dimensions with Hofstede's other three cultural dimensions to study the relationship of the five dimensions with perceived leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness. This study proposed to analyze the relationships between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness within the framework of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, RESEARCH QUESTION, AND HYPOTHESES

Introduction to the Literature Review

This section of the literature review concentrates on Hofstede's five cultural dimensions: Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Masculinity (MAS), Individualism (IDV), and Confucian Dynamism, also known as Long-Term Orientation (LTO).

Culture: A Theoretical Review

Joyce Jenkins (2006) equates culture to an iceberg with the "tip" being the obvious - language, customs, and food - and the hidden remains of the iceberg being the ethereal - beliefs, values, and attitudes. Beer (2003), when commenting on culture and managerial harmony within the realm of multinational joint ventures, pointed out that when two distinct cultures, one collectivistic and long-term oriented, and the other individualistic and short-term oriented unite, the results could jeopardize the organizational culture of the home entity. He also questioned which set of cultural determinants will overcome and influence the way business is conducted internationally.

Much of the existing research about culture was fomented by Geert Hofstede, and other researchers have built upon his original work. From 1967 to 1973, Hofstede studied the cultural values of employees from more than 70 countries working at IBM². He mined data from company employees in the 40 largest countries, then augmented the scope of his study to include results from 50 countries organized into three regions. Hofstede has since improved upon, reproduced and validated his initial study by including data from 74 countries and regions, using

² initially wished to remain anonymous

data from airline pilots, students, civil service managers, and other groups of individuals (Hofstede, 1980).

Hofstede's initial research identified four fundamental cultural dimensions. They were *Power Distance* (PDI), *Individualism* (IDV), *Masculinity* (MAS), and *Uncertainty Avoidance* (UAI) (Hofstede, 1980). *Long-Term Orientation* (LTO) was later added to his model after further research using a survey tool which Hofstede co-developed with Chinese employees and managers and used in 23 countries (Hofstede, 1984).

Hofstede's Model

Some of the foremost influential research pertinent to the relationship of cultural dimensions and workplace values, impacting international business and management, organizational performance, communication, intercultural training and other disciplines, has been conducted by Geert Hofstede (1980, 1984, 1994, 1997, 1998, 2001, 2002, 2004), Professor Emeritus at Maastricht University in the Netherlands. Hofstede contends that, contrary to our instinctual belief that all humans are profoundly the same, cultural influences guide our perceptions, information processes, decision-making, and resulting behavior.

From 1967 to 1973, Hofstede evaluated an IBM³ database of the work values of employees from more than 70 countries. He extracted data from the 40 largest countries and later expanded his investigation to include results from 50 countries and three regions. He has since enhanced and replicated his original study to include data from 74 countries and regions, involving airline pilots, students, civil service managers, and other international groups. These secondary results served to validate his previous work (Hofstede, 2001).

The initial outcome of Hofstede's research was a model identifying four principal dimensions of culture.

³ The company initially wished to remain anonymous.

- ***Power Distance Index (PDI)*** is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality (more versus less), but defined from below, not from above. It suggests that a society's level of inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders. Power and inequality, of course, are extremely fundamental facts of any society and anybody with some international experience will be aware that all societies are unequal, but some are more unequal than others' (Hofstede, 1980).
- ***Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)*** deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it ultimately refers to man's search for Truth. It indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations. Unstructured situations are novel, unknown, surprising, different from usual. Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to minimize the possibility of such situations by strict laws and rules, safety and security measures, and on the philosophical and religious level by a belief in absolute Truth; 'there can only be one Truth and we have it'. People in uncertainty avoiding countries are also more emotional, and motivated by inner nervous energy. The opposite type, uncertainty accepting cultures, are more tolerant of opinions different from what they are used to; they try to have as few rules as possible, and on the philosophical and religious level they are relativist and allow many currents to flow side by side. People within these cultures are more phlegmatic and contemplative, and not expected by their environment to express emotions (Hofstede, 1980).
- ***Masculinity (MAS)***, versus its opposite femininity, refers to the distribution of roles between the genders which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found. The IBM studies revealed that (a) women's values differ less

among societies than men's values; (b) men's values from one country to another contain a dimension from very assertive and competitive and maximally different from women's values on the one side, to modest and caring and similar to women's values on the other. The assertive pole has been called 'masculine' and the modest, caring pole 'feminine'. The women in feminine countries have the same modest, caring values as the men; in the masculine countries they are somewhat assertive and competitive, but not as much as the men, so that these countries show a gap between men's values and women's values (Hofstede, 1980).

- **Individualism (IDV)** on the one side versus its opposite, collectivism, that is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. On the individualist side we find societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family. On the collectivist side, we find societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. The word 'collectivism' in this sense has no political meaning: it refers to the group, not to the state. Again, the issue addressed by this dimension is an extremely fundamental one, regarding all societies in the world (Hofstede, 1980).

As a result of further research, Hofstede added a fifth dimension to his model:

- **Long-Term Orientation (LTO)** versus short-term orientation: this fifth dimension was found in a study among students in 23 countries around the world, using a questionnaire designed by Chinese scholars (employees and managers). It can be said to deal with Virtue regardless of Truth. Values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and

perseverance; values associated with Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one's 'face'. Both the positively and the negatively rated values of this dimension are found in the teachings of Confucius, the most influential Chinese philosopher who lived around 500 B.C.; however, the dimension also applies to countries without a Confucian heritage (Hofstede, 1984).

Ensuing research by others, since Hofstede's initial findings, has resulted in two distinct schools of thought. Those agreeing with Hofstede have adopted his work and applied it to subsequent related and topic-specific research. His opponents have strongly refuted his findings or sought to dismiss them as inconsequential or non-causal or even disrespectful. Among the most widely accepted alternative theories of culture is the one created by Fons Trompenaars. In his book, *Riding the Waves of Culture* (1994), Trompenaars promoted the beliefs that differing interpretations influence the interactions between individuals and groups.

Trompenaars' Model

Fons Trompenaars, also from the Netherlands, grew up in a multi-cultural home where his family spoke French and Dutch. He attended the Free University of Amsterdam where he studied Economics. He later earned his Ph.D. from the Wharton School of Business at the University of Pennsylvania with a dissertation addressing the "differences in conceptions of organizational structure in various cultures".⁴ He then collaborated with Charles Hampden-Turner, and together they espoused the need to understand individuals rather than country stereotypes. In August 1999, a leading Business magazine, *The 75 Greatest Management Decisions Ever Made* (author: Stuart Crainer), named Trompenaars one of the top five management consultants, along with Michael Porter, Tom Peters and Edward de Bono.

Trompenaars' cultural model has three "layers":

⁴ http://www.igbnetwork.com/3_THT.htm

- 1) outer layer - explicit, based on artifacts and products
- 2) middle layer - based on norms and values
- 3) core – implicit, basic assumptions.

He introduced five basic preferred value orientations: relational orientation, time orientation, activity orientation, man-nature orientation, and human-nature orientation.

Fons Trompenaars and Charles Hampden-Turner became a team in 1990. Hampden-Turner is a British national who received his masters and doctorate degrees from the Harvard Business School. He has conducted research throughout Europe and North America and is the author of nine books including, *Charting the Corporate Mind* (1990) and *Maps of the Mind* (1981). Together with Fons Trompenaars, he has co-authored several books and as a team, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, like Hofstede, conducted research over a 14-year period deciphering questionnaires responded to by over 50,000 managerial respondents.

Unlike Hofstede, however, their questionnaires were distributed to executives from various organizations and asked participants to specify favored behaviors for leisure, as well as work situations. Although Trompenaars and Hofstede were both focused on the same goal - identifying the core values of certain behaviors - they differed as to how they classified the dimensions they identified. Hampden-Turner's & Trompenaars' (1993) theory posits that culture can be segmented into: 1) our relationships with others, 2) our relationships to the passage of time, and 3) our relationships to the environment.

Trompenaars' model pinpoints seven basic dimensions of culture:

- **Universalism vs. Particularism** - *Universalism* is about finding broad and general rules.

When no rules fit, it finds the best rule. *Particularism* is about finding exceptions. When

no rules fit, it judges the case on its own merits, rather than trying to force-fit an existing rule.

- **Analyzing vs. Integrating** - *Analyzing* decomposes to find the detail. It assumes that God is in the details and that decomposition is the way to success. It sees people who look at the big picture as being out of touch with reality. *Integrating* brings things together to build the big picture. It assumes that if you have your head in the weeds you will miss the true understanding.
- **Individualism vs. Communitarianism** - *Individualism* is about the rights of the individual. It seeks to let each person grow or fail on their own, and sees group-focus as denuding the individual of their inalienable rights. *Communitarianism* is about the rights of the group or society. It seeks to put the family, group, company and country before the individual. It sees individualism as selfish and short-sighted.
- **Inner-directed vs. Outer-directed** - *Inner-directed* is about thinking and personal judgment, 'in our heads'. It assumes that thinking is the most powerful tool and that considered ideas and intuitive approaches are the best way. *Outer-directed* is seeking data in the outer world. It assumes that we live in the 'real world' and that is where we should look for our information and decisions.
- **Time as sequence vs. Time as synchronization** - *Time as sequence* sees events as separate items in time, sequenced one after another. It finds order in a serried array of actions that happen one after the other. *Time as synchronization* sees events in parallel, synchronized together. It finds order in coordination of multiple efforts.
- **Achieved status vs. Ascribed status** - *Achieved status* is about gaining status through performance. It assumes individuals and organizations earn and lose their status every

day, and that other approaches are recipes for failure. *Ascribed status* is about gaining status through other means, such as seniority. It assumes status is acquired by right rather than daily performance, which may be as much luck as judgment. It finds order and security in knowing where status is and stays.

- ***Equality vs. Hierarchy*** - *Equality* is about all people having equal status. It assumes we all have equal rights, irrespective of birth or other gift. *Hierarchy* is about people being superior to others. It assumes that order happens when few are in charge and others obey through the scalar chain of command.

Trompenaars' and Hampden-Turner's communitarianism/individualism and achievement/ascription dimensions are the equivalent of Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) and Power Distance (PDI) indices, respectively. However, the latter is not an exact match in that Hofstede's Power Distance Index (PDI) conveys the manner in which status is accorded, as well as acceptable categories of Power Distance (PDI) within a particular social order, an area not addressed by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner.

Trompenaars' and Hampden-Turner's other dimensions tend to be more behavioral in nature (Dahl, 2004). Their neutral/emotional dimension concentrates on the scope of feelings that are candidly articulated which is, in and of itself, an aspect of behavior rather than a cultural value. Their universalism/particularism value appears to be a hybrid of Hofstede's Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and collectivist/individualist dimensions, while their diffuse/specific value does not seem to be related to any of Hofstede's dimensions. Their Human-Time relationship looks very much like Hall's (1959, 1969) monochronic and polychronic time perceptions, while their Human-Nature relationship seems to be closely related to Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1969) Human-Nature relationship.

Edward T. Hall (1959, 1969) was a predecessor of Geert Hofstede (1980) in the study of cultural attributes. Hall's work dealt with high cultural contexts, where much is taken for granted, and low cultural contexts, where very little is taken for granted. He also posited the concepts of monochronic time (planning and scheduling, the early form of time management), polychronic time (less structure; getting things done in one's own time), and high/low-territoriality (dealing with the concept of one's personal space). In effect, Hall's high/low cultural contexts correspond to Hofstede's Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) dimension, his monochronic/polychronic time identifies with Long/Short-Term Orientation (LTO), and high/low territoriality is linked to Power Distance (PDI).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), even before Hofstede (1980) introduced the Human-nature, Man-nature, time, activity, and relational cultural concepts. They brought forth the idea that man is inherently good and responsible; their individualistic and group relationships within a society reflect many of the same constructs as Hofstede's Individualist/Collectivist dimension.

Culture has been defined based on certain characteristics, like nationality or place of birth, that appear to be cultural in nature. Some researchers, including Hofstede (1984) and Steenkamp (2001), support the use of acceptable proxies of culture based on within-country and between-country distinctions. Soares et al. (2007) point out that the words *culture*, *country*, *nation*, and *society* are often substituted for one another, and that culture has even been confined to sub-levels: *group*, *organizational*, and *national*. They also maintain that culture is a somewhat nebulous concept that raises definitional, conceptual, and operational issues related to its research and influence on consumer behavior.

Emily Slate, in her 1993 article entitled, *Success Depends on an Understanding of Cultural Differences*, stated "Cultural traditions, particularly those in daily business interactions,

should not be dismissed as quaint examples of local color” (p. 16). She also noted that, above and beyond certain national differences, issues of courtesy, time, and work ethic differentiate blocs of countries from each other.

In a more recent attempt to develop another theory of culture, House et al. (2002) have undertaken research and analysis across the globe. In their study of culture and leadership, they excluded culture as an indicator of a good leader. They believe that, culture notwithstanding, if a leader is considerate, he or she will be accepted and vice versa. They pointed out that human beings share common bonds and that while culture may be a uniting factor for groups, it also very often serves to disunite.

As part of the GLOBE⁵ study conducted by House et al. (2002), along with other members of GLOBE, nine cultural dimensions were studied. Of these, the first six (Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Power Distance, Collectivism I, Collectivism II, Gender Egalitarianism, and Assertiveness) were originally identified by Hofstede (1980). House et al. (2002) divided Hofstede’s (1980) *Individualism (IDV)* dimension into two components. *Collectivism I* reflects individualistic/collectivistic behavior in terms of laws, social programs, and institutional practices. *Collectivism II* reflects in-group behavior, as in family or organizational cohesiveness. From Hofstede’s (1980) *Masculinity (MAS)* dimension, they extracted *Gender Egalitarianism* and *Assertiveness*. Their *Future Orientation*, *Performance Orientation*, and *Humane Orientation* dimensions have been adopted and re-characterized from previous work done by Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), McClelland (1985), and Putnam (1993).

Table 1 shows a comparison of Hofstede’s, Trompenaars’, and House et al.’s models of culture.

⁵ GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) - a research program focusing on culture and leadership in 61 nations.

Table 1

Comparison of Hofstede's, Trompenaars', and House et al.'s Cultural Dimensions

| Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions | Trompenaars' Seven Cultural Dimensions | House et al.'s Nine Cultural Dimensions |
|--|---|--|
| Power Distance Index (PDI) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • extent to which less powerful members of organizations & institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally • represents inequality • defined from below, not above • society's level of inequality endorsed by followers as much as by leaders | Achieved status vs. Ascribed status <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • difference between those who value achievement as the primary dimension of success, and those who value not only achievement, but also the background of the colleague, his or her education, other attainments, and even the reputation of the family or extended family itself | Power Distance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the degree to which members of an organization or society expect and agree that power should be unequally shared |
| Individualism (IDV) <i>Individualist</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ties between individuals are loose • everyone is expected to look after him/herself & immediate family <i>Collectivist</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups • those with extended families continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty • 'collectivism' in this sense has no political meaning: it refers to group, not to state • fundamental issue, regarding all societies in the world | Individualism vs. Communitarianism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • very similar to Hofstede's work | Collectivism I – Societal Collectivism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the degree to which organizational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action Collectivism II – In-Group Collectivism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations and families |

| Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions | Trompenaars' Seven Cultural Dimensions | House et al.'s Nine Cultural Dimensions |
|--|---|---|
| Masculinity (MAS) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> women's values differ less among societies than men's values men's values from one country to another contain a dimension from very assertive and competitive and maximally different from women's values on the one side, to modest and caring and similar to women's values on the other assertive pole has been called 'masculine' and modest, caring pole feminine' women in feminine countries <ul style="list-style-type: none"> have the same modest, caring values as the men in masculine countries they are somewhat assertive and competitive, but not as much as the men these countries show a gap between men's values and women's values | Equality vs. Hierarchy <p><i>Equality</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> all people have equal status all have equal rights, irrespective of birth or other gifts <p><i>Hierarchy</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> about people being superior to others order happens when few are in charge others obey through the scalar chain of command | Gender Egalitarianism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> extent to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences and gender discrimination Assertiveness <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the degree to which individuals in organizations and societies are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in social relationships |

| Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions | Trompenaars' Seven Cultural Dimensions | House et al.'s Nine Cultural Dimensions |
|--|--|--|
| <p>Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity ultimately refers to man's search for Truth indicates to what extent a culture programs members to feel uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations uncertainty avoiding cultures <ul style="list-style-type: none"> strict laws and rules, safety and security more emotional; motivated by inner nervous energy uncertainty accepting cultures <ul style="list-style-type: none"> are more tolerant of different opinions as few rules as possible on the philosophical and religious level they are relativist and allow many currents to flow these cultures are more phlegmatic and contemplative, and not expected by their environment to express emotions | <p>Inner-directed vs. Outer-directed</p> <p><i>Inner-directed</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> about thinking and personal judgment, 'in our heads' assumes that thinking is the most powerful tool considered ideas and intuitive approaches are the best way <p><i>Outer-directed</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> seeks data in the outer world assumes that we live in the 'real world' and that is where we should look for information and decisions | <p>Uncertainty Avoidance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by reliance on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events |
| <p>Long-Term Orientation (LTO)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> deals with Virtue regardless of Truth values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and perseverance values associated with Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one's 'face' both dimensions are found in the teachings of Confucius dimension also applies to countries without a Confucian heritage | <p>Universalism vs. Particularism</p> <p><i>Universalist</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> follow societal or work rules in life and work <p><i>Particularist</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> concerned about whether or not needs of people, particularly those people closest to him or her, are being met | <p>Future Orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification <p>Humane Orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others <p>Performance Orientation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the extent to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence includes the future oriented component of the dimension called Confucian Dynamism by Hofstede and Bond (1988) similar to the dimension labeled Kind Heartedness by Hofstede and Bond (1988) |

| House et al.'s Nine Cultural Dimensions | Hofstede's Seven Cultural Dimensions | House et al.'s Nine Cultural Dimensions |
|---|--|---|
| | <p>Analyzing vs. Integrating</p> <p><i>Analyzing</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • decomposes to find the detail • assumes that God is in the details and that decomposition is the way to success • sees people who look at the big picture as being out of touch with reality <p><i>Integrating</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • brings things together to build the big picture • assumes that if you have your head in the weeds you will miss the true understanding | |

Among the school of academics refuting or dismissing Hofstede's (1980) findings is Brendan McSweeney. In 2002, he published an article in *Human Relations*, vociferously criticizing Hofstede's work and questioning the quality and accuracy of his findings, as well as the validity of any conjecture. *Human Relations*, in the interest of fairness, then solicited a retort from Hofstede (2002). Although McSweeney took Hofstede to task regarding the latter's research and results, Hofstede had strong countering arguments⁶.

- McSweeney stated that the surveys Hofstede used in his research were not suitable for measuring cultural differences. Hofstede agreed in that surveys should not be the only tool.
- McSweeney said that nations are not the best entities for studying cultures. Hofstede agreed, but stated that nations are usually the only entities available for comparison and they are, indeed, better than nothing.
- McSweeney pointed out that a subsidiary of one company cannot presume to represent an entire national culture. Hofstede declared that he had measured the "differences" between national cultures, citing his own work for country scores and valid representative samples.
- McSweeney stated that the original data from IBM were obsolete. Hofstede replied that the dimensions have ancient roots, but they remain valid against external measures, and constant across two successive surveys.
- McSweeney concluded that four or five dimensions are insufficient. Hofstede declared that additional dimensions should be conceptually and statistically distinct from those contained in the existing model (validated with significant correlations).

⁶ See Table 3

In his article, McSweeney (2002) states that Hofstede's (1980) failure "...to show a causal link between his dimensions of a particular national culture and a specific national action is not surprising, given the earlier critique of his construction of his national cultural cameos." McSweeney (2002) goes on to ask why the reader should assume the sole influence of national culture, when Hofstede himself recognized the presence of "sub-cultures" within nations. He reinforces his arguments using Anderson's (1991) description of nations as "imagined communities", and points out that Wallerstein (1990) belittled the idea that the concept of culture can stand up in a substantive argument. Despite his fierce criticism of Hofstede's (1980) work, McSweeney (2002) failed to offer either a concrete counter-theory or any recommendations. Hofstede's work remains the cornerstone of cultural studies.

