

Lena Zander

The Licence to Lead

**- An 18 Country Study of the Relationship between
Employees' Preferences Regarding
Interpersonal Leadership and National Culture**

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Lena Zander



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To my Grandmother Anna and
my Grandmother Anne

“There is a reason for everything - so always ask why.”

My Father

“What if it was you? Always try to understand things from another person’s perspective.”

My Mother

PREFACE

This thesis was written while Lena Zander (born Janson) was a doctoral student at the Institute of International Business (IIB). The research was generously funded by Jan Wallanders och Tom Hedelius' stiftelse för samhällsvetenskaplig forskning and The Swedish Work Environment Fund (Arbetsmiljöfonden). This support is gratefully acknowledged.

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Örjan Sölvell

Director Institute of International Business

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pictures” has not been transformed into reality in this dissertation, but will definitely see the light in future.

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¹ Ms Wredenberg worked at Procordia at the beginning of the project and was later recruited by Askus AB.

² Procordia AB in 1992-1993 included Kabi Pharmacia, Swedish Match, and numerous companies within the food, candy, brewery and tobacco industry

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Sången in October, 1997

Lena Zander

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH OBJECTIVES, AND STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

With the internationalisation of business, the interest of researchers and practitioners has focused on the question of management in different countries, in particular with reference to the current activities in Europe, North America, and Japan. One of the most debated issues is whether management is different from one country to another and what that means to the performance of firms. The question of what managers in different countries should do when managing their subordinates is of course a most important issue for internationally active firms, but there are also wider implications for international co-operation and development. A clearer understanding of human nature, of people's attitudes towards authority, and how managers are expected to manage their subordinates will further the knowledge of what to expect from human behaviour in different settings around the world.

Throughout the history of human beings there have been leaders in one form or another, such as kings, queens, chiefs, priests, presidents, or prophets¹. These leaders have existed in all cultures². However, leadership is not only about the great leaders moving mountains with thousands of followers, but also about any person leading another person. Parents leading and guiding their children into adulthood and life is perhaps the first form of leadership encountered by most people. Later in life, children will meet other types of leaders such as the school teacher, the sports captain, or the scout leader before they start to work and meet their supervisors and managers. These relationships are all characterised by two issues

¹ Early writings in Egypt dating from 5,000 years ago discuss leadership, both in terms of the role of leaders and that of the followers. Myths and legends about the acts and deeds of great leaders have been told in script or by word of mouth from one generation to another ever since human beings started gathering round the fire.

² Even in societies that do not have institutionalised leaders or elected officials there are leaders who initiate action and play central roles in group's decision-making, according to a review of anthropological studies by Lewis (1974), quoted in Bass (1990).

- *the hierarchical relationship and the interpersonal nature of the relationship* between those who “lead”, and those that they “lead”, for example, their children, students, team players, scouts and subordinates. In a hierarchical relationship the parents, managers or any of the other “leaders” have *authority*. Children, subordinates or any of the other persons at the subordinate level can have their own area of responsibility, can be highly involved in the decision-making process, or can have the autonomy to carry out activities without any involvement from the “leader”, but at the leader’s discretion. Thus, it is the “leader” who has the authority to delegate responsibility, decision-making or the autonomy to carry out activities to the person at the subordinate level (and this may apply to setting up a tent as much as setting up a subsidiary abroad). The relationship is also characterised by its *interpersonal nature*, which involves communication about different topics as well as different forms of interpersonal interaction. An example of this is the “leader” following-up activities of the person at the subordinate level, and giving feedback. Feedback can be positive as well as negative. For example, marking an exam with “excellent”, or recognising the outstanding sales performance of one of the sellers is regarded as positive feedback while scolding a child who has broken the rules of never playing with matches, or reprimanding the employee who continuously breaks the safety rules in the factory can be considered negative feedback.

The part of leadership or management that has been described above can perhaps be seen as a “*core leadership phenomenon*”, in that it is most probably carried out in all types of hierarchical relationships, although it may vary in form, content, extent and frequency. Hence, the core leadership phenomenon is characterised both by its interpersonal nature and hierarchical relationship between the leader and the follower. The interpersonal nature implies that the focus is not on “leading” organisations, but leading people through interpersonal communication and interaction. In a hierarchical relationship, the leader - the person at the higher level in the relationship - has authority, which can be exercised, shared or delegated at the “leader’s” discretion to the person who is the subordinate.

Weber (1921 & 1922) distinguishes between three *bases of authority*. Bureaucratic leaders are supported by legal authority, patrimonial leadership is based on traditional authority,

and charismatic leadership is based on charismatic authority³. In contemporary debates on leaders versus managers, “leaders” are often seen as comparable with Weber’s charismatic leader, while “managers” are seen as more comparable to Weber’s bureaucratic leaders. Some researchers argue that leadership is about leading and managing people, while management is about leading organisations and managing tasks. Others discuss what leaders and managers do when differentiating between the two, and their main argument is that leadership is about providing visions and inspiring people to follow them, while management is about enlisting the co-operation and the best endeavour from the subordinates to carry out tasks⁴.

Instead of focusing on differences between “managers” and “leaders”, *the focus in this dissertation is on the relationship between the manager and the employee* (or the leader and the follower). *This relationship is characterised by two issues, as mentioned above. These two issues are the hierarchical nature as well as the interpersonal nature of the relationship. Thus, the object of study in this dissertation will be referred to as “interpersonal leadership” (IPL).*

Managing Subordinates “at Home”

In earlier research, the hierarchical relationship of interpersonal leadership has been studied from the manager’s or from the employees’ perspective. Research of the former will be briefly presented below in “managers as efficient leaders”. The studies from the subordinates’ perspective will be briefly presented in “preferences for a human leader”. Historically, studies of managerial work and behaviour, as well as leadership research have been carried out by researchers from different disciplines⁵ (for reviews see e.g. Bass, 1990; Stewart 1982b; and Hunt, 1991).

³ According to Bass (1990), legal authority is based on the right of those who have the position to issue commands, patrimonial authority is based on the legitimacy of their traditional status, and charismatic authority is based on the inspirational character of the holder. Leaders in hierarchical relationships with their subordinates; with their “family”, clan or tribe; or with their followers, base their authority on one of these three mentioned sources of authority.

⁴ Already in 1938, it was emphasised by Barnard that the vital function of an executive is to motivate employees in order to obtain their commitment to achieving company goals. Stewart (1991:44) expresses the importance of managing people as a part of the manager’s work as follows: “Managing people is the essential and major aspect of all managerial jobs: it is what distinguishes management from professionals, who depend mainly upon themselves to achieve results. Managers are dependent upon achieving results through others: it is this dependence that makes the manager and makes it important that he or she is able to enlist the co-operation and the best endeavour of others.”

⁵The predominant research fields include psychology, international business, management and organisational behaviour.

One group of researchers has attempted to systematise the behaviour and work of managers, with the objective of understanding what managers do in general⁶. They have primarily used qualitative methods such as diaries and observations of managers. Among the well established descriptions of managerial work is the research by Carlson (1951), Mintzberg (1973/1980), Stewart (1967), and Kotter (1982)⁷. However, their work did not have the explicit purpose of studying the managers' management of their subordinates, and will not be further discussed. Another group of researchers have studied managers' *management of subordinates*, primarily with the aim of relating leadership to employee satisfaction⁸ and performance in order to understand what makes leaders efficient. This research has been based on quantitative methods in the form of structured questionnaires or laboratory studies for data gathering. The research of IPL or related topics, from the managers' perspective, will first be briefly summarised.