Javidan et al. (2006) take on Hofstede for his 2006 critique of GLOBE and their research related to culture in the *Journal of International Business Studies*. Their argument is simply the following:

- researchers now have more options when executing cross-cultural studies,
- GLOBE identified a set of nine dimensions (measured twice, isometrically, as practices and respective values),
- no rules exist as to the use of any particular cultural dimensions or set of dimensions, and
- Hofstede (1980) provided a good basis for cross-cultural studies, but there is still much to be revealed

Culture: An Empirical Review

In a study conducted by Dolan et al. (2004), significant differences regarding the relationship of culture to work and life values between males and females were identified. They found that the females put more emphasis on self-fulfillment and the working environment,

while the males valued greater power and status. Pallarés (1993) found that most women managers attaining senior positions within their organizations have to make more sacrifices than their male counterparts when it comes to family.

In 1997, Barkema and Vermeulen built on Hofstede's (1980) five dimensions relative to international joint ventures to determine which distinctions in national culture might affect the longevity of these associations. They were particularly interested in Hofstede's (1988) Long-Term Orientation (LTO) (also known as Confucian Dynamism) dimension. Their hypothesis was that cultural differences could lead to misunderstandings, serious rifts, and possible dissolution of the joint venture. They also believed that some differences in cultural backgrounds might be easier to merge and would be less disruptive than others. In earlier empirical work, logit models and event-history analysis were used to test for incidence and hazard rate of international joint ventures, respectively. Both types of analyses were used in this study to provide complementary information regarding cultural disruptions which makes this study unique.

Between 1966 and 1994, Barkema and Vermeulen (1997) collected longitudinal data from 828 international joint ventures ("IJV") and wholly-owned subsidiaries. Their hypotheses addressed the roles of Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) as negative forces relevant to IJV survival and as inhibitors of IJV start-ups. Power Distance (PDI) and its relationship to long-term stability also came under their scrutiny.

The hypotheses were tested on longitudinal data about 828 foreign country entries of twenty-five non-Dutch multinational corporations in seventy-two countries. The database, which spans almost three decades, also was used to provide new evidence on a key assumption of Hofstede's (1988) work: that cultural values are stable over time. Study variables were *longevity*

(the number of years an IJV lasted) and *cultural distance* (Hofstede's distance in cultural backgrounds from host country and home country). The authors controlled for local experience, differences in GNP, firm profitability and size, and country risk.

The authors found that great differences in Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) negatively affect the survival of the IJV (more so than for Hofstede's other three dimensions) – these findings supported their first two hypotheses. With respect to their third and fourth hypotheses, they discovered that larger gaps in Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) cause firms to be reluctant to establish IJVs. The study revealed no decrease in the effects of cultural distance with time.

Barkema and Vermeulen (1997) did state that political factors (not revealed by their country risk and GNP-difference control variables), firm-specific effects, and host country experience might have affected the choice of entry and the survival rate of IJVs in their study. However, after re-estimating and tweaking their models, they continued to find no decrease in support of their original hypotheses. Their work is further restricted by their singular reliance on Hofstede's (1980, 1988) work, their acknowledgement that cultural differences do not respect borders, and their realization that surveys are not indicators of abstract cultural values.

An exploratory study done by Girlando et al. (2004) examined Hofstede's theory of national cultures and his argument that culture stabilizes over time. Italy was selected for possible sub-culture investigation and these two issues were, in fact, the research questions in their study:

R1: Is it valid to use student populations in general and more specifically for research, based on Hofstede's paradigm that was based on adult IBM employees?

R2: Is it valid to treat a nation as a unit of culture?

Hofstede's original scores for Italian and U.S. employees from his IBM study were compared against participant sample scores. The authors obtained an Italian-language version of the questionnaire used in Hofstede's research and it was examined closely for language discrepancies. They worked with convenience samples of university students from Rome, Naples, Salerno, and Pavia. In the U.S., the student sample came from a Virginia university and a Maine university. In both countries, faculty administered the surveys during class time. The authors weeded out questionnaires that were incomplete or filled out by nationalities other than Italian or U.S. The resulting sample produced 162 Italian and 78 U.S. valid questionnaires. Of these, only students aged 19 through 21 inclusive, were involved so as to be able to compare the samples for age, gender, and level of education completed. The final samples included a total of 80 students: 38 from the U.S. and 42 from Italy. In his 1994 work, Hofstede stated that a minimum sample of 20 participants per country was needed for use in cross-cultural studies using his instrument.

No significant cultural differences resulted related to gender (Chi square = .469, d.f., $p > .05$), or age (Chi square = .895, d.f.= 2, $p > .05$), but there was a significant difference based on educational level (Chi square = 5.081, d.f. = 6, $p = .001$), possibly due to national differences in educational systems. The comparison between U.S. and Italian score levels showed stability of their cultures relative to three of Hofstede's original four dimensions. The results for *Power Distance (PDI)* shifted from "medium" to "low" for both countries. Excluding the anticipated similar modifications in *Power Distance (PDI)*, the results of their study showed no differences, thereby supporting Hofstede's (2001) theories.

To address the second question regarding sub-cultures, Girlando et al. (2004) asked participants to state their region of origin. They then analyzed each of Hofstede's five

dimensions among 47 northern Italian and 111 southern Italian students and found no differences in the proposed "sub-cultures". There were no differences between the two groups on all five of Hofstede's dimensions, adding credence to Hofstede's (2001) national culture theory.

Regarding Power Distance (PDI) differences between countries, Hofstede commented, "Impressionistically at least it seems that dependence on the power of others in a large part of our world has been reduced over the past two generations...we have seen that Power Distance (PDI) scores within countries decrease with increased education level. This does not mean, however, that the differences between countries...should necessarily have changed. Countries could all have moved to lower Power Distance (PDI) levels without changes in their mutual ranking" (Hofstede, 2001).

Since there were no differences from north to south among the Italian students in the study, the findings supported consideration of a nation as a unit of culture and the concept that, overall, national culture remains stable over time. The authors' findings showed limited justification for using student samples and they suggest further investigation. Other limitations relate to the small sample size, different versions of the measurement survey, and the disparity in the sample's comparison (student respondents to managerial respondents). The authors suggest replicating their study using Italian managers and doing more in-depth work related to sub-cultures.

Robertson & Hoffman (2000) explored the relationship of Confucian Dynamism to Hofstede's four original cultural dimensions to find out whether:

- individual scores on Confucian Dynamism would be positively related to Power Distance (PDI), negatively related to Individualism (IDV), and unrelated to Masculinity (MAS)

- individual scores on the present and past values of Confucian Dynamism would be negatively related to Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), and
- individual scores on the future values of Confucian Dynamism would be positively related to Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI).

Their sample of 255 volunteers was made up of upper-level undergraduate business students from large universities in the southeastern United States. These respondents accounted for more than 80% of the number of surveys distributed. The sample was 52% male and 48% female with a median age of 21.5 years.

Robertson & Hoffman (2000) justified their use of students as appropriate for their study because the research objective was to comprehend how individuals identify ordinary cultural values, therefore executive-level participants were not required. Research shows that students may be truly representative of an organization's employee population (Wyld et al., 1993) and appropriate to develop a cultural construct (Triandis et al., 1985, 1988).

The survey instrument used by Robertson & Hoffman (2000) was developed to measure individual beliefs aligned with each of Hofstede's four cultural dimensions and Confucian Dynamism. The first 22 items of the survey instrument were developed by Dorfman & Howell (1988) and produced consistent Cronbach's alphas in earlier studies with Mexican and Chinese managers. Robertson & Hoffman (2000) achieved the following Cronbach's alphas when measuring the scales: Individualism (IDV), .72; Masculinity (MAS), .87; Power Distance (PDI), .85; and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), .86. The last eight items on the scale also were developed to measure Confucian Dynamism (4 for Future, 4 for past/present) by Hofstede & Bond (1988). The overall objective of the research was to measure the relationship of the four

cultural dimensions (independent variables) to Confucian Dynamism (dependent variable); one model for each hypothesis was constructed.

The authors ran ordinary least-squares regression on the cultural variables that were measured using a Likert-type scale. In the first model, Confucian Dynamism (LTO) items were regressed on Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Power Distance (PDI), and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) scores. In the second model, Confucian Dynamism (LTO) perceptions of the past were regressed on Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Power Distance (PDI), and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) scores. The third model showed Confucian Dynamism (LTO) perceptions of the future as regressed on scores from the original four cultural dimensions.

Confucian Dynamism (LTO) was found to have a significant correlation coefficient with PDI ($p < .05$), *future* ($p < .001$), and *past* ($p < .001$). There was also a significant correlation between future and IDV ($p < .01$) and UAI. Furthermore, *past* was linked to UAI ($p < .05$) and *future* ($p < .05$). Significant correlations were also found between IDV and UAI ($p < .01$) and between MAS and PDI ($p < .01$).

The authors used the omnibus F-test to determine the statistical significance of the overall model, ($F = 1.697$; $p < .10$). The correlation between PDI and LTO also was statistically significant (standardized = .124; $p < .05$). There was no significant relationship between MAS and LTO, but there was a negative correlation for IDV, albeit insignificant. Therefore, their first hypothesis was supported partially. Their results indicated LTO societal levels consistent with Hofstede & Bond's (1988) findings. Their results also reinforce support for Hofstede's other dimensions at the individual level by researchers Triandis et al. (1988), and Dorfman & Howell (1988). In short, they found that Confucian characteristics also exist in parts of the world other than Asia.

The results of their omnibus F-test was not significant for their second hypothesis, but the relationship between UAI and *past* perceptions of LTO was negative and significant, as they had predicted ($B = -.105$; $p < .10$), thereby marginally supporting the first half of their hypothesis. The second half of their hypothesis received the strongest support. The significance here is that this level of individual analysis goes beyond what Hofstede & Bond (1988) found at the cultural level.

The results of the F-test for their third hypothesis was significant ($F = 4.765$; $p < .001$) and so was the correlation between UAI and future perceptions of LTO ($r = .257$; $p < .001$), alluding to higher UAI scores in those who tend to be future-oriented. The authors processed three regression models using the four cultural dimensions to control for other independent variables, while using controls like gender and age to minimize error variance resulting from correlations among variables.

Robertson & Hoffman (2000) cited several limitations to their study:

- self-reported data can sometimes be confused by various biases
- an entirely U.S. sample cannot be generalized because of laws and social norms that might influence personal and cultural values
- Hofstede & Bond's (1988) assertion that Confucian Dynamism evaluates time orientation may be better stated by classifying the *future*-based values as *work-oriented*, and the *present* and *past*-based values as *socially-oriented*.
- factors such as nationality, race, religion, or economic status might have affected individual responses.

Some of the managerial implications of this research study, as stated by the authors, are: gaining a better understanding of diverse values within the workplace, evaluating individual

value sets when developing policies and determining negotiators for certain trade dealings, and re-evaluating similarities and differences in value sets between expatriates and their counterparts. The authors also suggested evaluating Confucian Dynamism at the individual level, by analyzing the variables of age, gender, religion, etc. within Asian countries.

Leadership and Leadership Styles

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition (1974) defines **leader** as:

1. a person or thing that leads; directing, commanding, or guiding head, as of a group or activity,⁷ and **leadership** as: the position or guidance of a **leader** 2. the ability to lead 3. the leaders of a group.⁸

A leader is considered a person who has an authoritative presence and the influence to inspire or motivate those around him/her to some degree of action. According to Teven et al. (2006), the relationship between supervisor and subordinate is influential if one person perceives having something of value to the other. Leadership is, therefore, the process or series of actions a leader uses to get those around him/her to achieve goals and objectives. The leader plays a key role in the early stages of a process or movement and is generally viewed as a charismatic symbol of that process or movement.

Leadership & Leadership Styles: A Theoretical Review

Throughout history, as people have assembled to accomplish goals as a unit/team/group, various leadership theories have emerged. Early theories assumed that certain physical, social, and personal characteristics are intrinsic in leaders, and that a leader interacted with group members in a particular manner. Seven traits associated with leadership, identified by

⁷ Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition, 1974

⁸ Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition, 1974

Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) and Judge et al. (2002), and compiled for use by Robbins & Coulter (2007), include drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, job-relevant knowledge, and extraversion. These characteristics separate leaders from those not considered leaders.

Moving beyond trait theory, researchers began to classify leaders into various behavioral roles, assigning “styles”, in order to provide further understanding as to the nature of leadership. Behavioral theorists have identified influencing factors of leadership with an eye on developing leaders through training programs, behavioral change models, and choice of the “best” style of leadership for the individual

Fiedler's Contingency Model

For forty years, Frederick Fiedler studied leadership and organizational effectiveness and, in 1967, he introduced his book, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. Fiedler's theory suggests that there is no “one best way” to manage or lead, and that leadership style is contingent on various ad hoc factors that may dictate a given managerial situation. In short, one leadership style may garner the best performance in a static work environment, while the same leadership style may produce poor results in a dynamic work environment. He therefore deduced that in a given situation, a manager with a particular style might be more effective or, a manager who could switch styles to suit the situation, might be equally effective. Thus a manager or leader could manipulate the work environment according to the appropriate leadership style. Chemers and Ayman (1993), in editing Fiedler's work, reinforced Fiedler's principal theory that leader qualities in conjunction with situational demands dictate the leader's effectiveness. These findings rendered obsolete the earlier basic "one best way" approach.

Fiedler considered conditions such as the relationship between the leader and subordinates; the structure, or lack thereof, of the task(s); and the degree of power possessed by the leader, and hypothesized that these factors would dictate a leader's degree of situational control. Loyalty, dependability, and degree of support from employees measure the leader-subordinate relationship. When the relationship is positive, a leader/manager has a higher task structure, can reward or punish employees accordingly, and has a higher degree of situational control than in a less positive or a negative relationship. Positioning power is measured in terms of the amount of authority perceived by the leader to have been received from the organization in order to direct, reward, or discipline as he/she sees fit.

Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership

The amount of task direction and the relationship provided by the leader in a given situation, along with the "level of maturity" of those in the group, are the basis for the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership theory. There are four leadership styles: telling (low follower maturity; high leader direction), selling (moderate follower maturity; leader encouragement to build confidence and impart responsibility), participating (increased follower maturity; less leader direction), and delegating (highest follower maturity; lowest leader involvement). Accordingly, the choice of appropriate leadership style is determined by follower maturity level relative to the task set being attempted. As maturity levels increase, the leader should gradually cut back on task direction, as well as on relationship behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1974).

Transformational leadership contains elements of both trait and behavioral theories. Transactional leaders clarify role and task requirements in order to guide followers in the direction of established goals, while transformational leaders, generally enigmatic and visionary, motivate followers to put the good of the organization before all else by influencing their ideals

and ethical values and encouraging them to view problems in a different light. Leaders influence their followers by using vision, framing, and impression management. Vision is a leader's ability to unite followers by convincing them to own or invest in an idea. Framing is using important terminology to delineate goals and objectives. Impression management portrays the leader as more attractive and appealing by controlling impressions. Research results indicate that, of the two, transformational leadership is associated with lower turnover rates, higher productivity, and higher employee satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Transformational leaders are the essence of flexibility and innovation. Leaders who are able to define tasks and manage interrelationships are important within the organization, but transformational leaders are the core of an organization's competitive advantage.

Charismatic leadership is fundamental to the process of transformational leadership in its use of influence and referent power (Bass, 1985). It transcends traditional leadership models by incorporating enthusiasm, vision, self-confidence, sensitivity, and influence over followers (Rowden, 2000). Charismatic leaders are visionaries who are articulate risk-takers, operating within environmental boundaries, and meeting followers' needs (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Many believe that charismatic behaviors can be learned through training in both verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Charismatic leadership is at its best when the leader embodies an ideology, or when anxiety and indecision prevail (Hunt et al., 1999; House & Aditya, 1997).

Vroom, Yetton, Jago Leader-Participation Model

In the early 1970s, Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton (1973) developed their leader-participation model which links leadership activities and participation to decision making by using rules to determine how much participation should be used in a given situation. Five leadership styles were identified by Vroom & Yetton (1973):

- decide – the leader decides and informs group members
- consult individually – the leader interacts with group members individually and, based on their input, decides
- consult group – the leader speaks with the group and, based on their input, decides
- facilitate – the leader poses a problem to the group then facilitates problem definition and decision boundaries
- delegate – the leader allows the group to decide within limits.

Although the model has changed over time, the current version speaks to how decisions are made and by whom, and incorporates variations of the original five leadership styles and the determination of which is most effective (Vroom, 2000).

House's Path-Goal Model

The **Path-Goal** leadership theory was developed by Robert House (1996) and is based, in part, on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation and Fiedler's (1993) contingency model. Unlike Fiedler's 1993 model, Path-Goal leadership allows for flexibility in leadership behavior. Accordingly, a manager is seen as a coach who guides employees to select the best way to achieve their goal(s) while, at the same time, achieving the goals of the organization. The theory suggests that environment and follower characteristics will dictate how goals are set and the use of different leadership styles as required. Subordinates' personal characteristics control how the environment and leader are interpreted.

The leader is responsible for directing and supporting followers to ensure alignment with the organization's goals, and for facilitating and rewarding effective performance. Path-Goal theory classifies four leadership styles:

- achievement-oriented - the leader challenges followers to set goals, expects high-level performance, and shows confidence in their ability,
- directive - the leader tells followers what is expected and how to perform,
- participative - the leader consults with followers and asks their opinions before arriving at a decision,
- supportive - the leader is accessible and concerned for followers' psychological well-being.

Most of the early leadership theories saw leaders as *transactional*, effecting change by exchanging rewards for output, in contrast to *transformational* leaders, stimulating followers and inspiring high achievement (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Research supports the evaluation of transformational leaders as more effective, more promotable, and more sensitive than transactional leaders (Rubin et al., 2005; Judge & Bono, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1990; and Hater & Bass, 1988). Furthermore, there is strong substantiation that links transformational leadership to employee satisfaction and overall well-being, as well as to high levels of productivity and low turnover rates (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Bono & Judge, 2003; Dvir et al., 2002; Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Howell & Avolio, 1993; and Keller, 1992).

Leadership & Leadership Styles: An Empirical Review

Kurt Lewin (1939) and other researchers at the University of Iowa studied three leadership styles:

1. autocratic –centralized authority, dictated work methods, unilateral decisions, limited employee participation,

2. democratic –involvement of employees in decision-making, delegated authority, encouraged participation in deciding work methods and goals, use of feedback as a coaching tool,
3. *laissez-faire* –complete freedom to make decisions and complete work as seen fit by group members.

The results of their work showed that the most efficient and superior group results came from those who had more democratic leadership. Since everyone had the opportunity to participate and be identified as a member of the group, there was a propensity to more easily accept change. Groups with more authoritarian leadership, on the other hand, tended to be more inflexible, less creative, and generally involved in dysfunctional decision-making. Groups whose leadership exhibited the *laissez-faire* style were, for the most part, inefficient and unproductive (Daniels, 2003). Inconsistent results were revealed, however, when continued research comparing the autocratic and democratic styles sometimes produced higher levels of performance while, at other times, yielded lower or equal performance levels, prompting investigation into levels of subordinate satisfaction, where they found that higher levels generally existed under a democratic leader.

At Ohio State University, research by Andrew W. Halpin (1957) on leader behavior was also ongoing. This research identified two important dimensions:

1. initiating structure – the extent to which the leadership role and the roles of group members are delineated when working toward a goal,
2. consideration – the extent to which job relationships are characterized by mutual trust and respect for group members' ideas and feelings.

Halpin's research showed that a leader who received high evaluations in both behavioral dimensions generally attained higher group task performance and higher satisfaction. The research instruments used by Halpin were later revised by Ralph M. Stogdill (1965).

Concurrent research being conducted at the University of Michigan by Rensis Likert (1961) advanced four leadership styles built around degrees of involvement of decision-making: exploitive-authoritative, benevolent-authoritative, consultative and participative. Likert and his colleagues also identified two leadership behavioral dimensions:

1. employee-oriented – emphasized interpersonal relationships, personal interest in group members' needs, accepting individual differences,
2. production-oriented – emphasized technical or task aspects of the job, accomplishing the group's tasks, regarding members as a means to an end.

Blake et al. (1964) based their managerial grid on the dimensions distinguished by the University of Michigan's research. Their grid pinpoints five leadership styles made up of varying degrees of concern on a scale with people at one end to production at the other. The five leadership styles and their locations on the managerial grid (9x9)⁹ are:

- impoverished (lower left – 1, 1) - low regard for people and production; managers keep a low profile and try to stay out of trouble,
- country club (upper left – 1, 9) - high regard for people; low concern for production; create an atmosphere of trust for subordinates' positive response,
- team (upper right - 9, 9 - high regard for people and production alike; create structure and solidity to foster commitment among team members,

⁹ (See Appendix C)

- middle-of-the road (middle - 5, 5) - balance between workers' and organization's needs; maintain a sufficient level of employee morale to accomplish the organization's goals,
- task (lower right - 9,1) - high concern for production; low regard for people; achieve the organization's goals without considering employees' needs.