Managers as “efficient leaders”

The question of how the interpersonal leadership is perceived from the managers' perspective will be addressed in this section of the chapter. The research conducted prior to 1980 can be divided into three groups: “trait”, “behaviour/style” and “contingency” (Bryman, 1992; Smith & Peterson, 1988; and Hui, 1990). Before the 1940s, the personal qualities or characteristics were the subject of focus in the leadership research conducted. *In those days attempts were made to identify what personal traits made a leader effective*. The underlying assumption was that “good leaders are born, not made”. Personal qualities as well as skills and abilities of the individual manager were studied in an attempt to ascertain what leadership traits⁹ result in efficient performance. However, researchers failed to supply consistent evidence on what personal characteristics would result in successful leadership (see also exhaustive reviews by Stodgill, 1948; Mann, 1959; Stodgill, 1974; and Bass 1981), and began to consider how

⁶ Within this group a number of researchers concentrated on examining the viability of the traditional management functions proposed by a number of authors following the lead of Fayol (1916/1949).

⁷ The typologies which have been suggested to describe managerial work vary. Some contain a smaller number of broadly defined categories, whilst others contain a larger number of more specific tasks. From Fayol's (1916/1949) early classical typology of management work in five categories, which describe managerial activities in general terms, to Mintzberg's (1973/1980) ten roles within three categories, and recently a typology by Yukl (1989), who attempts to be even more specific and comprehensive, without failing to be applicable across different organisational settings.

⁸ The early Ohio State work is a well-known example of this type of research (see Yukl, 1989, for a review).

⁹ Examples of traits and personality characteristics studied included height, weight, appearance, health, fluency of speech, intelligence, knowledge, ambition, dominance etc.

leaders' behaviour rather than their personal characteristics could be used to explain effective leadership.

In the late 1940s, researchers therefore ventured into exploring the connection between leadership effectiveness, and leadership styles or behaviours. *The two terms, styles and behaviours, were used interchangeably to describe what leaders do.* The importance of identifying what types of behaviours were efficient increased, since this line of thought suggested that leaders could be trained to become successful. Most researchers attempted to identify existing managerial styles by using questionnaires, while others attempted to construct specific leadership types which were tested in experimental situations (see e.g. Lewin *et al*¹⁰, who started their research in the late 1930s). A large number of questionnaire surveys were carried out by researchers at Ohio State University (Stogdill & Coons, 1957). The findings concluded that leadership style varies along two dimensions¹¹ labelled “initiating structure” and “consideration”. An effective manager should not only provide appropriate “structures” for getting the job done but also be “considerate” to the employees. Fleishman (1953) reported that there was a clear relationship between these two dimensions and various performance measures. Other research projects during the same time period found similar dimensions in their research, for example “task” and “social” (Parsons *et al*, 1953), “task” and “group maintenance” (Cartwright & Zander, 1953) “production-oriented” and “employee-oriented” (Likert, 1961). Additionally, Blake & Mouton (1964) emphasised that effective managers are those who show high concern both for the performance of the task and for their subordinates.

The connection between the behaviours and performance¹², however, yielded inconsistent results. A number of reasons have been suggested as explanations for the difficulties of relating managerial behaviour to performance (Smith & Peterson, 1988; Bryman, 1992). First, research has not acknowledged the different circumstances within which leadership

¹⁰ Lewin *et al* (1939) studied 'autocratic' versus 'democratic' types of leadership in the USA, attempting to identify their relation to group's performance. The study was replicated in other parts of the world with different results, e.g. during the 1940s in Japan by Misumi (1985), and in India by Meade (1967).

¹¹ The dimensions were based upon factor analysis of large number of responses to inductively designed questionnaire items. The goal was to develop a standardised set of validated questionnaires which could be used in a large number of different settings (Smith & Peterson, 1988).

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¹² The dimensions were based upon factor analysis of large number of responses to inductively designed questionnaire items. The goal was to develop a standardised set of validated questionnaires which could be used in a large number of different settings (Smith & Peterson, 1988).