Culture and Leadership Style

This section of the literature review examines the relationship between Hofstede's (1980) individual cultural dimensions as they relate to leadership and leadership style.

Euwema et al. (2007) hypothesized that in those strongly Individualistic (IDV) societies with lower levels of Power Distance (PDI), there existed a negative correlation between the directive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB), and a positive correlation between the supportive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB). Their findings indicated that culture, specifically Hofstede's (1980) Individualist (IDV) and Power Distance (PDI) dimensions, is a mediating factor between leadership and such outcomes as job satisfaction, workgroup productivity, and turnover, and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB) as a whole. Paine and Organ (2000) agree that these same two cultural dimensions influence both "the perception of...and the likelihood of demonstrating"¹⁰ organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

The Collectivist/Individualist dimension has received the most attention in the literature (see Kagitcibasi & Berry, 1989; Schwartz, 1994; Earley & Gibson, 1998; Oyserman et al., 2002; and Gelfand et al., 2004; for reviews). Theorists Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), Schwartz

¹⁰ As quoted in: Euwema, M.C., Wendt, H., & Van Emmerik, H. (2007). Leadership styles and group organizational citizenship behavior across cultures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(8), p. 1039.

(1994), Triandis (1995), Hofstede (2001), House and Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (2004) have spent much time analyzing the individual-group relationship. Triandis (1990) suggested that of all the world's cultures, the most significant cultural dimension is that of Individualism (IDV)/Collectivism.

Su et al. (1999) and Tsui & Gutek (1999) found that members of collectivist societies self-associate with fewer social identity groups and that group membership is more likely to be relevant and permanent. According to Smith & Long (forthcoming), in collectivist societies, group attachments are more inflexible, connections to core characteristics less fluid, and self-classification will fluctuate less.

Triandis (1986) found that members in collectivistic cultures make clear differentiations between in-group and out-group members. Chen et al. (1998) proposed that the need for personal self-enhancement is the basis for in-group favoritism in individualist cultures while, in collectivist cultures, in-group favoritism is inevitable. Triandis (1994) contended that within collectivist cultures, conflict with out-group members is common since those members are generally exploited. In/out-group comparisons in individualist cultures generally are less aggressive because individuals have greater possibilities for feeling included and unique (Brewer, 2001). Chrobot-Mason et al. (2007) point out that collectivist cultures most often evolve in countries of homogeneous populations that give rise to homogeneous associations.

Robertson & Hoffman (2000) reveal that reliable individual-level metrics exist for Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), but that almost nothing has been devised for Confucian Dynamism. They suspect, however, that since Hofstede's other four dimensions of culture subsist at the individual level, so then must Confucian Dynamism.

Hofstede & Bond (1988) suggest a coincidence of certain values found within the Confucian Dynamism dimension and the other four dimensions of culture. They derive the following correlations: high Confucian Dynamism countries will have a high Power Distance Index (PDI), be low in Individualism (IDV), and moderate in Masculinity (MAS). They drew no correlation between Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Confucian Dynamism possibly due to its present/past and its future orientations.

Culture and Leadership Styles: A Theoretical Review

Hofstede's (1980) research identified as one of his cultural dimensions, Individualism (IDV) and its polar construct, Collectivism. Schwartz (1994) believes that each construct can stand alone and that it is possible for an individual, even a society, to have varying degrees of both. Triandis & Gelfand (1998) proposed that measuring Individualism (IDV) and Collectivism against Power Distance (PDI) would yield four diverse dimensions – horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism, horizontal Individualism (IDV), and vertical Individualism (IDV).

In his earlier work, Triandis (1995) points out that values influence the individual who, in turn, is influenced and also influences. This indicates that leadership style is most often perceived according to one's individual value set. Walumbwa et al. (2007) suggest that these particular differences will affect critically how individuals respond to various leadership styles. They also view transformational leadership as a complex model and caution that different facets could produce distinctive results depending on their interaction with varying value sets. Walumbwa et al. point out that their research is important relative to explaining individual perceptions of leaders in cross-cultural settings.

According to House et al. (2002), available cross-cultural literature alludes to a clear-cut link between culture and leadership style. The essential theme embodied in House et al.'s

theoretical model is that “the attributes and entities that distinguish a given culture from other cultures are predictive of the practices or organizations and leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted, acceptable, and effective in that culture” (p. 8, sec. 3.1).

The culture-specific viewpoint advocates that many North American leadership theories may be un-generalizable due to orientations rooted in Western cultures, clearly implying that individuals of different cultural backgrounds may have different perceptions of leadership (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede (1984b), Hall (1983), and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) have all been instrumental in formulating conceptual frameworks for the macro-comprehension of cultural differences. But which behavior works well, and in which cultural setting? Michael (1997) suggested that the successful result of a link between cultural values and managerial behavior is improved managerial effectiveness.

Miroshnik (2002) stated “According to experience the national origin of Asian and US managers significantly affects their views on how effective managers should manage”. Hofstede (1980a, b) identified significant managers’ and employees’ behavioral and attitudinal differences that have endured across countries and over time. Hofstede (2001) points out that, in collectivist cultures, employees tend to act with the interest of their fellow in-group members in mind whereas, in individualist cultures, the focus of the employee falls to the leader. Expected leadership behavior tends to reinforce positive employee response.

Culture and Leadership Styles: An Empirical Review

When reviewing various leadership styles and their acceptance in Asian countries, specifically China and India, the first reaction is to negate transformational leadership as being compatible with either of these cultures (Walumbwa et al., 1999). Upon further examination,

however, it becomes apparent that both societies are steeped in Power Distance (PDI) and Collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). The collectivist society is hierarchical and generally autocratic in nature, with top-down management practices.

The Confucian philosophy all but disappeared from China as a result of government suppression during the revolution but still underlies societal standards of respect and reverence for superiors (Hwang, 2001). Today paternalistic leadership, instituted toward the end of the Chinese revolution, is the norm within many Chinese organizations (Chen, 1995) and it incorporates aspects of benevolence and moral example, as well as the autocratic style, producing leaders who inspire and who are considerate and charismatic, the embodiment of the ideal “Confucian gentleman”, according to Walumbwa et al. (2004).

In India, comparable contradictory but compelling energies are shaping today’s managers. Sinha (1997) noted that left-over bureaucracy from the days of British colonial rule, coupled with traditional Hindu values and conventional Western business values are driving various aspects of leadership. Power Distance (PDI), based on the Hindu caste system, plays a pivotal role in the superior-subordinate relationship, but authority is based on moral integrity. Therefore a leader is kind and caring, as well as inspirational and directional (Sinha, 1997). These characteristics also tie in with the transformational style of leadership which is promoted by proponents of the Western value system.

Both theoretical and empirical findings suggest that transformational leadership works well in both individualist and collectivist societies. This is not to say that transformational leadership is the norm within Chinese or Indian organizations, but simply that various aspects of transformational leadership are reflected directly in leadership styles within the two societies and that transformational leadership would be relevant in China and India (Walumbwa et al., 2004).

Walumbwa et al. (2004) studied the role of collectivism in the relationship between transformational leadership and work-related outcomes of Chinese and Indian followers in the financial sectors in those countries. Their principal hypothesis said that there was a positive correlation between transformational leadership and collective efficacy; their second and third hypotheses dealt with collective efficacy as a mediator between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and withdrawal behaviors.

The authors administered a confidential survey to 208 Chinese and 194 Indian employees. The survey was developed in English then translated into Chinese and back-translated. Survey participants were 41% female; of that number 74% were Chinese and 26% were Indian. They generally were well educated, the majority were married or living with a partner, and the mean ages were 32 years in China and 34 years in India.

The survey used by Walumbwa et al. (2004) to evaluate leadership style was based on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass & Avolio (1995); it contained 20 items, used a 0 to 4 scale, with 0 being “Not at all” and 4 being “Frequently, if not always”. To evaluate collective efficacy, the authors used a 7-item scale taken from Riggs et al. (1994), using a scale for responses from 1 (Very inaccurate) to 6 (Very accurate).

The authors also measured organizational commitment [9-item scale adopted from Mowday et al. (1979)], job satisfaction [18-item scale adopted from Smith et al. (1969)], and withdrawal behaviors - job withdrawal and work withdrawal – [6 items and 8 items, respectively, adopted from Hanisch & Hulin (1991)]. They controlled with the dummy-coded variables of country, gender, education, and job level. They established scale validity and reliability using a combination of mean, covariance, and factor analysis. They also controlled for common method/source variance by using factor analysis with varimax rotation.

The results of the research conducted by Walumbwa et al. (2004) were that transformational leadership significantly contributed to collective efficacy ($\beta = .36, p < .001$), as well as to organizational commitment ($\beta = .36, p < .001$), supervisor satisfaction ($\beta = .67, p < .001$), work satisfaction ($\beta = .40, p < .001$), job withdrawal ($\beta = -.14, p < .01$), and work withdrawal ($\beta = -.11, p < .05$). Collective efficacy also predicted significantly the work-related outcomes of organizational commitment, supervisor satisfaction, work satisfaction, job withdrawal, and work withdrawal, but only partially mediated the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment, supervisor satisfaction, and work in general. The authors did find, however, complete mediation of collective efficacy of transformational leadership to withdrawal behaviors. Effectively, their hypotheses 1 and 3 were supported totally and their hypothesis 2 was supported partially.

According to Walumbwa et al. (2004), these findings are the first step in determining how transformational leadership impacts work-related outcomes and why followers have higher levels of job satisfaction and commitment, and lower levels of withdrawal intentions, than those who do not experience transformational leadership. They also indicate that there may be other factors that might mediate the relationship of transformational leadership and work attitudes. They cite realistic implications for leadership development programs and using collective efficacy to reduce withdrawal behaviors.

Walumbwa et al. (2004) recognize that further empirical research is necessary in this arena based on their use of surrogate rather than actual behaviors. They also cited the possibility of common method/source variance, as stated earlier on, and suggested using multiple sources for data collection. They suggested too the use of a longitudinal design for future studies and comparison across both collectivist and individualist cultures.

Empirical researchers in Colombia, India, and the Middle East have found that, unlike transformational leadership styles of Western countries, satisfactory leader behaviors generally are less directly involved with followers and more command-oriented (Pillai et al., 1999). Researchers at the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) program compared leadership styles in various cultures - South Asian, Anglo, Arabian, Germanic, Eastern European, and Latin European – and found significant disparities (Gupta et al., 2002; Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002; Szabo et al., 2002; Bakacsi et al., 2002; and Jesuino, 2002).

Casimir & Li (2005) undertook research based on the hypotheses that Australians would prefer receiving support prior to experiencing pressure in a work situation, and Chinese would prefer receiving support after experiencing pressure in a work situation. Their method of data collection involved having participants answer 2 **pressure** statements and 2 **support** statements (taken from Misumi & Peterson's (1985) instrument) and respond according to their preferences, using 1 of 4 predetermined leadership styles, as to whether they would like to work in a particular workplace scenario vignette. All responses were anonymous and confidential and each participant was asked to complete all questions (by a researcher in the event of unanswered questions).

The authors' research instrument was translated into Chinese and back-translated to avoid discrepancies. Research organizations were chosen randomly in Beijing, China, and Melbourne, Australia, along with an MBA program at a Melbourne university with a large number of Chinese nationals enrolled. Using SPSS software, the researchers ranked the frequency of each of the 4 leadership styles (After, Before, Either, Delayed) and computed the Friedman's Rank test. Results showed that the Australians ranked the *Before* style first and the *Delayed* style

fourth, with 78% of Australians liking the *Before* style and 55% of them liking the *Delayed* style. Fourteen percent of Australians ranked the *Either* style fourth and 15% of them ranked the *Before* style fourth. These findings partially supported the authors' first hypothesis.

The Chinese ranked the *Before* style first and the *Delayed* style last most often. Seventy-three percent of the Chinese like the *After* style and 68% like the *Before* style, and additional data showed a division between the *After* and *Before* styles (51% placed the *After* style higher). The *After* style was the most popular of the 4 styles. These finding supported partially the authors' second hypothesis.

Because there were 2 sub-samples of Chinese participants, the authors segregated the respondents and ran separate Friedman's tests for each group (Chinese MBA: $X^2 = 12.5$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.01$), (Chinese managers: $X^2 = 7.4$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.05$). The rankings were similar for both groups; the *Before* and *After* styles were the most popular and the *Delayed* style was the least popular.

Casimir & Li's (2005) research was limited since they used vignettes rather than actual workplace settings and they used followers' leadership style preferences as their dependent variables. The authors recommended further research to examine the effects of gender and stress levels within the work environment.

Other assessments of the literature about cross-cultural leadership underscore results that link transformational behavior to both the culture-specific and the simple universal ideologies (Dickson et al., 2001; Hunt & Peterson, 1997). Dorfman and Howell (1997) uncovered commonalities and discrepancies in leadership effectiveness across two Western and three Asian cultures. Their study confirmed Bass's (1990) assertion regarding the soundness of several leadership behaviors found in the simple universal and the culture-specific views. In all five

countries, the transformational behaviors, leader supportiveness and charisma, were endorsed, while participativeness and directiveness, also transformational techniques, were endorsed only by the Western countries.

Additional commonalities and differences were noted in a study of U.S., northern and southern European, Latin-American, Far Eastern, and Commonwealth executives which led Boehnke et al., (2003) to suggest that, although transformational leadership behaviors may be universal, their applications may be nationally adapted. Their supporting arguments were:

1. team building behaviors were used more often by Americans than by their Far Eastern counterparts, and
2. other stimulating behaviors were used more often by Americans than by their southern European colleagues.

According to Jung et al., (1995), transformational leadership is generalizable since it focuses on a collective undertaking, responsibilities and objectives, and identifies with cultural values in collectivist societies more so than individualist societies. Spreitzer et al., (2005), in building upon previous work by Chen & Farh (1999), Den Hartog et al. (1999), and Dorfman & Howell (1997), propose that transformational leadership behaviors are significant in Eastern and Western cultures, but that performance varies. They refer to this concept as variform universal.

Variform functional universality asserts that a relationship exists between two variables across cultures, but the extent of the relationship also differs across cultures (Bass, 1997; Dickson et al., 2001; and Lonner, 1980). Spreitzer et al., (2005) subjectively examined transformational leadership's variform functional universality using cultural values rather than culture itself, unlike the routine practice of associating cultural values with nationality or country of origin, as successfully done by researchers including Hofstede (2001), Triandis (1995), and

Trompenaars (1997). The method for their research built upon work by Lytle et al., (1995) and Dickson et al., (2001) who pointed out that numerous values and cultural norms can coexist within a particular country. Therefore Spreitzer et al., (2005) stated that no one individual is necessarily representative of an entire country's median score.

Whyte & Williams (1963) undertook a comparison study of leadership styles in the United States and Peru. Both blue and white-collar workers, within one division of the electric power industry in both countries filled out anonymous surveys containing personal background information (company rank, seniority, age, experience, etc.), questions about their immediate supervisor, the nature of their work and workgroup, pay and promotions, policies, and communication. Survey participants numbered as follows: 308 blue-collar and 599 white-collar workers in the United States; 364 blue-collar and 202 white-collar workers in Peru.

In Peru the "real" power exists at levels higher up within the organization. Therefore Whyte & Williams (1963) found that workers' responses about supervisors at the same level did not compare supervisors with the same degree of power. Conversely, workers' responses about supervisors with similar levels of power did not compare supervisors in the same positions.

White-collar workers in Peru, in general, were satisfied with their supervisors and with the training they themselves had received. They also reported less pressure to perform, but were not satisfied with the amount of responsibility they held, nor with the levels of communication between management and employees. Nearly two-thirds of the Peruvian office workers did report, however, that top management's attitude toward them had markedly improved in the past several years prior to the study.

Resulting responses from the U.S. workers were fairly comparable to those of their Peruvian counterparts except that the Peruvians felt they were less informed about departmental

issues and more likely to receive information from their fellow workers than from their supervisors.

The blue-collar workers in Peru were not as satisfied with their supervisors as their fellow white-collar workers or as the blue or white-collar workers in the U.S. The Peruvian blue-collar workers, like their white-collar co-workers, also felt that they received less information regarding their department from their supervisors. Both groups of workers in the U.S. had similar responses, while both Peruvian groups reflected the social rift that is prevalent throughout Latin America.

Whyte & Williams' (1963) study found that workers in Peru more highly regard the supervisor who provides closer supervision and who emphasizes production, while the U.S. workers report higher levels of satisfaction with those supervisors who provide more general supervision and who put less emphasis on production. These results conform to both of Hofstede's (1980) Power Distance (PDI) and Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) dimensions, where stark delineations are drawn between societal levels and where closer supervision signifies support for the group rather than for the individual.

As for the issue of downward communication within the organization, both U.S. and Peruvian responses showed that those supervisors who communicate with their subordinates are more highly evaluated, albeit at lower correlations in Peru. Similar results were found relating to the frequency of supervisor-employee group discussions and whether or not these meetings were productive. These results show a tendency on the part of the Peruvian workers to consider their relationship with a supervisor as more "personal", than group-related. Whyte & Williams (1963) did acknowledge that the omission of productivity information from the Peruvian component was a limitation of their study.

Byrne & Bradley (2007) conducted a study involving styles of leadership in international firms. Their findings supported all four of their hypotheses, three of which are pertinent to this research (numbers 1,3, & 4). Their hypotheses were:

1. *“successful leadership style is pluralistic,*
2. *pluralistic successful leadership styles contain a spectrum of decreasing successful firm performances,*
3. *personal and cultural-level values differ in their mediation effect on leadership style, and*
4. *personal values are less dominant quantitatively than cultural-level values in their separate mediating roles on manager leadership style.”*¹¹

Byrne & Bradley (2007) identified Danish, Finnish, and Irish firms with open economies and dependence on international trade. They used Pearson bivariate analysis for each country, and also used *Leadpval* (leadership style mediated by personal values) and *Leadcval* (leadership style mediated by cultural values), to identify links between the 57 Schwartzian¹² personal values and 45 cultural values (independent variables) (Schwartz, 1992), and overall and international performance (dependent variables), measured by the average annual increase over a continuous five-year period.

One-hundred and fifty-nine completed questionnaires were used in their research – 34 from Denmark, 58 from Finland, and 68 from Ireland. The results for the authors’ first hypothesis revealed a pluralistic style for Irish managers, with a higher ‘openness to change’ component than that of the Danish and Finnish managers. In addition, successful Irish and Finnish managerial styles were the opposite of the average Irish and Finnish country styles. The

¹¹ Byrne, G.J. & Bradley, F. (2007). Culture’s influence on leadership efficiency: How personal and national cultures affect leadership style. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(2), 168-185.

¹² Universal set of individual personal values developed by Schwartz (1992)

average Irish style is higher in 'conservation' when compared to the successful managerial style which shows more 'openness to change'. Conversely, the average style in Finland demonstrates more 'openness to change' when compared to the 'conservation' style of the successful Finnish manager.

Research results supported the authors' third hypothesis by identifying 'protecting the environment', as the common correlate between the 45 cultural values and international performance, and also between the 57 personal values and international performance. However, only three of the covariates of 'protecting the environment' also were identified in both the set of personal values and the set of cultural values, reinforcing the proposition that personal values and cultural values influence 'international performance' differently, and have different mediation effects on leadership style.

As for the authors' fourth hypothesis, the results of logistic regression analysis showed that *Leadcvl* was more influential as a variable than *Leadpval* by approximately 70% in the mediation of leadership style. Simply put, cultural values are more significant than personal values in their effect on leadership style.

The authors concluded that the effects of personal and cultural values on sustained competitive advantage and management strategies of international and global firms differ among world cultures. They noted that the plurality of leadership styles would be significant to inter-cultural strategic alliances such as joint ventures, and recommended that since national culture is a prevailing element to the success of international/global business, key leadership roles in these types of organizations should be designated to indigenous executives. They reported a confidence level of 95% or higher but gave no details as to how they measured that percentage, implying a limitation to the study.

Culture and Workgroup Effectiveness

Workgroup effectiveness can be achieved if members are encouraged by the probability of success, the appreciation for quality service, the acknowledgment of team recommendations, and the appropriate compensation for team performance (Wheelan, 1999). Research shows workgroup effectiveness is a product of the characteristics of the task(s), the type(s) of managerial actions, and the disposition of group makeup (Milliken & Vollrath, 1991; Hackman, 1987; McGrath, 1984; Mason & Mitroff, 1981; Hoffman, 1979a,b; Stumpf et al., 1979a; Nemiroff et al., 1976; Hackman & Morris, 1975).

Within the context of increased globalization, Robert House and the researchers at Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) (2004) clearly see cultural differences as a key issue. House remarked “as economic borders come down, cultural barriers go up, thus presenting new challenges and opportunities in business. When cultures come into contact, they may converge on some aspects, but their idiosyncrasies will likely amplify” (Javidan & House, 2001).

When discussing culture in terms of workgroups, Adler (2001) relates that under differing cultural standards, some members of a workgroup will feel frustrated, regardless of the team’s choice of rules. She also points out that resolving cultural issues frequently takes up valuable time that should be spent on work.

Smith et al. (1994) found, based on their study of the relationship between event management and workgroup effectiveness in the United States, Britain, and Japan, that US supervisors generally were less satisfied with workgroup cooperation, and that Japanese teams are considered more effective if the members seek advice from their supervisor in unusual situations. They also learned that both the American and British managers made clear

distinctions between unusual situations and everyday occurrences regarding the use of manuals while in Japan. Workgroup members using manuals were considered more productive in unusual circumstances and more cooperative on a day-to-day basis. The cultural divide is clearly between Japan and the Western countries.

Peterson et al. (1990) discovered that Japanese workgroup members underscored reliance on co-workers, dependence on repeated use of manuals and procedures, and frequent guidance from supervisors. Western supervisors prefer situation-based responses from workgroup members. These results fall in line with what Hofstede (1980) identified in his five cultural dimensions. For example, preferred use of manuals both day-to-day and under strange circumstances, along with frequent guidance, shows a direct link to Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI); reliance on co-workers speaks to Individualism (IDV); frequent direction from supervisors also relates directly to Power Distance (PDI).

Culture and Workgroup Effectiveness: A Theoretical Review

The Chinese believe that positive relationships within an organization promote successful management and since China is a primarily Collectivist culture, this is not surprising. Since 1949, group-related behaviors (decision-making, teamwork, group incentives, and group unification) have been emphasized in China (Zhong-Ming, 1997). Chinese workgroups are motivated to higher levels of productivity by a “cafeteria-type”¹³ reward system and tend to associate their accomplishment with the collective team effort (Wang, 1986, 1988; Chen, 1989). This shows a direct link not only to Hofstede’s (1980) Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) dimension, but also to his Long/Short-Term Orientation (LTO) dimension where future performance is anticipated.

¹³ A variety of incentives such as cash bonuses, group vacations, excellent worker awards, etc.

Under China's most recent management reforms, the team approach emphasizes strategy ownership, problem-solving, team performance, conflict avoidance and management, and subordinate performance evaluation (Wang & Zhu, 1996). These last two metrics lean toward the Individualist end of the continuum. Wang's (1993a) research in China shows that a high level of group participation plus a positive employee-job fit, with clearly delineated goals and responsibilities, equal excellent team behavior and performance.

Culture and Workgroup Effectiveness: An Empirical Review

Fleishman & Simmons (1970) studied the relationship between certain dimensions of leader behavior and the effectiveness ratings of foremen in various Israeli industries. They found that those leaders whose behavior model was a mix of structure and concern were better able to elicit valuable measures for different managerial jobs. These findings support similar previous studies done in the United States by Fleishman (1969), Sergiovanni et al. (1969), Anderson (1966), Fleishman & Harris (1962), Fleishman & Ko (1962), Hemphill (1955), and Halpin (1955), and in Japan by Misumi & Tosaki (1965), and are particularly consistent with Fleishman & Harris' (1962) belief that higher levels of concern or consideration by a supervisor will lead to the introduction of higher levels of structure and more effective achievement of goals, whereas lower levels of consideration with the same level of structure would be less effective and quite possibly counterproductive.

North & Hoot (2002) conducted research testing Trompenaars' (1993) model dealing with assumptions about the effects of national culture on employee motivation and commitment in Australia, Malaysia, and Thailand, three distinct countries in the Pacific Rim region. They also investigated the effective evaluation of employee motivation and measuring employee work commitment in the Asia Pacific region using a tool developed and used in the U.S.

They began in Australia (November 2000) and initially used paper and pen surveys sent to the Human Resource Managers of an international hotel chain. Since there was a problem with translation affecting the understanding of the purpose of the survey, they next resorted to focus groups to gather qualitative data. The questions developed for the focus groups were presented to a combination of associates (based on level of employment, age, and role) to assess their commitment to the employer. The associates were grouped and asked as a team to prioritize some statements regarding the American work ethic and to create five statements describing commitment and then re-prioritize their list.

The authors hoped for an emerging model of perceptions based on Hampden-Turner's & Trompenaars' (1993) cultural dimensions. Study results ranged from employees' feeling a part of the every-day routine and concerned with immediate matters, to employees who were more concerned with their individual satisfaction and recognition, to employees who were concerned with immediate benefits, to still others who were concerned with benefits and career direction in addition to some of the previously mentioned issues. A surprising result of the study was the formation of Australian sub-groups: Australian-Filipinos, Australian-Japanese, and a third cultural blend.

After revising their data-gathering methodology, North & Hart (2002) continued with a second grouping of focus panels in Malaysia (February 2001) with supervisors and managers in a hotel. The results of the second phase of the study showed clear preferences to Trompenaars' dimensions, and each group differed from the other two:

Group 1

- Recognition and reward very important

- Relationship with environment & relationships with customers and co-workers most important

Group 2

- Environment & transitory relationships unimportant
- Unclear which items were most or least important

Group 3

- Work/life balance, relationships, company direction, personal satisfaction most important
- Benefits less important

Further interviews in Thailand and Malaysia (August 2001) confirmed the presence of additional cultural dimensions affecting commitment relevant only to the Asian-Pacific arena. Key differences in issues important to American and Malaysian employees were money and relationships, specifically the employee-supervisor relationship. In Thailand, the number one driver of employee commitment is relationships. Overall, the principles of respect, fairness, and ethical conduct were prevalent in the national cultures of Malaysia and Thailand even though differences were noted. In Malaysia, speaking one's mind is rarely done. Also in Malaysia, the group provides safety and inclusion for those who do not wish to be singled out or ridiculed. In Thailand, strong family values affect small group dynamics and the view that American work hours do not necessarily fit in with the Thai way of life.

The findings of North and Hort's (2002) research support both Hofstede's (1980) and Trompenaars' & Hampden-Turner's (1993) research in that they confirm that national culture does define employee commitment in the countries studied and that work dimensions that are relevant to Americans do not have the same relevance to people in Pacific Rim countries.

In 2000, Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro considered the impact of Hofstede's (1980) *Individualism (IDV)* dimension on in-group/out-group team members' generosity in evaluating peers. The authors' hypotheses are as follows:

H1: When a team member is an in-group (rather than an out-group) member, a collectivist will evaluate that team member more generously than will an individualist.

H2: Collectivists will value maintenance contributions more than individualists will and, conversely, individualists will value task contributions more than collectivists will.

H3: Collectivists' tendency to evaluate out-group members less generously will be lessened when a team member has provided maintenance rather than task contributions.

The authors' sample included 330 part and full-time MBA students – 147 Mexicans and 183 U.S. Americans. In Mexico, 54 percent of the respondents were female; in the U.S., 45 percent were female. All respondents were citizens of their respective countries. In the U.S., 58 percent of the students were between ages 26 and 35; in Mexico, 98 percent were younger than 30.

The authors used a scenario method based on earlier research and were responsible for in-group/out-group membership, maintenance and task inputs, and measurement of collectivism and evaluation generosity. Versions of the scenario were randomly distributed to participants who volunteered to complete the survey as an in-class exercise. Participants received the scenario in their own language; scenarios had been translated and back-translated for more accuracy. The scenarios contained different situations involving a team working on a special project where teamwork is a significant portion of the job. Participants were told that their input, along with the manager's evaluation, would determine each team member's performance appraisal and

salary increase. Scenarios were made as real-life and generic as possible to apply to many different jobs and industry sectors.

The independent variables in this study were country, collectivism, task inputs, maintenance inputs, and in-group/out-group membership. Country was coded 0 for the U.S. and 1 for Mexico. Individualism/Collectivism (IDV) was measured with a previously developed scale. Participants used a Likert scale (1 to 7) to respond to statements describing various teamwork-related scenarios. A coefficient alpha of .73 was established for the five-item scale.

The participants read one of two descriptions of a phantom team member's (Pat in the U.S., C. López in Mexico) task- and maintenance-related contributions to the project. Depending on the high or low quality input made by the imaginary team member, codes of 1 and -1 were used for evaluations. Phantom team members were also described as being of similar backgrounds and colleagues who were good friends (in-group) or as being of different backgrounds and never having known each other prior to the project (out-group); these conditions were also coded with 1 and -1.

Participants were asked to respond to three questions for the purpose of determining their evaluation generosity. Prior to computing the scores, the authors minimized scale differences using Z-scores and received a reliability rating .92. The authors also ran a manipulation check by conducting a principal component factor analysis on eight semantic differential items reflecting the participants' opinions of the target member. They also received results of .97 and .85 for the "cooperative" and "uncooperative" factors. ANOVA was employed to check the effectiveness of the manipulations.

ANOVA also was used to confirm that the Mexicans were more collectivist ($x = 5.43$) than the U.S. Americans ($x = 4.75$). The authors established gender, age, and country as control variables then estimated their predictions.

When collectivists perceived their work group's members to be in-group, they provided higher evaluations than did the individualists, thereby supporting Hypothesis 1. After performing median splits and regression on the two groups, along with percentages of variance and beta coefficients, the authors tested for the difference and found that their predictions were partially supported for Hypothesis 2. Next, the authors chose a sub-sample of collectivists by median split and added controls, but neither of the two resulting actions was significant, thereby undermining Hypothesis 3. The authors point out that in all models, both collectivists and individualists valued equity-based rewards, as evidenced by the significance of task and maintenance inputs.

Based on the results of their study, the authors concluded the following:

1. Collectivists are more generous in their evaluation of in-group members. This conclusion has far-reaching implications for in-group member cooperation and cohesiveness, difficulties in achieving fair credit allocations, and accuracy in communication, among other things.
2. Collectivists placed a higher value on the maintenance (rather than the task) contributions than did the individualists and vice versa. However, both groups' evaluation generosity appears to be equity-led, suggesting the persistence of cultural values over time, with more adaptable associated behaviors.

The authors admit to limited generalizability due to the use of the scenario methodology, although researchers note its ease of obtaining cross-cultural uniformity. They recommend that

future research be conducted in the field, repeating their study and including a focus on other country differences. In fact, Hofstede's (1980) original dimensions have been successfully applied to consumer research by Lynn et al. (1993) and Roth (1995). Further research suggested by the authors might test their framework in non-European countries although the same constructs might not be applicable to innovativeness, especially in non-Western countries. They also recommend including the dimension of Long-Term Orientation (LTO) and extending the model to sub-cultures. Other recommendations for additional research were made, but do not relate directly to this study.

Culpan and Kucukemiroglu (1993) compared management styles and unit effectiveness in Japan and the United States. Two of their three hypotheses are of particular interest to this research study:

- H1: *Management styles as defined by six managerial dimensions of supervisory style, decision-making, communication pattern, managerial control, interdepartmental relations, and paternalistic orientation differ significantly between the U.S. and Japan.*
- H2: The U.S. and Japanese managers consider each managerial dimension differently and emphasize different sets of managerial dimensions.
- H3: *American managerial perception of their unit effectiveness differs significantly from those of Japanese managers.*

The first hypothesis includes underpinnings of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions: Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) in the decision-making, Power Distance (PDI) associated with the managerial control, and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) within the paternalistic approach. The third hypothesis is directly related to each country's Individualist/Collectivist (IDV) orientation.

The researchers worked with a sample of 200 randomly-chosen U.S. medium and large-sized manufacturing firms (100+ employees) in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. They mailed three questionnaires to top and middle managers at each company and received 225 responses, for a response rate of 37.5%. In Japan, the researchers chose a sample of 70 randomly-selected medium and large-sized manufacturing firms with 100 or more employees. They mailed four questionnaires to top and middle managers and received 65 responses, a rate of 23.2%.

The English-language questionnaire was translated to Japanese then back-translated to English by a native Japanese speaker who had no means of obtaining or referring to the original document. The socio-demographics of the sample population included a majority of respondents from both countries in the 36-45 year age range; most had completed college with business degrees; and the largest number of respondents had spent the last 11-15 years with their company, most in their present position for one to five years. In general, the American managers held lower positions and had shorter tenure.

Part II of the research survey asked questions grouped by the six dimensions mentioned in Hypothesis 1 - supervisory style, decision-making, communication pattern, managerial control, interdepartmental relations, and paternalistic orientation. Answers were given using a Likert-type scale of 1 to 9 points. Unit effectiveness, measured in Part III, was a measure of the perception of the manager's overall unit performance relative to all familiar units, whether or not supervised by that individual.

Culpan and Kucukemiroglu (1993) used a MANOVA to measure the country-of-origin effect on managers' views or perceptions of the managerial dimensions. The model combined the six dimensions of management into one dependent variable and used country of origin as the

factor variable. They also used a t-test to compare perceptions of unit effectiveness in each country. The study results were as follows:

- Managerial styles differ significantly from the U.S. to Japan ($F=111.37$, $p<0.0001$). This confirmed the authors' first hypothesis. American and Japanese managers perceive each dimension differently as well.
- American managers stress supervisory style, decision-making, and control – characteristics of an Individualist society; Japanese managers underscore communication pattern, interdepartmental relations, and paternalistic orientation – traits of a more Collectivist society. The authors validated their second hypothesis with these findings.
- The results of the t-test ($t=3.03$, $p<0.033$) confirmed the third hypothesis; the Japanese managers believed their organizational units to be more effective than did the American managers. Japanese and American managerial styles are at opposite ends of the spectrum, in each of the six dimensions, indicating a direct link from managerial style to unit effectiveness.

Culpan and Kucukemiroglu's (1993) findings support earlier Japanese-U.S. management comparison theories and results proposed by Ouchi (1981), Pascale (1978), and Hatvany & Pucik (1981). This research study shows how culture influences which of the six managerial dimensions would be more prevalent in an Individualist country like the United States or in a Collectivist country such as Japan. Culpan and Kucukemiroglu caution American managers to concentrate more on the process of decision-making than on the results. More subordinate involvement in the decision-making process will foster unit performance by way of increased commitment and morale (Hatvany & Pucik, 1981).

Theoretical Framework for the Study

Discussion of the Literature

Summary and Interpretations

Cross-cultural literature traverses multiple disciplines, from the social sciences and humanities to economics and business. Questions and related research about culture and its effects in many areas of business have been evolving since the early twentieth century. As businesses expand to take advantage of global opportunities, they begin to realize that diversity within their organizations leads to many questions and attitudes regarding culture. Research continues in the area of cultural effects as it relates to business and many other areas of life.

Almost without exception, the name most often associated with modern-day culture and cultural theory is Geert Hofstede (1980), whose seminal research regarding culture, cultural attitudes of various groups and sub-groups, and the effects of culture on thinking, decision-making, and behavior has been the cornerstone on which cultural theorists such as Trompenaars, Hampden-Turner, Robert House, and others have based their studies. Hofstede's initial study of cultural dimensions affecting workplace values enabled him to formulate four original cultural dimensions and he later formulated one additional dimension as a result of further study. The five dimensions are: Power Distance Index (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Masculinity (MAS), Individualism (IDV), and Long-Term Orientation (LTO).

Fons Trompenaars (1994) developed his theoretical framework on the basis of Hofstede's work. His model consists of seven dimensions, some of which correspond to and/or coincide with those of Hofstede. These seven dimensions are: Universalism vs. Particularism, Analyzing vs. Integrating, Individualism vs. Communitarianism, Inner-directed vs. Outer-directed, Time as sequence vs. Time as synchronization, Achieved status vs. Ascribed status, and Equality vs.

Hierarchy. Trompenaars later joined forces with Charles Hampden-Turner and together they have done extensive studies in the area of organizational cultural behavior and management.

House et al. (2002) and contributing members of Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE), a twenty-first-century group of culture theorists, have been measuring cultural practices and values at the industrial, organizational, and societal levels as they apply to leadership. Their consensus is that human beings everywhere share common bonds and that culture can be a strong “uniter” or “disuniter”. They too have built on what both Hofstede and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner have done and have developed a set of 9 dimensions, some of which expanded upon or concentrated together Hofstede’s and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s dimensions.

As each new evolution of culture theory emerges, critiques are presented and criticisms are levied at the previous ones, but the outcome is always the same – subsequent research continues to refine cultural existing work, and all theories accepted today include a core of cultural dimensions originally defined by Hofstede. Various industries have been studied applying one or more of the dimensions formulated by the leading theorists but to date, only a moderate amount of empirical evidence exists to support existing theories, although many researchers have contributed significantly to the literature with their work.

What has been learned is that there are strong ties between country and culture, although the two remain distinct. We know that nations can be recognized as units of culture, sub-cultures do exist, and national culture remains stable over time. We also know that certain principles of culture are relevant to certain groups of people and not to others. National culture also influences perceptions and interpretations of, and responses to, strategic issues. Barkema &

Vermeulen (1997) found that cultural differences could lead to misunderstandings, severe differences of opinion, and possible dissolution of international joint ventures.

Perception

Hofstede's (1980) research and resulting philosophy regarding culture is that cultural influences guide our *perceptions*, information processes, decision-making, and ensuing behavior. Dutton and Jackson (1987), and Schneider and De Meyer (1991) conducted research studies that revealed significant differences in the impact of national culture on the interpretation and response to strategic issues. Research by Schneider and De Meyer (1991) focused on Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Power Distance (PDI). Results of their study showed that some managers *perceived* more uncertainty than others, depending on their tolerance for or comfort level with uncertainty. Additionally, they concluded that some managers *perceive* more of a crisis based on their *perception* of how much or how little control they have in any given situation. This research built upon Dutton and Jackson's (1987) findings that one *perceives* a problem as either positive or negative (UAI), within his control or not (PDI and UAI), and that *perception* drives him to label the problem as a threat or an opportunity. This linkage of *perception* to interpretation then propels strategic decisions and actions.

North and Hort (2002) conducted research and tested the effects of national culture on employee motivation and commitment in three Pacific Rim countries. They anticipated an emerging model of *perceptions* based on both Hofstede's (1980) and Trompenaars' & Hampden-Turner's (1993) research. Indeed their findings did confirm the emergence of sub-groups, validating that national culture characterizes employee commitment.

The practical implications of a study conducted by Schyns et al. (2008) indicate that organizations need to focus on LMX or Leader-Member Exchange, followers' *perceptions* of the

quality of their relationships with their leaders . According to the authors, “It is assumed that the *perceived* quality of the relationship is not only related to the actual quality of the relationship, but also to followers' expectancies and preferences. However, little is known about person characteristics that are related to LMX perceptions. This study seeks to examine how far followers' leadership-related characteristics (romance of leadership, idealised supervisor, need for leadership and dependence) are related to the *perception* of LMX (p. 772)” (Schyns et al., 2008).

By linking findings from Hofstede (1980), Dutton and Jackson (1987), and Schneider and De Meyer (1991), regarding the connection between culture and individuals' interpretation and response to strategic business issues with the findings of Schyns et al. (2008), one might expect to find significant correlations between and among culture, leadership, and strategic business issues. This dissertation strives to determine the significance of those relationships for culture, leadership styles, and workgroup effectiveness.

Some of the cultural dimensions of the three major contributors (Hofstede, 1985; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1994; and House et al., 2002) have been studied in empirical research, however there are no published studies focusing on all five of Hofstede's cultural dimensions and the dependent variables of perceived leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

Conclusions

It is essential to point out that Hofstede's (1980) original research identified cultural linkages at the national level. Hofstede himself and subsequent researchers since have furthered these studies to include regional and various sub-cultural linkages. A healthy body of empirical work has been published that focuses on the *Individualism/Collectivism* (IDV) dimension.