¹² The most often used measures of performance is group productivity, group morale, subordinate task performance, goal attainment and work satisfaction (Bass, 1981).

acts occur. Furthermore, *a large number of studies performed to define effective leadership styles focused predominantly on the manager, not taking into consideration the relational and interactional aspects of leadership.* It was also argued that two dimensions are too few and that they are interrelated which should be taken into account when analysing the results. The lack of environmental, situational analysis was seen as the most critical weakness of research on the effects of leadership behaviour. Hence, the answer to the question of what makes an efficient leader was phrased as “it depends”. The general conclusion was that there is no universal appropriate leadership style. Instead, some styles would have an impact in certain situations, but not in others. Consequently, the “contingency approach” can be seen as characterising the leadership studies undertaken from the late 1960s.

Finally, after studying managers' personal traits and behavioural styles, leader and subordinate interaction became the focus of many studies. One of the first contingency theories of leadership effectiveness was Fiedler's (1967) work based on the “Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC)” measure of leader personality¹³. A task-oriented and a relationship-oriented leadership style was identified, and he also studied which style was the most effective in different situations. These two leadership styles resemble the findings mentioned earlier, although they were differently measured. Fiedler's research findings and proposed theories are still being tested, and are continuously modified and debated by Fiedler himself as well as other researchers (see e.g. Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977; Fiedler & Chemers, 1984; and Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). According to Smith and Peterson (1988:21) confusion still surrounds Fiedler's contingency theory, and they suggest that the reliance upon a “personal measure of doubtful validity” is the main problem, and stress that most theories developed during this period avoided the use of personality-based measures.

The “path-goal theory” has been discussed by several reviewers (see e.g. Smith & Peterson, 1988 and Bryman, 1992) as one of the very influential contingency theories. The path-goal theory derives from the motivationally based expectancy theories¹⁴. Most of the path-goal theory research has focused on “instrumental” and “supportive” leader style dimensions, which resembles the two Ohio State types of leadership behaviour and are largely based on the same measures. House and Dessler (1974) identified four leader styles adding “participative” and

¹³ The assumption underlying the measure is that the leader's description of the person considered most difficult to work with will reflect the leadership style.

¹⁴ In essence these theories state that subordinates will do what their leaders want if the leaders do the following: 1) ensure that the subordinates know what is expected of them (i.e. accomplish the leader's goals) and 2) ensure that the subordinates will be rewarded if expectations are fulfilled (i.e. subordinates achieve their personal goals).

“achievement-oriented” to the two mentioned above¹⁵. The relationship between the managers and the subordinates thus received increased attention. *In selecting one of these four styles leaders take into account characteristics of their subordinates*, for example personal qualities and task-relevant skills as well as environmental characteristics such as the type of task, the nature of the work group, and the authority system in the organisation. The path-goal theory has been widely tested, and House & Baetz (1979) have suggested modifications of the theory for future research. However, the tests of the path-goal theory performed in a variety of settings have yielded highly inconsistent findings. Relations between leadership styles and employee satisfaction have to some extent been successfully predicted, although predictions of performance measures were not successful (for discussions see e.g. Tannenbaum, 1980; Bryman, 1992; Smith & Peterson, 1988; and Bass, 1990).

Consequently, leadership researchers of the 1980s faced numerous earlier studies on leadership behaviour that did not clearly answer the question how people should be managed. The researchers moved primarily in two interrelated directions, the first is based on a return to the ideas from 1940s studies on personal traits of leaders, in order to further Weber's (1924/1947) concept of charisma (see Bryman 1992 for a review of research on charismatic leadership), while the second direction derives from Burns' (1978) discussions of a transactional versus a transformational leadership, which is tested in different settings by Bass (1985/1990). Bass discusses how both the work-oriented and person-oriented leadership behaviours described above can be viewed as a “transactional” management behaviour¹⁶. Bass argues that “transformational” leadership is a superior form of management behaviour. Transformational leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees and influence them to work for the good of the group, department and company. In order to achieve these results the transformational leaders are charismatic and inspiring, and they meet the emotional and intellectual needs of the individual¹⁷.