There is some published research that focuses on combinations of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, but no published work that measures all five of the cultural dimensions in combination with perceived leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness. Morris et al. (1994) and Laroche et al. (2005) found definite links to intercultural entrepreneurial attitudes and behavior by sub-cultures, rather than by country affiliation. Although this bolsters the culture-expectation connection, their studies were not conducted in the area of perceived leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

This research proposed to distinguish cultural linkages at the individual level and to show a significant correlation to the dependent variables of perceived leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness. In the following section, the research question and hypotheses will be discussed.

Research Question

The research question answered by this study is as follows:

1. Will individuals with different cultural characteristics perceive the effectiveness of leadership styles on workgroup effectiveness differently?

Research Hypotheses

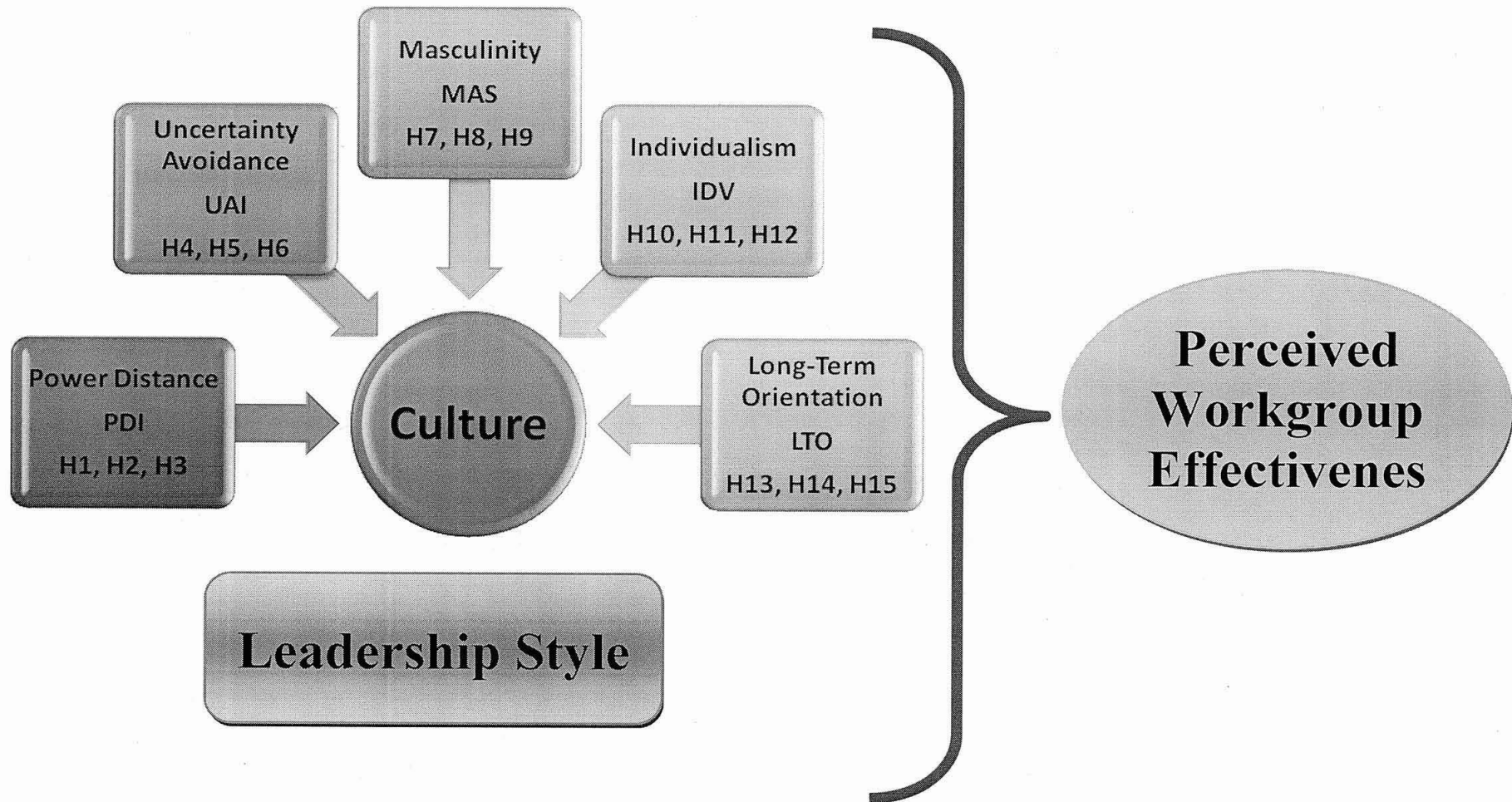
To answer this question, the research hypotheses that were investigated in this study are as follows:

- H1: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.

- H2: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.
- H3: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies and those with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.
- H4: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.
- H5: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.
- H6: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies and those with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.
- H7: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies.
- H8: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies.

- H9: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies and those with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies.
- H10: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies.
- H11: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies.
- H12: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies and those with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies.
- H13: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.
- H14: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.
- H15: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies and those with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.

Figure 1-1. Hypothesized Model



The preceding literature review was guided by the research question regarding the relationship between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness. The review provided findings from the critical analysis of the literature on theoretical studies and empirical studies that address various dimensions of culture, leadership styles, and workgroup effectiveness. By examining the constructs provided by other studies, this research focused on the relationships between and among Path-Goal leadership styles, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness. The existing research has examined each of these as a stand-alone variable or in combination with one or more variables, but no single study has examined all five of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions, coupled with perceived leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness. Prior research does show that, in general, culture and Path-Goal leadership styles directly affect workgroup effectiveness. This research, however, proposed an in-depth study of each of Hofstede's cultural dimensions in relation to perceived leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness.

The next chapter provides an in-depth description of the research design, the sampling plan, instrumentation, ethical considerations, data collection procedures, methods of data analysis, and evaluation of research methods.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research question and hypotheses introduced in the previous chapter have been advanced as a result of a gap identified in the literature by the researcher. This research was quantitative, experimental, co-relational, and causal-comparative in design and was intended to examine relationships between and among culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

The ten hypotheses place leadership style perceptions (both leaders' and workgroup members') and perceived workgroup effectiveness in the role of dependent variables; culture is the independent variable. To study the research question and test the hypotheses, the researcher conducted an experiment with 314 university business students.

The management case assignment given to the student workgroups in this research study was developed by the researcher. The survey instrument consisted of three sections comprised of items that were adapted from existing instruments, and the socio-demographic questionnaire prepared by the researcher. The researcher completed the process of data collection during a four-week period. Survey respondents were instructed to withhold their names or any identifying marks from their surveys. The researcher was available in the room as the students worked in workgroups to complete the case assignment and the survey instruments, and answered any questions that arose.

Population and Sampling Plan

Target Population

The target population identified for this research included students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate management courses at colleges and universities in South Florida.

Accessible Population

The population identified for this study consisted of business students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate English-language management courses at Lynn University and Hodges University in South Florida.

Sample Population

The sample population was comprised of 314 undergraduate and graduate students in management courses at Lynn University and Hodges University in South Florida. For this

research, the sample size of 314 students was in line with Tabachnick and Fidell's (1989) suggestion that the ratio of participants to independent variables should be 5 to 1. Nunnally (1978) states that studies with 2 or 3 independent variables should have a sample size of 100 or more participants and that, conversely, studies with 9 or 10 independent variables should have a sample consisting of 300 to 400 participants. Marks' (1966) recommendation for any study using regression analysis is 200 subjects, while Schmidt's (1971) recommendation ranges from 15 subjects per independent variable to 25 subjects per independent variable. Since this study used 5 cultural dimensions, each one considered an independent variable, this study's sample size of 314 was sufficient.

There was purposive or convenience sample selection in that, student participants had to be enrolled members of business courses. However, each student was randomly assigned to a workgroup within each class. The leader of each workgroup was also randomly chosen by number selection; each member of each workgroup randomly selected a numbered piece of paper and all those students holding the same number became the workgroup leader (for example, all members with number 3 became the workgroup leader).

Eligibility Criteria and Exclusion Criteria

This research study was conducted with 314 students at Lynn University and Hodges University in South Florida, who were:

1. enrolled in an undergraduate or graduate management course,
2. enrolled in an English-language business program, and
3. at least 18 years of age.

Those students who were not enrolled in an undergraduate or graduate management course, in an English-language business program at Lynn University or Hodges University in South Florida, and were not at least 18 years of age were excluded from this study.

Procedures

Data Collection Methods and Instrumentation

This research included administering a management case assignment for students to "solve". In order to insure and maintain ethical considerations and validity of the data collected, students were informed that they were participating in research, but were not informed of the research question or hypotheses. Once the case assignment was completed, the students were given a survey and asked to anonymously fill out the four parts containing 64 questions about

demographics, cultural dimensions, leadership style, and workgroup effectiveness. The entire time allotted for this research was 70 minutes. The researcher then collected and retained the management case assignments and the surveys.

The researcher used the following instruments:

- Socio-Demographic Profile – formulated by the researcher.
- Cultural Dimensions Survey – each of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions was measured using an instrument created by Yoo and Donthu (2002) consisting of 4 to 6 statements per cultural dimension using a 5-point Likert-type scale. Permission to adopt/adapt granted.
- Perceived Leadership Behavior Scales (PLBS) – Leadership Style was measured by responses to 20 questions, using a 5-point Likert-type scale. Two versions of this survey component were used – one version for workgroup members and a slightly altered version for workgroup leaders. The version for workgroup members was adopted for use and was not changed. Several questions of the workgroup leader version were reworded to reflect the leaders' own perceptions and attitudes so as to make this survey instrument more relevant to the research. Permission to adopt/adapt granted.
- Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (DEOCS) – Workgroup Effectiveness was measured using Part IV of the six-part Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute's (DEOMI) Occupational Climate Survey (DEOCS), *Perceived Work Group Effectiveness* scale, consisting of 12 items on a 5-point-Likert-type scale (DEOMI, 2004). See Appendix A, Part 4. Several questions of this survey component were reworded to make this survey instrument more relevant to the research. Permission to adopt/adapt granted.¹⁴

Part 1: Description of Demographics

Objective Indicators

The researcher has developed a demographic profile to measure objective data about respondents' characteristics. Part 1 of the survey includes questions about age, gender, race, ethnicity, educational level, country of birth, length of time in country of residence, and prior

¹⁴ See Appendix B for the instruments.

team participation. Age, country of birth, and length of time in country of residence are open-ended questions. Gender, race, ethnicity, and educational levels will be indicated for listed answers. Race/ethnicity categories to be used are taken from the U.S. Census Bureau's (2000) Office of Management and Budget's five minimum required categories for detailing race that will include American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and White. The researcher has appended the list to also include Indian or Pakistani (from the Indian sub-continent) and Haitian, to better capture the races represented in South Florida and the Caribbean. Categories for ethnicity also come from the U.S. Census Bureau's (2000) Office of Management and Budget's minimum required categories, and are Hispanic or Latino and Not Hispanic or not Latino.

Part 2: Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede's 5 cultural dimensions of Power Distance (PDI), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Masculinity/Femininity (MAS), Individualism/Collectivism (IDV), and Short/Long-Term Orientation (LTO) (Confucian Dynamism) will be measured using groupings of statements that relate directly to one of the five cultural dimensions. In this manner, cultural dimensions are represented according to the answers provided by each respondent.

Statement scores will be evaluated within each of the five dimensions. The researcher will use the median scores of the statements in each section to score the tendency of each of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions. The tendency of each dimension will be considered "high" if it is 2.5 or above and "low" if it is less than 2.5. All items are positively worded, so as to avoid reverse-scoring.

The instrument, developed and used by Yoo and Donthu (2002); Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz (2001); and Donthu and Yoo (1998), evaluates the five dimensions of individual

cultural values. The scale has been used in a variety of contexts both in the United States and other countries and its factors have attained adequate consistency ranking between .60s and .80s when replicated (Klein, 1999; Singhapakdi, Rallapalli, Rao, & Vitell, 1995). Collectively, the scale's data reliability ranges from .67 to .76. Construct reliability is reinforced by Cronbach's alphas for each of the individual cultural dimensions: .86 (Power Distance Index – PDI), .88 (Uncertainty Avoidance Index – UAI), .83 (Individualism – IDV), .86 (Masculinity – MAS), and .82 (Long-Term Orientation – LTO).

Part 3: Leadership Styles

Description

Leadership styles will be measured using the *Perceived Leadership Behavior Scale* (PLBS) developed by House & Dessler (1974). Leadership behavior or style is a descriptive variable which directly influences subordinates' performance (House & Dessler, 1974).

The *Perceived Leadership Behavior Scale* (PLBS) consists of 20 statements categorized as instrumental, supportive, or participative leadership styles. Each item is scored using a 5-point Likert-type frequency rating scale, ranging from “never”=1, “seldom”=2, “occasionally”=3, “often”=4, and “always”=5. All items are positively worded, so as to avoid reverse-scoring. Study participants will score their perceptions of their leader's style within the sections of instrumental leadership (IL), supportive leadership (SL) and participative leadership (PL).

Statement scores will be tallied within each of the three leadership categories. Instrumental leadership (IL) is comprised of 6 items with a total score of 30. Supportive leadership (SL) has 9 items and a total score of 45. Participative leadership (PL) has 5 items and a total score of 25. The total score range for the PLBS is a possible 20 to 100. Higher scores

will indicate respondents' perceptions of higher levels of instrumental, supportive and participative leadership.

In a sample of 171 industrial salespeople, Teas (1981) reported co-efficient alphas of .84, .51, and .82 for supportive, instrumental, and participative leadership, respectively. Silverthorne (2001) also achieved reliability and stability using the PLBS in a test-retest scenario, resulting in an overall .77 score of internal consistency, without IL, SL and PL subscale results. Coefficient alphas will be used in this research study to establish internal consistency for each of the three PLBS leadership style subscales.

Huang (2004) established construct validity for the PLBS by achieving results of more than 0.5 in his principal component factor analysis. Silverthorne (2001) compared the results of a group of managers' peer evaluations using a ten-point scale for each of the subscales, to the scores on the regular PLBS scales using the five-point rating scale and was able to establish concurrent validity of the PLBS. Since his correlations ranged from .49 for supportive leadership to .65 for participative leadership, and were significant at the $p < .05$ level, he concluded that the PLBS had "a reasonable level of validity" (Silverthorne, 2001, Instrumentation section, para. 3). In this research study, factor analysis for the PLBS total scale and subscales will be performed for additional construct validity.

Part 4: Workgroup Effectiveness

Description

To acquire a subjective rating of workgroup effectiveness, this research study will use the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute's Occupational Climate Survey (DEOCS), the *Perceived Workgroup Effectiveness Scale* (Part IV), which measures group members' perceptions of their groups' effectiveness (Salas, *et al.*, 2004). The *Perceived Workgroup*

Effectiveness component of the DEOCS instrument uses a five-point Likert-type scale for each of 12 positively-worded statements, where 1=totally disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=moderately agree, and 5=totally agree. The total score range is 12 to 60, where higher scores indicate better workgroup effectiveness (Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute [DEOMI], 2004).

Landis et al. (1988) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .87 using a sample size of 104, thereby assigning internal consistency for all items in the *Perceived Workgroup Effectiveness* scale. In their 1999 study with 1,968 participants, Knouse and Dansby (1999) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .89 for this scale. Both Landis et al. (1998) and Knouse & Dansby (1999) reported acceptable levels of construct validity for the DEOCS scale.

Ethical Considerations

An application will be submitted to Lynn University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) and data collection will begin once the researcher has obtained approval from the IRB. The researcher will administer the management project and the surveys, and will also collect and compile the data.

Prior to administering the management case assignment and survey, the instructor will explain to students that completion of their projects must take place within 45 minutes and that, they will then complete surveys which will take approximately 20 minutes. Further, the researcher will distribute surveys and ask participants to correctly answer all survey questions. The researcher will then collect all completed management case assignments and surveys at the end of the class session.

Data will be collected during a two to four-week period, after which time the researcher will immediately submit a Report of Termination (Form 8) to Lynn University's IRB. Collected data surveys will be kept in a locked file cabinet at the researcher's home for a period of three years, after which time they will be destroyed. Minimal risk to study participants will be involved in this research study.

Data Analysis Methods

The researcher will analyze the data collected from this study using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, Version 16.0. To answer the research question and test the hypotheses, data analysis methods will include descriptive statistics (frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and variability) and multiple regression analysis (Pearson correlations to test the relationships between the independent variables (cultural dimensions' tendencies and Path-Goal leadership styles) and the dependent variable (work group effectiveness) at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

Descriptive statistics, including frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and variability (such as the range and standard deviation) will be used to analyze the socio-demographic data. Each set of hypotheses is designed to score the tendency level (high or low) of one of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions (PDI, UAI, MAS, IDV, LTO) and the relationship of that cultural dimension to perceived leadership style and perceived workgroup effectiveness. The researcher will use multiple regression to examine each hypothesis and construct a regression model consisting of the five cultural variables (PDI, UAI, MAS, IDV, LTO) for the purpose of defining and analyzing the relationship of the tendency level of each cultural dimension to perceived leadership style and perceived workgroup effectiveness. Pearson correlation will also be used to determine the order of the tendency levels and their relationships to perceived leadership style and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

The researcher will test each survey instrument's internal validity and reliability using coefficient alpha and exploratory factor analyses. Cronbach's alphas will measure the reliability (consistency) of the items in each scale, testing for any inter-item associations. According to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994), Cronbach's alphas for all scales should exceed .70, and each of the scales adapted for this study have been found to have Cronbach's alphas above this level. Nonetheless, to confirm these results, the researcher will run this analysis for this study. Factor analyses will establish additional construct validity of the items in the scales used which, according to Hair, et al. (1998), should have factor loadings greater than .35 to be considered significant.

Evaluation of Research Methods

The researcher will examine the strengths and weaknesses of the research methodology used in this study to evaluate internal and external validity. Internal validity symbolizes the

confidence levels of the inferences of causal relationships between dependent and independent variables, while external validity represents the ability to generalize the results of a study and to later transfer those results to other populations elsewhere (Cavanna et al., 2001). In the next section, internal and external validity of this study's research methods are discussed.

Internal Validity

Strengths

1. Since this research is quasi-experimental in design, this study should produce a sound causal inference between the dependent and independent variables (Cavanna et al., 2001).
2. The instruments to be used in this research study have been tested and used in previous studies, and established as both reliable and valid. Only two of the instruments used in this study will be adapted from their original format, and the changes made are for clarification purposes only and do not materially alter any item.
3. Study participants will have no knowledge of the study's research question or hypotheses, increasing the likelihood of their responding to survey questions impartially.
4. The use of business students for this study's sample enhances the ability to generalize the results to businesses in South Florida and the Caribbean (Robertson & Hoffman, 2000; Wyld et al., 1993; and Triandis et al., 1988).
5. Study participants represent a random sample because, although they were enrolled in selected undergraduate and graduate management courses, the researcher had no knowledge of which students would be enrolled.
6. Sample participants are students who are accustomed to completing assignments in workgroups.
7. Sample participants represent three countries (U.S., Trinidad & Tobago, Barbados) which should assure a strong sample of different cultural dimensions.
8. Workgroup leaders will be randomly selected from each workgroup, eliminating possible selection bias.
9. The use of a short management case assignment which is read and completed in class assures that the workgroup will complete the entire assignment together.

Weaknesses

1. No pre-test, post-test methodology will be employed in this research.

External Validity

Strengths

1. A convenience sample of students from undergraduate and graduate management courses was chosen in order to observe the effects of individual cultural values on workgroup leaders' and members' perceptions of leaderships styles for workgroup effectiveness within the participants' actual environment.

Weaknesses

1. The results may not be generalizable due to the sample population's size of 314 students (Mundfrom, Shaw, & Lu Ke, 2005).
2. The results may not be generalizable to all parts of the world since the sample population's geographic area is restricted to South Florida.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In Chapter IV, the results of this quantitative, quasi-experimental, co-relational, causal-comparative research were examined to identify direct and indirect relationships between and among different dimensions of cultures, Path-Goal leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

In an effort to validate this study's hypotheses, several forms of data analysis were used, including descriptive and inferential statistics, regression analyses using the means of the independent variables, and analyses of z-scores.