¹⁵ The four leadership styles are defined as follows: 1) instrumental (sometimes called directive) - the leader clarifies what is expected of the individual, how the work should be done, the employee's role etc., 2) supportive: the leader is concerned about employees' well-being and status, 3) 'participative': the leader involves the subordinate in the decision-making (a consultative approach), and 4) 'achievement-oriented': the leader is confident in the ability of the subordinates, and sets high performance goals.

¹⁶ This transaction of reward for good performance and discipline for poor performance characterises effective leadership. However, according to Bass (1990) this type of management behaviour is ineffective and can be counterproductive in the long run. He emphasises in particular that whether promise of rewards and threat of penalties is effective depends on its influence on employee behaviour as well as the manager's control over such issues.

¹⁷ To be noted is that the notion of charisma is included in the transformational leadership. Bryman (1992) argues strongly that transformational leadership is charismatic leadership, although House comments personally that he does not agree with Bryman's interpretation.

In sum, earlier research from the manager's perspective moved from focusing only on the manager by studying traits as well as behavioural styles, to increasingly including role of the subordinate in the studies.

Employees' preferences for a "human leader"

In parallel with the research focusing on managerial work from the managers' perspective was a series of studies from the subordinates' perspective. The Human Relations school emerged through a series of experiments in the late 1920s and early 1930s, studying worker satisfaction¹⁸ (Roethlisberger & Dickson (1939), Mayo (1945)). *The specific needs and motivations of the individual subordinates received attention in several research projects* (Argyris, 1957; Cartwright, 1965; McGregor, 1960; McClelland, 1961; Herzberg *et al.*, 1959; and Herzberg 1966). However, several decades of research have demonstrated that no clear relation between worker satisfaction and productivity can be established (Scott, 1992). Nevertheless, researchers and practitioners have continued to examine and test different managerial ideas and concepts attempting to identify what motivates employees to perform well.

Since the days of Taylor (1911), theories which assume that people are basically lazy and have to be motivated by carrots and sticks administered by the manager in order to work, have been the predominant view on human nature. McGregor (1960) called this view of human nature and work motivation "theory X". However, belief in McGregor's "theory Y" has increased over the years. "Theory Y" assumes that people are basically ambitious, and that they want to do a good day's work¹⁹. *Managers only need to provide subordinates with a favourable environment in order to encourage subordinates to work well.* The concept of motivation is being replaced by "empowering and enabling", that is, to provide employees with the knowledge, skills and understanding so that they can perform their jobs well (Stewart, 1991).

From the 1970s, research within work psychology emphasises the "theory Y" type of human nature, in particular the ambitious nature of individuals. Employees are assumed to be motivated, "enabled", and perform well when they "manage themselves" (see e.g. Luthans & Davis, 1978; Mills, 1986; Latham & Frayne, 1989; and Sims & Lorenzi, 1992). Consequently, a

¹⁸ Critics of the Human Relations school called it 'cow sociology' (the happier the cow is, the more milk it produces), and argued that worker satisfaction should be an end in itself, and not only a means for increasing productivity (Bendix (1956), Landsberger (1958)).

¹⁹ This reasoning is also found in Marx' work where he sees human beings as active and trying to "create the world".

self-managing employee was advocated²⁰, implying a reduced need for managers²¹, and the boundaries between superior and subordinate work roles diminish as there is a shift from external directive management to more internal, self-administered management (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992).

Current research within work psychology and research stemming from the human relations school can primarily also be seen as moving in two directions. The first line of research suggests that managers should provide employees with favourable environments in order to achieve good performance, whilst the second proposes a self-managing employee who does not need a manager to perform well. Both of these directions stand in stark contrast to the earlier mentioned contemporary research on leadership which studies and proposes a charismatic leader to ensure employees' performance. This could perhaps be a sign of the time. Weber proposed that charismatic leadership is needed in times of crises, in particular to "turn things around" with the enthusiastic assistance of followers. However, after the "turn-around" there is a need to replace the charismatic leader with a bureaucratic leader in order to implement and manage all the changes made during the era under charismatic leadership. Thus, the rekindled interest in charismatic leadership and similar concepts could be a result of the hardened business climate experienced today.

In sum, the research from the subordinates' perspective started with their needs and sources of motivation, ventured into studies based on a different view on human nature. This path did not lead to the study of the relationship between managers and subordinates, but to discussions of diminishing, if not reducing, the role of the manager. To be observed is that the more recent studies carried out from the managers' perspective display an emphasised role for the manager in terms of charismatic or perhaps transformational leadership. Thus, the implications for the "licence to lead" suggested by this review could be expressed as the "licence to be charismatic" versus the "licence to relax". Two very different, if not opposite, "licences" can be derived from recent leadership research.

Another observation is that the studies were carried out within one country, and most often in the United States. However, in the mid-sixties a few researchers, perhaps inspired by

²⁰ The research on self-management is primarily based on reinforcement theory (which includes both positive and aversive feedback), goal theory, social learning as well as social cognition theory (Sims & Lorenzi, 1992).

²¹ Self-management, or self-leadership, has been proposed as a replacement for leadership by Manz & Sims (1980). The new roles imply a reduced need for managers to induce employees to work, to follow up the work and to give employees feedback on their performance (including rewarding good performance). This is handled by the subordinates themselves. Managers are supposed to set a good example, to influence employees' way of doing their work, to encourage teamwork (self-managed teams) and to provide necessary information for the employees to be able to be self-managing

the findings from anthropological research *displaying that leadership behaviour is not similar throughout the world*, ventured outside their country and into comparative studies of leadership behaviour. *One question to raise is whether the nature of the licence to lead varies across countries.*

Managing Subordinates “Abroad”

The research findings by the psychologists Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966) are presented by Ronen (1986) as the first major work in the field of comparative management, followed by for example, England (1978), Bass & Burger (1979), Tannenbaum (1980), Hofstede (1980), Heller & Wilpert (1981), Laurent (1978/1986) and others. These researchers identified differences in leaders’ attitudes and personal traits across countries²², as well as differences in styles of leadership, in particular with regard to what is considered as appropriate leader-subordinate behaviour²³. The studies can be divided into two groups (see figure 1.1).

The first is a group of studies where researchers have compared management of subordinates across countries. In these studies *differences in leadership across countries are identified and they are most often assumed to be related to culture*²⁴. The second group of researchers are those who have *identified cultural values and beliefs that vary across countries, and hypothesise that they are related to organisation and management*²⁵. In other words, studies of management and organisations have identified differences across countries, but the assumptions that this variation is due to culture have rarely, if at all, been analysed. Concurrently, other researchers have identified and measured cultural values and beliefs across countries, but their hypotheses of how these influence management and organisation have not

²² After reviewing a number of cross-national studies on leadership and managerial attitudes, Ronen (1986) discusses how the chief factors influencing leadership style in different countries are differences in values, needs, beliefs, risk taking, cognitive styles and the managers’ background. (Furthermore, it is possible to cluster countries which are similar into a number of groups).

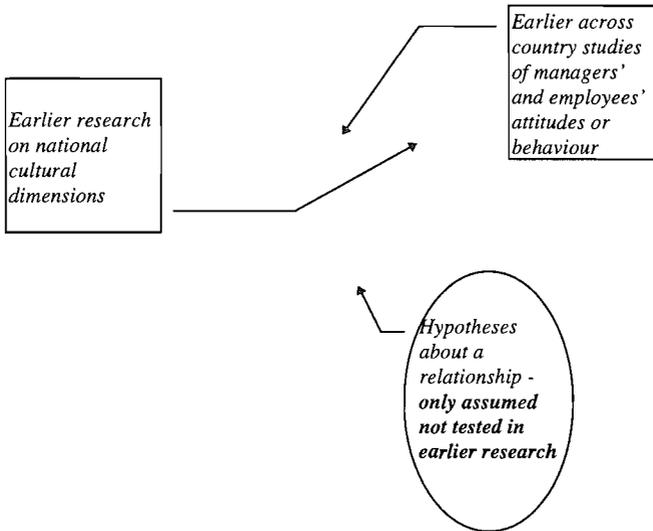
²³ There has been a large number of leadership studies outside the United States conducted by non-American researchers with a focus on leaders’ behaviour in a specific country, in an attempt to identify what is efficient behaviour. Smith & Peterson (1988), point out that these researchers have most often been strongly influenced by the research models and methods used in the United States.