Socio-Demographics

Data was collected on six campuses of five South Florida universities, with 320 students who were enrolled in undergraduate or graduate courses within English-language business programs. All participants were at least 18 years of age. Students in each course were randomly assigned to workgroups of four to six participants, depending upon the total number of students in the class. If instructors had already assigned students to workgroups for other projects or class-related activities, the researcher maintained the existing group infrastructures, unless the number of students participating in any workgroup fell below four.

To determine the leader of each workgroup, students were randomly selected. Within each group, members pulled pieces of paper from a box holding pieces of paper numbered from one to four, five, or six (depending on the workgroup size). The researcher then pulled a number from one to four, five, or six from another box. Students holding that same number became the leaders of their respective workgroups (i.e., all workgroup members with papers numbered "three" were assigned leadership positions in their workgroups). No student received any

guidance as to what being a workgroup leader meant. Students were informed that they were participating in research however, they were not informed of the study's research question or hypotheses so as not to prejudice any of the data collected and to ensure and maintain ethical considerations and data validity.

All workgroup members were given the same one-page management case study to complete. They were instructed to read the case and to arrive at workgroup "solutions" to two case questions. Once completed, workgroup "solutions" were collected by the researcher, who then gave all students surveys to complete. Students had 15-20 minutes to complete the surveys and were told to avoid putting any names or other identifying marks on the surveys so anonymity could be preserved. The entire time allotted for case work and survey completion in each class was 50-75 minutes, depending on the length of the class period.

Completed surveys were collected by the researcher. Of the 320 surveys filled out, 314 surveys (98%) were usable; 6 surveys were incomplete. All students in every class participated in the case analysis and responded to the survey, making the study's response rate 100%.

Although students were selected purposively from business courses at the five cooperating universities, workgroup participants and leaders were randomly selected. There was no specific methodology for placing students into workgroups and, if instructors had already assigned workgroups, the researcher did not have any influence in workgroup participant selection.

The descriptive statistics of study participants segmented by gender, race, ethnicity, educational level, and team participation experience revealed that this study's sample generally was representative of the general university population in South Florida. Study participants ranged in age from 18 to 62 and were born in 44 different countries. The sample was almost

equally divided among males and females with males at 45.6% and females at 55.4%. The largest racial group represented was Caucasian or White (64.3%), followed by Other (21.3%), Black or African-American (11.8%), Asian (1.9%), and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander (.6%). Regarding ethnicity, this study's sample was comprised of 61.1% Not Hispanic/Latinos and 38.9% Hispanic/Latino participants.

With respect to educational levels, the largest group of participants had completed a four-year college degree (35.4%). The second largest group had completed some college without attaining graduation (21.7%). Thirty-three participants (10.5%) had completed a graduate degree (MBA, MA, MS, or JD) beyond a four-year college degree. Forty-six participants (14.6%) had earned an Associates degree, and 51 (16.2%) had completed high school or earned their GED. The remainder (1.6%) had attained some form of professional training at the graduate level. Of the total number of participants, 303 (96.5%) had prior experience participating in workgroups, while 11 (3.5%) had never participated in a workgroup.

In Table 4-1 on the next page are descriptive statistics of the study's sample.

Table 4-1

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants (N=314)

| Demographic Variable | Valid Number | Percentage |
|--|--------------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 140 | 44.6 |
| Female | 174 | 55.4 |
| Total | 314 | 100.0 |
| Race | | |
| Indian or Alaska Native | 0 | 0.0 |
| Asian | 6 | 1.9 |
| Black or African-American | 37 | 11.8 |
| Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander | 2 | 0.6 |
| White | 202 | 64.3 |
| Other | | 21.3 |
| Total | 314 | 99.9 |
| Ethnicity | | |
| Hispanic/Latino | 122 | 38.9 |
| Not Hispanic/Latino | 192 | 61.1 |
| Total | 314 | 100.0 |
| Highest Educational Level Completed | | |
| Post-Graduate Degree | 0 | 0.0 |
| Graduate Degree | 33 | 10.5 |
| Graduate Professional Training | 5 | 1.6 |
| 4-Year College Graduate | 111 | 35.4 |
| 2-Year Associates Degree | 46 | 14.6 |
| Partial College | 68 | 21.7 |
| High School Graduate | 51 | 16.2 |
| Total | 314 | 100.0 |
| Prior Workgroup Participation | | |
| Yes | 303 | 96.5 |
| No | 11 | 3.5 |
| Total | 314 | 100.0 |

The next section discusses methods of data analysis as they relate to each of the stated hypotheses.

Methods of Data Analysis

Data collected from the sample population were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 16.0. Descriptive analysis, analysis of survey instrument items for internal consistency and reliability, and multiple regression analysis were used to analyze data collected for this study. Before beginning data analysis, the researcher coded all data gathered from study participants. Data collected for this study were coded with numbers for responses in the categories of gender, race, ethnicity, educational level, and workgroup participation experience, with each variable receiving a code name and number.

After coding all study data, the researcher evaluated the internal consistency and reliability of the items in each portion of the survey instrument. Each variable of the questionnaire contained multiple items measured using semantic differential rating scales of one through five. The internal consistencies of the multiple-item scales were estimated by calculating Cronbach's alphas.

According to Nunnally (1978, 1994) commonly used scales in the social sciences should demonstrate a satisfactory level of reliability with coefficient alphas of 0.70 or greater. Alternatively, Garson (2008) points out that, in the social sciences, coefficient alphas can also be considered reliable at 0.60 and higher. Hair *et al.* (1998) and Loehlin (1998) assert that, if research is investigative or experimental, as is this study, Cronbach's alpha values between 0.60 and 0.70 are generally considered acceptable.

Tests for internal consistency and reliability of the survey questions for each cultural dimension yielded acceptable results. Survey items for four of the five dimensions reported coefficient alphas above 0.70. Items for the Power Distance (PDI) dimension had a coefficient alpha of 0.613. Additionally, the researcher analyzed survey items within the Path-Goal

leadership style and workgroup effectiveness instruments to evaluate their internal reliability and consistency levels. Analysis of the leadership style instrument's survey items yielded a 0.91 Cronbach's alpha, and similar analysis of the Workgroup Effectiveness instrument yielded a coefficient alpha of 0.936. Results of these analyses can be found in Table 4-2 below.

Table 4-2
Cronbach's Alphas for Internal Reliability Consistency of Survey Instrument

| <i>Cultural Dimensions Section</i> | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------|------------------|
| Cultural Dimension | Survey Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Power Distance (PDI) | 5 | .613 |
| Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) | 5 | .796 |
| Individualism (IDV) | 6 | .727 |
| Masculinity (MAS) | 4 | .703 |
| Long-Term Orientation (LTO) | 6 | .718 |

| <i>Leadership Style Section</i> | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------|------------------|
| | Survey Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Leadership Style | 20 | .910 |

| <i>Workgroup Effectiveness Section</i> | | |
|--|--------------|------------------|
| | Survey Items | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Workgroup Effectiveness | 12 | .936 |

Data Analysis

In this section, the results of analyses of data for each of this study's hypotheses are presented. The researcher ran hierarchical multiple regression analyses of collected data for ten of the hypotheses and calculated z-score differences for the other five hypotheses. As discussed in chapter three, all hypotheses were designed to identify and validate relationships between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals demonstrating high or low tendencies of each of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions.

Segmenting the Sample

For each of the five cultural dimensions, participants were classified as having either “high” or “low” tendencies. A “high” tendency for a particular dimension was considered to be an average score for all survey items for that dimension of *greater than or equal to 3.0* while a “low” tendency was considered to be an average score for those same survey items of *less than 3.0*. Through these calculations, the “n” for each hypothesis was determined.

To test the hypotheses focused on groups of individuals with either “high” or “low” cultural dimension tendencies, multiple regression analyses were run to determine the adjusted r^2 values and Pearson correlation coefficients for each of the ten hypotheses. For regression analyses testing each hypothesis, individuals with the appropriate cultural dimension tendency comprised the sample, leadership style was the independent or “predictor” variable, and workgroup effectiveness was the dependent variable, effectively evaluating the correlation between leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness for each hypothesis’ targeted population.

To test the five hypotheses asserting that there would be statistically significant differences in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles with work group effectiveness for the “high” and “low” tendency groups for each cultural dimension, differences in z-scores were calculated. First, z-scores for each group of individuals with “high” and “low” cultural dimension tendencies were calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{z-score} = \text{LN}\{\text{ABS}[(\text{H/Lr}+1)/(\text{H/Lr}-1)]\}/2^{15}.$$

Then, the z-scores for the “high” and the “low” groups for each dimension were entered into the formula:

$$\text{z- the Difference} = (\text{Lz}-\text{Hz})/\text{B14}^{16}.$$

¹⁵ H/Lr: H refers to High tendency; L refers to Low tendency; r is the r^2 value

¹⁶ Lz is the Low z-score; Hz is the High z-score

Finally, a determination was made as to whether or not the z of the Difference was significant. The z of the Difference was considered significant at the $p = .05$ level if it is either above 1.96 (positive result) or below -1.96 (negative result) (Anderson et al., 2008; Garson, 2008).

In the following section, all of the hypotheses are restated, followed by presentation of results of data analysis.

Results

Hypotheses Regarding the Power Distance (PDI) Cultural Dimension

Hypothesis One: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.

Data from the 26 study participants classified as having high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies was utilized in the regression analysis for this hypothesis. Results of regression analysis of this data showed that Path-Goal leadership styles were correlated negatively with perceived workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of -3.4%. This means that Path-Goal leadership style explained 3.4% of the variation in perceived workgroup effectiveness for this group of individuals. A Pearson correlation of .088 for this regression analysis shows that this negative relationship was not statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis One was not supported. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z -score are in Table 4-3 on the next page.

Table 4-3

High Power Distance (PDI), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 26 | .008 | -.034 | .61220 | .088 | 1.354 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. p=.05

Hypothesis Two: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.

For this hypothesis data from the 288 study participants classified as having low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies were analyzed. Results of regression analysis of this data revealed that Path-Goal leadership styles were positively correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness, yielding an adjusted r^2 of 25.4%. A Pearson correlation of .507 for this regression analysis confirms that this result is statistically significant, supporting this study’s second hypothesis. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4

Low Power Distance (PDI), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|-----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 288 | .257 | .254 | .58978 | .507 | 1.354 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. p=.05

Hypothesis Three: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies and those with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies.

The z of the Difference between those individuals with high and low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies yielded a value of 1.354, which was not greater than 1.96 (Anderson et al., 2008; Garson, 2008). Because this finding is not statistically significant, Hypothesis Three is not supported.

Hypotheses Regarding the Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) Cultural Dimension

Hypothesis Four: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.

For this hypothesis, data from the 304 study participants classified as having high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies were analyzed. Analysis of this data showed that Path-Goal leadership styles were positively correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness with an adjusted r^2 of 23.7%. Thus, for people with high UAI tendencies, Path-Goal leadership styles explained nearly 24% of the variation in workgroup effectiveness. A Pearson correlation of .489 for this regression analysis showed, however, that the resulting positive relationship was not statistically significant at the $p=.05$ level. Thus, this hypothesis was not supported. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-5 below.

Table 4-5

High Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|-----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 304 | .240 | .237 | .59442 | .489 | -0.957 |

- Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- $p=.05$

Hypothesis Five: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.

For this hypothesis, data from the 10 study participants classified as having low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies were analyzed. Regression analysis of study data from these individuals showed that Path-Goal leadership styles were negatively correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of -12.4%. However, a Pearson correlation coefficient of .026 confirms that this relationship was not statistically significant at the $p=.05$ level. Thus, Hypothesis Five was not supported.

Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6

Low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 10 | .001 | -.124 | .41897 | .026 | -0.957 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Six: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies and those with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies.

The z of the Difference between those individuals with high and low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies yielded a value of -0.957, which is not less than -1.96 (Anderson et

al., 2008; Garson, 2008). Therefore, no statistically significant difference between the two groups was found and Hypothesis Six was rejected.

Hypotheses Regarding the Masculinity (MAS) Cultural Dimension

Hypothesis Seven: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies.

For this hypothesis, data from the 79 study participants classified as having high Masculine (MAS) tendencies were analyzed. Results of a regression analysis using this data revealed a positive, rather than a negative, relationship between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of 27.3% at the $p=.05$ level of significance. The Pearson's correlation coefficient of .532 indicated that this correlation was statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis Seven is rejected. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-7 below.

Table 4-7

High Masculinity (MAS), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 79 | .283 | .273 | .59025 | .532 | -0.490 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Eight: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies.

For this hypothesis, data from the 235 study participants classified as having low Masculine (MAS) tendencies were analyzed. Regression analysis of data from these study

participants revealed that Path-Goal leadership styles were positively correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness, yielding an adjusted r^2 of 21.2%. Thus, for individuals with low MAS tendencies, Path-Goal leadership styles explained 21.2% of the variation in perceived workgroup effectiveness. The Pearson's correlation coefficient of .464 indicated, however, that is relationship is not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis Eight is not supported. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8

Low Masculinity (MAS), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|-----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 235 | .216 | .212 | .59633 | .464 | -0.490 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Nine: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies and those with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies.

The z of the Difference between those individuals with high and low Masculine (MAS) tendencies yielded a value of -0.490, which is not less than -1.96 (Anderson et al., 2008; Garson, 2008). Therefore, no statistically significant difference between the two groups was found and Hypothesis Nine was rejected.

Hypotheses Regarding the Individualism (IDV) Cultural Dimension

Hypothesis Ten: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies.

For this hypothesis, data from the 258 study participants classified as having high Individualist (IDV) tendencies were analyzed. According to the results of regression analysis of data from these individuals, Path-Goal leadership styles were positively, rather than negatively, correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of 18.4%. However, the Pearson's correlation coefficient of .433 indicated that this relationship is not significantly significant. Therefore, Hypothesis Ten was not supported. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-9.

Table 4-9

High Individualism (IDV), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|-----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 258 | .187 | .184 | .60399 | .433 | 1.628 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Eleven: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies.

Regression analysis of data from the 56 study participants with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies, revealed a strong positive relationship between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of 40.7%. A Pearson's correlation coefficient of .646 confirmed that this relationship was statistically significant. These results showed that for "Collectivists" (people with low Individualist tendencies), Path-Goal leadership styles explained 40.7% of the variation in perceived work group effectiveness. Therefore, Hypothesis Eleven is supported. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-10.

Table 4-10

Low Individualism (IDV), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 56 | .417 | .407 | .52983 | .646 | 1.628 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Twelve: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies and those with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies.

The z of the Difference was 1.628, less than 1.96 (Anderson et al., 2008; Garson, 2008).

Therefore, no statistically significant difference between the two groups was found and Hypothesis Twelve was rejected.

Hypotheses Regarding the Long-Term Orientation (LTO) Cultural Dimension

Hypothesis Thirteen: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.

Three hundred and five study participants demonstrated high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. A regression analysis of data from these individuals demonstrated a positive relationship between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness with an adjusted r^2 of 24.6%. This showed that for high LTO tendency individuals, Path-Goal leadership styles explained 24.6% of the variation in workgroup effectiveness. A Pearson's correlation coefficient of .499 indicated, however, that this finding fell just short of being statistically significant. Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-11.

Table 4-11

High Long-Term Orientation (LTO), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|-----|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 305 | .249 | .246 | .58605 | .499 | -0.950 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Fourteen: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.

Only nine study participants were categorized as having low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. Results of a regression analysis of their data revealed that Path-Goal leadership styles were negatively correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness, with an adjusted r^2 of -14%. Thus, for low LTO tendency individuals, Path-Goal leadership styles explained 14% of the variation in negative workgroup effectiveness. However, a Pearson's correlation coefficient of -.048 showed that this finding was not statistically significant.

Therefore, Hypothesis Fourteen is rejected.

Results of the regression analysis and the corresponding z-score are in Table 4-12 below.

Table 4-12

Low Long-Term Orientation (LTO), Path-Goal Leadership Styles, and Workgroup Effectiveness

| N | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of Estimate | Pearson Correlation | z of the Difference |
|---|----------|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 9 | .002 | -.140 | .79613 | -.048 | -0.950 |

- a. Predictor variable: Leadership Style
- b. Dependent variable: Workgroup Effectiveness
- c. $p=.05$

Hypothesis Fifteen: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies and those with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies.

The z of the Difference between those individuals with high and low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies yielded a value of -0.950 which is not less than -1.96 (Anderson et al., 2008; Garson, 2008), meaning the difference in the correlations for the two groups is not statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis Fifteen is rejected.

Conclusion

In this chapter, a thorough explanation of the research process, including the acquisition of sample participants, use of the management case and survey instrument, and evaluation of collected data was presented. The results of analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics, analysis of internal consistency and reliability for survey items within each part of the survey instrument, multiple regression analyses, and calculation and analyses of z -scores and z of the Differences were presented.

Two of the fifteen hypotheses were supported by data analysis. Hypothesis Two stated that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. Regression analysis confirmed the positive relationship and Pearson's correlation demonstrated that the relationship was statistically significant. Hypothesis Eleven stated that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies.

Regression analysis confirmed the positive relationship and Pearson's correlation showed that the relationship was statistically significant.

Analysis of data for two of the remaining thirteen hypotheses yielded results that were just short of statistically significant. Hypothesis Four stated that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. Regression analysis confirmed the positive relationship but Pearson's correlation was .489, short of the .05 necessary to show that the relationship was statistically significant. Hypothesis Thirteen stated that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. Regression analysis confirmed the positive relationship but Pearson's correlation was .499, just shy of the .05 needed to show that the relationship was statistically significant.

The remaining eleven hypotheses were rejected, with two yielding opposing results. Hypothesis Seven stated that there would be a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies. Regression analysis showed that, in actuality, the resulting relationship was positive and Pearson's correlation did not show a statistically significant relationship. Conversely, Hypothesis Ten stated that there would be a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies. The result of the Regression Analysis showed a positive relationship and Pearson's correlation did not confirm a statistically significant relationship.

According to the z of the Difference, no statistically significant differences were found in the way groups of individuals with high or low tendencies within a particular cultural dimension perceived the correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness.

Table 4-13 on the following pages summarizes the results of this study's data analysis.

Table 4-13***Study Findings***

| Hypothesis | N | Regression Analysis | Pearson Correlation | Z of the Difference | Supported |
|--|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| H1: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | 26 | -3.4% | .088 | | No |
| H2: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | 288 | 25.4% | .507 | | Yes |
| H3: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies and those with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | 314 | | | 1.354 | No |
| H4: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | 304 | 23.7% | .489 | | No |
| H5: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | 10 | -12.4% | .026 | | No |
| H6: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies and those with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | 314 | | | -0.957 | No |
| H7: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | 79 | 27.3% | .532 | | No |
| H8: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | 235 | 21.2% | .464 | | No |

| Hypothesis | N | Regression Analysis | Pearson Correlation | Z of the Difference | Supported |
|---|-----|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------|
| H9: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies and those with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | 314 | | | -0.490 | No |
| H10: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | 258 | 18.4% | .433 | | No |
| H11: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | 56 | 40.7% | .646 | | Yes |
| H12: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies and those with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | 314 | | | 1.628 | No |
| H13: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | 305 | 24.6% | .499 | | No |
| H14: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | 9 | -14% | -.048 | | No |
| H15: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies and those with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | 314 | | | -0.950 | No |

Chapter V contains discussion of these research findings and how they relate to prior research and analysis. Additionally, along with implications for theory and practice, study limitations and recommendations for future research are presented.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Outcomes

With today's organizations moving toward more flattened hierarchies and employing workgroups to undertake departmental, organizational, and outcome-specific projects, groups of individuals are often assembled in teams based on technical expertise or experience. There is often little regard for cultural differences among workgroup members when assigning leadership roles. As demonstrated in other research projects, cultural differences within workgroups can impact workgroup effectiveness. Appropriate leadership skills and approaches are needed for culturally diverse workgroups to successfully achieve their objectives.

Most past research studies have focused on only two of this study's three variables—culture, leadership styles, and/or work group effectiveness. Thus, to develop reasonable hypotheses, the researcher examined the conclusions of these somewhat related research studies to form the basis for this study. Among the important findings used as the foundation for this particular research project were Hofstede's (1980) findings about the relationship between culture and leadership styles, work by Dutton and Jackson (1987) that confirmed the connection between culture and response to strategic business issues, and Schyns et al.'s (2008) conclusions regarding culture and perceptions of leader-member exchanges. Additional research by Hofstede (2001) confirmed that individuals from different cultural backgrounds may have different perceptions of leadership.

Intriguing research by Triandis (1995) revealed that culture influences an individual's values and that the perceived effectiveness of a particular leadership style is often determined by one's individual value set. A study by Walumbwa et al. (2007) found that specific cultural differences dictate individuals' responses to various leadership styles and that these cultural differences are based on differences in value sets. They indicate the importance of their research relative to explaining individual perceptions of leaders in cross-cultural surroundings.

Triandis (1990) suggested that the most significant dimension of all the world's cultures is Individualism (IDV)/Collectivism. He stated that "Collectivism has definite advantages for those social relationships that include small groups, such as family and co-workers, where people are dealing with face-to-face situations and with people they are going to be interacting with for a long time (Triandis, 1995)." In terms of this study, Triandis' argument suggests that there would be a positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness for those who demonstrate low Individualistic (IDV) tendencies and vice versa, as hypothesized and supported in this study (H10 and H11).

Research done by Euwema et al. (2007) supported one of their hypotheses that group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB) was correlated positively with supportive behavior, one of the Path-Goal leadership styles identified by House et al. (1996). However, they found no significant correlations between Hofstede's (1980) societal-level cultural dimensions and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB).

Research conducted by Eby and Dobbins (1997) identified a link between Hofstede's (1980) Individualist/Collectivistic (IDV) cultural dimension and cooperative

team behaviors. Stashevsky and Koslowsky (2006) found that statistically significant correlations between team cohesiveness and team performance, in terms of in task commitment, interpersonal attraction, and group pride, were mitigated by perceived leadership style.

There is a significant body of literature focused on socio-demographic diversity and workgroup effectiveness. Bolman and Deal (1992) pointed out that “diversity gives a team a competitive edge” and that preserving myth, ritual, and ceremony (cultural attributes) improve teamwork. A management team made up of diverse backgrounds can significantly influence strategic effectiveness according to Milliken and Vollrath (1991). Research conducted by Dixon and Hart (in press) shows that diversity has been found to both promote and hinder workgroup effectiveness and that leadership style can positively influence outcomes. They ascertained that certain variations among workgroup members could cause impediments that negatively impact workgroup performance.

There are several theoretical frameworks for evaluating workgroup diversity, including socio-economic and cultural. This research study focused on cultural diversity, building upon a growing body of literature focused on this area. There are an increasing number of research studies centered on identifying potential relationships between and among particular cultural dimensions and various aspects of management and/or decision-making. Byrne and Bradley (2007) concluded from their research that leadership styles are quite different, and that cultural values are more influential than personal values in terms of their effect on leadership style.

In terms of leadership, managers can become “change agents” by adopting a global vision and identifying areas of cohesion that will impact group behavior (Euwema

et al., 2007). Silverthorne (2000) found that a leader's adaptability level can radically improve an organization's productivity by impacting employee absenteeism, turnover rate, profits, and quality. Walumbwa et al., (2004) noted that collective efficacy produced a direct relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes. Additionally, links between transformational leadership and efficacy beliefs jointly influence relationships and employees' work-related attitudes (Walumbwa et al., 2005).

Practical Implications

Prior to this study, there existed a gap in the literature regarding assessment of potential correlations between leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness among individuals with different cultural tendencies. What had never before been analyzed in depth are the potential relationships between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness as perceived by workgroup members and leaders demonstrating different tendencies of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions.

The significant implications for managers and academicians interested in enhancing workgroup performance is that Path-Goal leadership styles were found to be significantly correlated with perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals demonstrating low Power Distance (PDI), high Masculinity (MAS), and low Individualist (IDV) tendencies. Additionally, this study identified strong, but not statistically significant, correlations between Path-Goal leadership styles and work group effectiveness for individuals demonstrating high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), low Masculinity (MAS), high Individualist (IDV), and high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies (regression analyses resulted in Pearson correlation scores greater than .425 for all of these relationships). These findings underscore the importance of Path-Goal

leadership styles for workgroup effectiveness for seven of ten cultural dimension tendency subgroups of individuals studied. This demonstrates to management and leadership experts the importance of ensuring that workgroup leaders are properly trained in Path-Goal leadership styles in order to promote positive work group outcomes for those groups whose members demonstrate these seven cultural dimension tendencies.

This research anticipated the identification of distinct differences in the correlations between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness depending on work group members' and leaders' tendencies in each of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions. Additionally, statistically significant disparities in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness were expected between groups of individuals demonstrating high and low tendencies of each of the five particular cultural dimensions. However, in general, these significant differences were not found.

This study was of great interest to the researcher because, while there have been past studies focusing on several of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions and different aspects of management, leadership, and work group effectiveness, there exists no single study incorporating all five of the cultural dimensions. There are also no published studies that focus on all five of Hofstede's cultural dimensions combined with the dependent variables of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness.

Limitations

This quasi-experimental investigation was the first of its kind to examine the relationship between and among individual cultural dimensions, Path-Goal leadership

styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness. Results of this study are valuable for both academic experts and organizational leaders. However, the sample and structure of this study did present certain limitations.

- Because reliable survey instruments were adopted which had been used in prior research and the research design was quasi-experimental, no pre-test/post-test methodology was used. However, had pre or post-test methodology been used, study participants' responses might have been skewed based on their knowledge of the research topic, possibly affecting the integrity of the data.
- A larger sample may have yielded more robust results, particularly for those subgroups with few individuals demonstrating a particular cultural dimension tendency used to test some of this study's hypotheses.
- This study looked at the three Path-Goal leadership styles as a group, rather than analyzing the correlations among specific Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for each subgroup of the study's sample. Separating the leadership styles into three distinct sets of analyses may have yielded more dramatic results.
- Results of this study may not be generalizable to populations outside of South Florida. Although the sample included participants from many different countries and from various regions of the United States, all study participants sampled were attending universities in South Florida. According to Robertson and Hoffman (2000), an entirely U.S. sample cannot be generalized to populations outside the United States because of laws and social norms that might influence personal and cultural values.

- This study was based solely on Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions rather than incorporating additional dimensions formulated by Trompenaars (1994) and/or House *et al.* (1996). Using other existing frameworks by Trompenaars and/or House *et al.* may have yielded different results.
- The study used the Cultural Dimensions Survey (Yoo & Donthu, 2002) as the instrument for measuring individual's tendencies within each of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions. Using other existing instruments to evaluate individuals' cultural tendencies may have yielded different results.
- Three distinct instruments were used to gather data for this study. Although each of the three instruments used Likert-type scales from one to five, it is possible that internal validity might somehow have been affected and the overall outcome jeopardized if study participants became confused during the course of answering survey questions.
- Although use of students as study participants and for the purpose of developing an emerging construct has been found to be appropriate and justifiable (Robertson and Hoffman, 2000; Wyld *et al.*, 1993; and Triandis *et al.*, 1985, 1988), research conclusions might have been perceived as more broadly generalizable had this study's sample included business people from a variety of industries.
- Because small numbers of study participants demonstrated certain cultural dimension tendencies, conclusions from data analysis for hypotheses one, five, and fourteen may be considered weak.

Recommendations for Future Study

This study was confined to evaluating the relationships between perceived Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals demonstrating different cultural dimension tendencies, using a research instrument comprised of four distinct sections, directed at four to six-member workgroups. Workgroup members were given a management case to solve and the questionnaire to complete during a one-hour period. The scope of the entire study took place over a four-week period. Future research might address the following suggestions:

1. Replicate this study using the same research instrument to analyze the potential relationships between Path-Goal leadership sub-styles - *Directive*, *Supportive*, *Participative* (House & Dessler, 1974) – and perceived workgroup effectiveness for each of Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions, and compare the results to other leadership styles – *Autocratic*, *Bureaucratic*, *Laissez-faire*, and *Democratic* (Lewin, 1939).
2. Conduct a similar study, adding other leadership styles to data collection and analysis.
3. Repeat this study with a larger sample that includes both students and experienced workers.
4. Repeat this study with a sample that includes participants from outside South Florida to validate these research findings.
5. Modify this study to incorporate cultural dimensions using the theoretical frameworks developed by Trompenaars (1990) and/or House et al. (1996).

6. Modify this study to incorporate other survey instruments to evaluate participants' cultural dimension tendencies within Hofstede's (1980) framework.

Conclusions

Based on past research by Hofstede (1980) and others, this study had projected the following results:

- A statistically significant negative correlation among individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies and a statistically significant difference between the study's samples of individuals with high and low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies,
- A statistically significant negative correlation among individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies and a statistically significant difference between the study's samples of individuals with high and low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies,
- A statistically significant difference between the study's samples of individuals with high and low Masculine (MAS) tendencies,
- A statistically significant difference between the study's samples of individuals with high and low Individualistic (IDV) tendencies, and
- A statistically significant negative correlation among individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies and a statistically significant difference between the study's samples of individuals with high and low Long-Term Orientation (LTO).

Upon completion of data analysis, for many hypotheses, substantially different results were found. In fact, analysis of data for groups of individuals with high

Masculinity (MAS) and high Individualistic (IDV) tendencies actually revealed strong correlations in the opposite direction than was anticipated. Additionally, correlations between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness had Pearson correlations greater than .425 for four other groups of individuals. These groups were: high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI), low Masculinity (MAS), high Individualism (IDV), and high Long-Term Orientation (LTO).

Walumbwa et al.'s (2007) cross-cultural study examining connections among cultural values, leadership styles, and employee attitudes, determined that, in general, those individuals who demonstrated higher Individualistic (IDV) tendencies were drawn to leaders who exhibited transactional behavior whereas, those individuals demonstrating lower Individualistic tendencies gravitated more toward those leaders who exhibited transformational behavior. Although their research pertained to only one of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions, Individualism (IDV), their findings can be paralleled to those of this study's results. In the same way that Walumbwa et al.'s (2007) research found a negative correlation between transformational leadership styles and employee attitudes for those demonstrating high Individualistic (IDV) tendencies, this study found a negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for those demonstrating high Individualistic (IDV) tendencies. Further, as Walumbwa et al.'s (2007) research demonstrated a positive correlation between transformational leadership styles and employee attitudes for those with low Individualistic (IDV) tendencies, this study found a positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for the same cultural tendency subgroup.

Barkema and Vermeulen (1997) found that variations in cultural backgrounds of international joint ventures' partners caused difficulties within these organizations and that certain cultural variations, specifically involving Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO), are more problematic for managers than others. Within the context of Barkema and Vermeulen's (1997) research, Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) promote reluctance to establish and unwillingness to sustain international joint ventures, indicating that individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies would be reluctant to enter into an international joint venture and that individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies would be disinclined to support activities that would perpetuate the continued existence of an international joint venture. Within the context of this research, individuals exhibiting high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies would embrace Path-Goal leadership styles and individuals exhibiting high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies would deem Path-Goal leadership styles an essential component to workgroup effectiveness. As noted in Table 4-13, Study Findings, both results of analysis for data collected for hypotheses four (high UAI) and thirteen (high LTO) found correlations that fell just short of being statistically significant.

Surprisingly, there were no statistically significant differences in the perceived value of Path-Goal leadership styles for workgroup effectiveness between subgroups of individuals demonstrating high and low tendencies within each cultural dimension.

Table 5-1 on the next page, shows the results of this research as they relate to past research findings.

Table 5-1***Study Findings in Relation to Past Research***

| Study Hypothesis | Supported - Pearson | Past Research |
|--|----------------------------|---|
| H1: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | No .088 | |
| H2: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | Yes .507 | Walumbwa et al. (2007): specific cultural differences dictate individuals' responses to various leadership styles and these cultural differences are based on differences in value sets; individual perceptions of leaders in cross-cultural surroundings Euwema et al. (2007): strongly Individualistic (IDV) societies with low levels of Power Distance (PDI) showed a negative correlation between the directive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB) and a positive correlation between the supportive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB) |
| H3: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Power Distance (PDI) tendencies and those with low Power Distance (PDI) tendencies. | No | |
| H4: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | No .489 | Barkema and Vermeulen (1997): Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) promotes reluctance to establish international joint ventures, indicating that individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies would be reluctant to enter into an international joint venture |

| Study Hypothesis | Supported - Pearson | Past Research |
|--|------------------------|---|
| H5: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | No .026 | |
| H6: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies and those with low Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) tendencies. | No | (Walumbwa et al., 2005): links between transformational leadership and efficacy beliefs jointly influence relationships and employees' work-related attitudes |
| H7: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | No .532 | |
| H8: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | No .464 | |
| H9: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Masculine (MAS) tendencies and those with low Masculine (MAS) tendencies. | No | |

| Study Hypothesis | Supported - Pearson | Past Research |
|--|---------------------|--|
| H10: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | No .433 | <p>Triandis (1995): there is a negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and workgroup effectiveness for those who demonstrate high Individualistic (IDV) tendencies</p> <p>Walumbwa et al. (2007): individuals who demonstrated higher Individualistic (IDV) tendencies were drawn to leaders who exhibited transactional behavior</p> <p>Euwema et al. (2007): strongly Individualistic (IDV) societies with low levels of Power Distance (PDI) showed a negative correlation between the directive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB) and a positive correlation between the supportive style of Path-Goal leadership and group organizational citizenship behavior (GOCB)</p> |
| H11: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | Yes .646 | <p>Triandis (1995): Collectivism has definite advantages for those social relationships that include small groups, such as family and co-workers, where people are dealing with face-to-face situations and with people they are going to be interacting with for a long time</p> <p>Walumbwa et al. (2007): those individuals demonstrating lower Individualistic tendencies gravitated more toward those leaders who exhibited transformational behavior</p> <p>Stashevsky and Koslowsky (2006): statistically significant correlations between team cohesiveness and team performance, in terms of in task commitment, interpersonal attraction, and group pride, were mitigated by perceived leadership style</p> |

| Study Hypothesis | Supported - Pearson | Past Research |
|---|---------------------|--|
| H12: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Individualist (IDV) tendencies and those with low Individualist (IDV) tendencies. | No | Eby and Dobbins (1997): link between Hofstede's (1980) Individualist/Collectivistic (IDV) cultural dimension and cooperative team behaviors |
| H13: There is a statistically significant positive correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | No .499 | |
| H14: There is a statistically significant negative correlation between Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness for individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | No -.048 | Barkema and Vermeulen (1997): Long-Term Orientation (LTO) promotes unwillingness to sustain international joint ventures, indicating that individuals with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies would be disinclined to support activities that would perpetuate the continued existence of an international joint venture |
| H15: There is a statistically significant difference in the correlations of Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived work group effectiveness of individuals with high Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies and those with low Long-Term Orientation (LTO) tendencies. | No | Walumbwa et al., (2004): collective efficacy produced a direct relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes |

This study attempted to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the effects of culture on perceived Path-Goal leadership styles and perceived workgroup effectiveness. Chapter V discussed research analysis, results, and conclusions as they relate to the study's hypotheses. The limitations of this study were delineated, the implications for theory and practice were outlined, recommendations for future study were detailed, and conclusions from data analysis were presented within the context of past research findings.

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Appendix A

Survey Instruments

Part 1: Socio-Demographic Information

Directions: Please write in your answer for each of the following:

1. Please indicate your **age** in years _____
2. Please indicate the **country** where you were born _____
3. Please indicate in years, how long you have been living in the **country** where you **presently reside** _____

Directions: For the following, please check **only one** response for each item.

Gender (*Check one*):

1. ☐ Male
2. ☐ Female

Race (*Check one*)

1. ☐ Indian or Alaska Native
2. ☐ Asian
3. ☐ Black or African American
4. ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
5. ☐ White
6. ☐ Other _____ (please write in your race here)

Ethnicity (*Check one*)

1. ☐ Hispanic/Latino
2. ☐ Not Hispanic/Latino

The highest level of education completed: (*Check one*):

1. ☐ Post-Graduate Degree (PhD, DBA)
2. ☐ Graduate Degree (MBA, MA, MS, JD)
3. ☐ Graduate Professional Training (ME, MD, DDS, LLD)
4. ☐ Four-Year college graduate (BA, BS)
5. ☐ Two-Year Associates Degree (AA, AS)
6. ☐ Partial College (One to three years of college or business school)
7. ☐ High school graduate

Have you ever participated on a team before? (*Check one*):

1. ☐ Yes
2. ☐ No

Part 2: Cultural Dimensions

Instructions: For each of the following statements, show the extent to which you agree or disagree. Please respond to all statements by checking the box that best represents your response. There *are no right or wrong* responses.

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Rules/regulation are important because they inform me of what is expected of me | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Standardized work procedures are helpful | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Instructions for operations are important | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Group welfare is more important than individual rewards | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Group success is more important than individual success | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usual solve problems with intuition | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Instructions: For each of the following statements, show how important or unimportant you think it is. Please respond to all statements by checking the box that best represents your response. There *are no right or wrong* responses.

| | Extremely unimportant | Unimportant | Neither unimportant nor important | Important | Extremely important |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Careful management of money (thrift) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Going on resolutely in spite of opposition | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Personal steadiness and stability | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Long-term planning | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Giving up today's fun for success in the future | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Working hard for success in the future | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Source: Yoo, B. & Donthu, N. (2002). Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(3), 388-389. Adapted with permission.

Part 3a: Perceived Leadership Behavior Scales (PLBS) for Workgroup Members

Directions: Please respond to the following items regarding the frequency of the *behavior by your workgroup leader*. Check **only one box** for each statement:

| | Never | Seldom | Occasionally | Often | Always |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| He/she lets group members know what is expected of them. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she decides what shall be done and how it shall be done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she makes sure that his part in the group is understood. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she schedules the work to be done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she maintains definite standards of performance. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she asks that the group members follow standard rules and regulations. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she is friendly and polite. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she puts suggestions made by the group into operation. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she treats all group members as his equals. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she gives advance notice of changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she looks out for the personal welfare of group members. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she is willing to make changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she helps me overcome problems which stop me from carrying out my task. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she helps me make working on my tasks more pleasant. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| When faced with a problem, he/she consults with his subordinates. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Before making decisions, he/she gives serious consideration to what subordinates have to say. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she asks subordinates for their suggestions concerning how to carryout assignments. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Before taking action he/she consults with his subordinates. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| He/she asks subordinates for suggestions on what assignments should be made. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Source: "Handbook of Marketing Scales: Multi-item Measures for Marketing and Consumer Behavior Research" by House and G. Dessler, p. 305. Copyright 1993 by Sage Publications. Adopted with permission.

Part 3b: Perceived Leadership Behavior Scales (PLBS) for Leaders

Directions: Please respond to the following statements regarding the frequency of *your own behavior*. Check **only one box** for each statement:

| | Never | Seldom | Occasionally | Often | Always |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I let group members know what I expect of them. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I decide what shall be done and how it shall be done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I make sure that my part in the group is understood. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I schedule the work to be done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I maintain definite standards of performance. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I ask that the group members follow standard rules and regulations. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am friendly and polite. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I put suggestions made by the group into operation. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I treat all group members as my equals. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I give advance notice of changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I look out for the personal welfare of group members. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am willing to make changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I help team members to overcome problems which stop them from carrying out their task. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I help team members make working on their tasks more pleasant. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| When faced with a problem, I consult with my subordinates. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Before making decisions, I give serious consideration to what subordinates have to say. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I ask subordinates for their suggestions concerning how to carryout assignments. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Before taking action I consult with my subordinates. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I ask subordinates for suggestions on what assignments should be made. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Source: "Handbook of Marketing Scales: Multi-item Measures for Marketing and Consumer Behavior Research" by House and G. Dessler, p. 305. Copyright 1993 by Sage Publications. Adapted with permission.

Part 4: Workgroup Effectiveness Scales (DEOCS)

Directions: Please respond to the following statements regarding the *effectiveness of your workgroup*.

| | Totally Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Moderately Agree | Totally Agree |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The amount of output of my workgroup is very high. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The quality of output of my workgroup is very high. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The people in my workgroup do an outstanding job in handling high priority situations (such as short deadlines, crash programs or schedules changes). | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| My workgroup's performance in comparison to similar workgroups is very high. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| My workgroup works well together as a team. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Members of my workgroup pull together to get the job done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Members of my workgroup really care about each other. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Members of my workgroup trust each other. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The leader of my workgroup works well with team members. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The leader of my workgroups pulls together with team members to get the job done. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The leader of my workgroup really cares about the team members. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| The leader of my workgroup trusts the team members. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Source: "Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (DEOCS)" by Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI), 1990, Part IV. Adopted with permission.

Appendix B

Permissions

Appendix B
Cultural Dimensions Instrument

From: Naveen Donthu [REDACTED] >
Sent: 02/27/2007 1:45:32 PM
To: Alison Rampersad
Subject: Re: Researcher Wanting to Use Your Survey Instrument

As I mentioned in my original reply, you may certainly use or adapt any of the scales that are already published.

Dear Dr. Donthu:

I had contacted you back in September 2007 requesting permission to use your cultural survey instrument in my dissertation (see my original e-mail below). When I contacted you, I used my personal e-mail address rather than my university address. I am re-requesting so as to have an official record of permission. Thank you so much for your time and attention.

Sincerely,

Alison Rampersad

Dr. A. Rampersad
College of Business & Management
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
Tel: [REDACTED]
e-Mail: [REDACTED]

From: Naveen Donthu [REDACTED]
Sent: Thu 9/13/2007 1:45 PM
To: A.L. Rampersad
Subject: Re: Researcher Wanting to Use Your Survey Instrument

i have no problem with you using/adopting any of the published scales.

naveen donthu

katherine s. bernhardt research professor
and professor of marketing
robinson college of business
35 broad st, suite 1335
georgia state university, atlanta, ga 30303 usa

phone: [REDACTED] (work); [REDACTED] (home)
fax: [REDACTED] (work); [REDACTED] (efax)

email: [REDACTED]

web: www.gsu.edu/~mktnd or www.donthu.com

>>> "A.L. Rampersad" [REDACTED] 9/13/2007 10:36 AM >>>

Dear Dr. Donthu:

I am faculty in the College of Business and Management at Lynn University in Boca Raton, FL, and am presently working on my dissertation about the effects of cultural implications on perceived service quality and customer satisfaction in the retail banking sector. I've read most of your work and have cited you in my work. I would like permission to adopt your survey instrument to use in my research.

I am also co-authoring a journal publication about the cultural impact on perceived service quality in the discount retail industry and we would like permission to use your survey instrument in that endeavor as well.

Please feel free to contact me at my office [REDACTED] or at my home [REDACTED].
Thank you for your kind attention.

Sincerely,

Alison Rampersad

[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]
Tel: [REDACTED]
Fax: [REDACTED]

Appendix B

Perceived Leadership Behavior Scale (PLBS)

From: Hutchinson, Adele [REDACTED]
Sent: 2/29/2008, 3:59 PM
To: Alison Rampersad
Subject: Permission Request for Dissertation

Dear Ms. Rampersad,

Thank you for your request. Please consider this written permission to use/adapt the Perceived Leadership Behavior scales for use in your dissertation. Proper attribution to the original source should be included. This permission does not include any 3rd party material found within our work. Please contact us for any future usage or publication of your dissertation.

Best,
Adele

Adele Hutchinson
Permissions/Contracts Assistant
Sage Publications
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, CA 91320
Phone: [REDACTED]
Fax: [REDACTED]
Email: [REDACTED]

Appendix B

Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (DEOCS)

From: Scarpate, Jerry C Mr Civ USAF AFSPC DEOMI/J-9B DEPUTY RESEARCH
To: Alison Rampersad
Sent: Tue 3/21/2008 2:21 PM
Subject: RE: Permission to Use DEOCS for Doctoral Dissertation
You have permission to use or adapt the DEOCS for your doctoral dissertation research. Best of luck.

From: Alison Rampersad Sent: Fri 3/14/2008 10:22 AM
To: Scarpate, Jerry C Mr Civ USAF AFSPC DEOMI/J-9B DEPUTY RESEARCH
Cc:
Subject: RE: Permission to Use DEOCS for Doctoral Dissertation
Attachments: Permission 2 - DEOCS.docx(20KB)

Good morning, Jerry. Attached is the letter you requested. If you need anything else, just let me know. Thank you for your cooperation.
Alison

Dr. A. Rampersad
College of Business & Management
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
Tel: [REDACTED]
e-Mail: [REDACTED]

From: Scarpate, Jerry C Mr Civ USAF AFSPC DEOMI/J-9B DEPUTY RESEARCH
[REDACTED]
Sent: Thu 3/13/2008 8:40 AM
To: Alison Rampersad
Subject: RE: Permission to Use DEOCS for Doctoral Dissertation

Alison,

First, pardon the delay in responding - your email apparently was initially lost.

Thanks for your interest in using the DEOCS. We support all research related to its employment. However, I will need to discuss with you the parameters for its usage. Rather than converse by email (which has its limitations), I invite you to give me a call. Please

call me at [REDACTED] anytime Monday-Friday 8:00 AM to 4:00 PM.

Again, thanks for considering the DEOCS and I look forward to our discussions.

-----Original Message-----

From: Alison Rampersad [mailto:[REDACTED]]

Sent: Monday, February 25, 2008 9:21 AM

To: Scarpate, Jerry C Mr Civ USAF AFSPC DEOMI/J-9B DEPUTY RESEARCH

Subject: Permission to Use DEOCS for Doctoral Dissertation

Dear Mr. Scarpate, I have attached a letter requesting permission to use the DEOCS in my doctoral dissertation. Thank you for your kind attention.

Dr. A. Rampersad
College of Business & Management
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail
Boca Raton, FL 33431
Tel: [REDACTED]
e-Mail: [REDACTED]

Appendix B

Permission to Conduct Research – Hodges University

From: Frederick A Nerone [REDACTED] Sent: Wed 7/16/2008 2:56 PM
To: Alison Rampersad
Cc: Joseph Heinzman; Diane M Ball
Subject: Research at Hodges University
Attachments:

Dr. Rampersad,

Consider this email as documentation of my approval for you to conduct your research project in the Hodges University Johnson School of Business in accordance with your proposal and the understanding you reached with Dr. Joseph Heinzman.

Please give my best regards to Dean Norcio, who is a long-time friend and colleague.

Frederick Nerone, Ph.D.
Dean - The Kenneth Oscar Johnson School of Business
Hodges University
Naples, Florida
[REDACTED]

Appendix C

Voluntary Consent Form



Lynn University

**THIS DOCUMENT SHALL ONLY BE USED TO PROVIDE AUTHORIZATION
FOR VOLUNTARY CONSENT**

PROJECT TITLE: Culture as a Mitigating Factor in the Perception of Path-Goal Leadership Styles and Workgroup Effectiveness

Project IRB Number: _____ Lynn University 3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

I, Alison Rampersad, am a doctoral student at Lynn University. I am studying Global Leadership, with a Corporate/Institutional specialization. One of my degree requirements is to conduct a research study.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE PARTICIPANT:

You are being asked to participate in my research study. Please read this carefully. This form provides you with information about the study. The Principal Investigator (Alison Rampersad or her representative if applicable) will answer all of your questions. Ask questions about anything you don't understand before deciding whether or not to participate. You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this study. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age, and that you do not have medical problems or language or educational barriers that preclude understanding of explanations contained in this authorization for voluntary consent.

PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY: This research proposes to answer the following questions:

1. Will individuals with different cultural characteristics perceive the effectiveness of leadership styles on workgroup effectiveness differently?

The intent of this research is to show causality between culture, perceived leadership styles, and perceived workgroup effectiveness. This research will also show significant difference by cultural dimension in perception of leadership style and significant difference by cultural dimension in perception of workgroup effectiveness.

PROCEDURES:

The experimental portion of the research involves the assignment of a management case assignment, with expected outcomes, to students enrolled in management classes. This portion of the research will last for approximately 70 minutes. An identical project will be administered to all classes, regardless of university or location, by the researcher, who has been using similar projects in university management courses for 7 years. Deception will be involved.

Classes will be randomly divided into teams of 4-6 students. Each team member will then randomly choose a number and every student who selects the same number across the total number of teams will be the team leader.

Once the project is completed, paper surveys will be administered by the researcher. The demographic section will be filled out by all participating in the research and will include questions about gender, race, age, highest educational level completed, country of origin, ethnicity, duration of time lived in their present country, and prior team participation. Workgroup members will be administered a questionnaire asking them to evaluate their perceptions of the leader's style in terms of appropriateness and effectiveness. Workgroup leaders will be administered a questionnaire asking them to evaluate their perceptions of their own leadership style and effectiveness. Both workgroup leaders and workgroup members will be asked their perceptions of whether or not the workgroup was effective, and to what degree, in the completion of the project.

POSSIBLE RISKS OR DISCOMFORT: This study involves minimal risk. In addition, participation in this study requires a minimal amount of your time and effort.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS: There may be no direct benefit to you in participating in this research. But knowledge may be gained which may help to establish whether culture is directly tied to perceptions of leadership style and how it may affect perceptions of workgroup effectiveness.

FINANCIAL CONSIDERATIONS: There is no financial compensation for your participation in this research. There are no costs to you as a result of your participation in this study.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: You are free to choose whether or not to participate in this study. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled if you choose not to participate.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS/ACCESS TO CONSENT FORM: Any further questions you have about this study or your participation in it, either now or any time in the future, will be answered by Alison Rampersad (Principal Investigator) who may be

reached at: [REDACTED] and Dr. Laura Hart, faculty advisor who may be reached at [REDACTED]. For any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may call Dr. Farideh Frazmand, Chair of the Lynn University Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, at [REDACTED]. If any problems arise as a result of your participation in this study, please call the Principal Investigator (Alison Rampersad) and the faculty advisor (Dr. Laura Hart) immediately.
A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

AUTHORIZATION FOR VOLUNTARY CONSENT:

I have read and understand this consent form. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been assured that any future questions that may arise will be answered. I understand that all aspects of this project will be carried out in the strictest of confidence, and in a manner in which my rights as a human subject are protected. I have been informed of the risks and benefits. I have been informed in advance as to what my task(s) will be and what procedures will be followed.

I voluntarily choose to participate. I know that I can withdraw this consent to participate at any time without penalty or prejudice. I understand that by signing this form I have not waived any of my legal rights. I further understand that nothing in this consent form is intended to replace any applicable Federal, state, or local laws. I understand that I will receive a copy of this form.

Participant's printed name

Participant's signature

Date

INVESTIGATOR'S AFFIDAVIT: I have carefully explained to the subject the nature of the above project. The person participating has represented to me that he/she is at least 18 years of age, and that he/she does not have a medical problem or language or educational barrier that precludes his/her understanding of my explanation. I hereby certify that to the best of my knowledge the person who is signing this consent form understands clearly the nature, demands, benefits, and risks involved in his/her participation and his/her signature is legally valid.

Signature of Investigator

Date of IRB Approval: _____

Appendix D
Management Case Assignment & Instructions

It is 2008 and We-Lend Financial Corp. (a credit union) is in trouble. This is a time when many mortgage lenders are in financial difficulty. We-Lend holds many 30-year mortgages at low fixed interest rates in its loan portfolio, however sub-prime mortgage lenders have caused the industry to be on the verge of collapse. We-Lend is faced with the following dilemma:

- Interest rates in general have gone up,
- The interest rate that We-Lend receives on its old mortgages (mostly 30-year fixed rate) remains low,
- Credit markets have tightened,
- The housing market in the U.S. is soft, and housing prices continue to decline,
- We-Lend has to remain competitive and pay out higher interest rates to its deposit customers or they will take their business elsewhere,
- We-Lend has negative cash flow until interest rates fall below the rates in its current mortgage portfolio, and
- If We-Lend does nothing differently, it faces the prospect of going out of business.

In real value terms, We-Lend is bankrupt, but according to the rules of accounting, We-Lend owns many homes in foreclosure that are considered assets, so We-Lend is allowed to continue to operate and is faced with two strategic choices:

1. Conservative: It can wait and hope interest rates fall before it is declared bankrupt and is closed down, or
2. Aggressive: It can raise new deposits, sell additional fixed-rate mortgages, and make riskier loans to customers with lower credit scores at higher interest rates to bring in additional revenue to pay depositors.

Risky loans promise high payoffs, if they are repaid. But, if We-Lend continues to lose money and is eventually forced to close its doors, the FDIC¹⁷ will be forced to pay depositors, burdening all U.S. taxpayers. If We-Lend's aggressive strategy pays off, the company will stay in business.

Waiting for lower interest rates and shutting its doors early if those rates do not materialize is certainly in the best interest of the FDIC and of U.S. taxpayers. But the manager of We-Lend may have more immediate responsibilities: employees' jobs, mortgage customers, depositors, the local neighborhood, and his or her job. As in a typical credit union company, We-Lend's depositors are its shareholders and they vote according to how much money they have in accounts with We-Lend. If We-Lend closes, depositors may lose some, but not all, of their money, because their deposits are insured by the FDIC. There is no other provider of home mortgages in the immediate area.

Presume you are part of We-Lend's top management team and have to answer the following questions that will direct We-Lend's strategy for the foreseeable future. As a workgroup, write your answers to the following questions:

1. Which stakeholders are most important to your management team?

¹⁷ The Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) is an independent agency of the United States' federal government that insures single-account bank deposits up to \$100,000 and multi-account holders at the same institution up to \$250,000. (<http://www.fdic.gov/about/learn/symbol/index.html>)

2. What do you recommend the company do with respect to selecting either the conservative or aggressive strategy?

Instructions for Management Case Assignment – Instructors

Your students are being asked to participate in an anonymous research study.

Please read this carefully. This form provides you with information about the study.

You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this research

PROCEDURES

- Please divide your class into workgroups of 4-6 members.
- Each team member will then randomly choose a number and every student who selects the same number in each team will become that team's leader.
- Students will have 45 minutes to complete a management case assignment.
- Once the case assignment is completed, students will be given a paper survey to fill out.
- Students will be asked NOT TO WRITE their names or any other identifying marks on the paper surveys.
- Once students have completed the management case assignment and the survey, all paperwork will be collected.

Instructions for Management Case Assignment – Workgroups

You are being asked to participate in an anonymous research study. Please read this carefully. This form provides you with information about the study. You are free to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this research

PROCEDURES

- You will be assigned to a workgroup.
- Each team member will then randomly choose a number and every student who selects the same number in each team will become that team's leader.
- You will have 45 minutes to complete a management case assignment.
- Once the case assignment is completed, you will be given a paper survey to fill out.
- DO NOT put your name or any other identifying marks on the paper surveys.
- Once you have completed the management case assignment and the survey, the researcher will collect all the paperwork from you.

Appendix E

Approval of Institutional Review Board



Lynn University

Principal Investigator: Alison Rampersad

Project Title: Culture as a Mitigating Factor in the perception of Path-Goal Leadership Styles and Workgroup Effectiveness

IRB Project Number: 2008-018

IRB Action by the Convened Full Board:

Date of IRB Review of Application and Research Protocol: 06/05/08

IRB Action: Approved ☒ Approved w/provision(s) ☐ Not Approved ☐ Other ☐

Comments:

Consent Required: No ☐ Yes ☒ Not Applicable ☐ Written ☒ Signed ☐

Consent forms must bear the research protocol expiration date of 06/05/09

Application to Continue/Renew is due:

- 1) For a Convened Full-Board Review, two months prior to the due date for renewal ☒
- 2) For an Expedited IRB Review, one month prior to the due date for renewal ☐
- 3) For review of research with exempt status, one month prior to the due date for renewal ☐

Name of IRB Chair: Farideh Farazmand

Signature of IRB Chair _____

Date: 06/05/08

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects
Lynn University
3601 N. Military Trail Boca Raton, Florida 33431

Appendix F

Table 2 - McSweeney and Hofstede Debate

Table 2

McSweeney's (2002) five crucial arguments, with Hofstede's (2002) rebuttal to each.

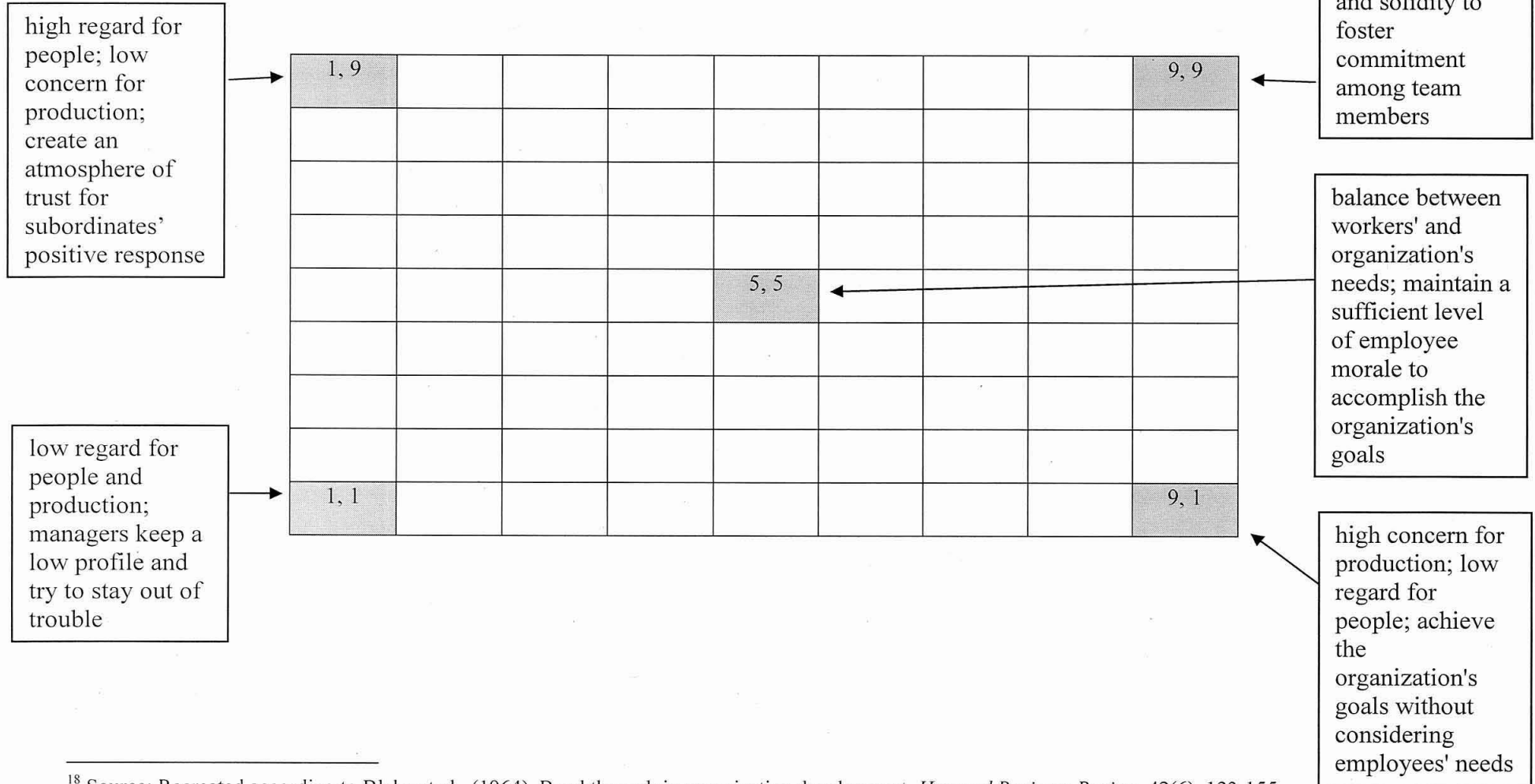
| | McSweeney | Hofstede |
|----|--|--|
| 1. | surveys are not suitable for measuring cultural differences | surveys should not be the only tool |
| 2. | nations are not the best entities for studying cultures | agrees, but says <i>nations</i> are usually the only entities available for comparison; better than nothing |
| 3. | a subsidiary of one company cannot presume to represent entire national cultures | <i>differences between</i> national cultures were measured (he cites his own work for country scores and valid representative samples) |
| 4. | the original data from IBM are obsolete | the dimensions have ancient roots, remain valid against external measures, and the data is constant across two successive surveys |
| 5. | four or five dimensions are insufficient | additional dimensions should be conceptually and statistically distinct from those contained in the existing model (validated with significant correlations) |

Appendix G

Table 3 - Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid

Appendix G

Table 3 - Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid¹⁸



¹⁸ Source: Recreated according to Blake et al., (1964). Breakthrough in organization development. *Harvard Business Review*, 42(6), 133-155.

845P14 5331
06/01/09 39800

Group