²⁴ This will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 2.

²⁵ This will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 7.

been validated to any larger extent²⁶. The question to raise in this context, as displayed in graph 1.1, is *whether there is a relationship between employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership and national culture*.

Figure 1.1



The Research Problem

To study whether there is a relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and national culture requires that the similarities and differences across

²⁶ It is pointed out that Hofstede (1980/1984) has based his cultural dimensions on measurements of employees' preferences for leadership, sources of motivation and other work-related questions. However, Hofstede argues that he has measured cultural dimensions by using the work-related items and that these cultural dimension will have an influence on management and organisation, an influence that covers more than the original items he measured. Laurent (1983) has also based his beliefs about organisation and management on questions about organisation and management. However, he argues that he has captured managers' own beliefs which in turn will influence the managers' behaviour in organisations as well as their views on what proper management should be and that this is influenced by their national origin. Consequently, both Hofstede and Laurent's studies are seen and treated as studies of cultural values in this dissertation, which is why that they are discussed in Chapter 7 on cultural dimension, and not in Chapter 2 with the multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership.

countries in employees' preferences are identified first. If any differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries are identified, then the question of *why these differences exist* can be approached. The interest then lies in understanding why there are different expectations on managers in terms of interpersonal leadership from one country to another. There could be a number of different reasons, such as differences in historical tradition, religion, political system, level of education, level of GNP and technological level, to mention a few. A number of researchers within social sciences, psychology and anthropology argue that cultural values have a large influence on how people's beliefs and attitudes are shaped. This includes attitudes towards the role of the manager in terms of how the manager should manage subordinates. However, it is not just the possibility that national culture may influence management and leadership that makes it interesting to study the relationship between interpersonal leadership and national culture, but more importantly *that business performance has been shown to yield better results when management practices are congruent with national culture*²⁷.

That management practices which are congruent with national cultural values will yield predictable behaviour was argued by Wright and Mischel (1987), and congruence will result in high performance according to Earley (1994). This is phrased by Newman and Nollen (1996:755) as follows: national culture is a "central organizing principle of employees' understanding of work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated", and when management practices are inconsistent with cultural values, employees are likely to feel dissatisfied, distracted, uncomfortable and uncommitted. The findings from Newman and Nollens' study of 176 work units in 18 countries clearly support their allegation that business performance is better when management practices are congruent with national culture²⁸. ***These early findings suggest the importance of understanding the relationship between national culture and employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership as well as the importance of studying the subordinate's attitudes of how they want to be managed instead of asking managers how they think that subordinates want to be managed.***

²⁷ Hitherto the evidence seems to be in favour of an adjustment hypothesis claiming that is more efficient and profitable "to when in Rome do as Romans do". However, it is possible that some national culture characteristics are compatible rather than conflicting with other cultural characteristics in such a way that they can both increase creativity, efficiency and profitability. In a current analysis, Zander (forthcoming, 1997) compares employees' attitudes towards national versus non-national managers, and the relationship with the employees' work satisfaction and belief in the future.

²⁸ Newman and Nollen's finding rest on strong methodological ground. First, they have independent data sources for management practices and work unit performance and second, they have controlled for prior performance and external factors in their analysis.

The definition of culture that is used in this dissertation is derived from Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961). These two anthropologists attempt to make culture operational by specifying both *what it is*: “*a shared set of commonly-held general beliefs and values*”²⁹, and *what it influences*: “*people’s assumptions, perceptions and behaviour*” in their definition of culture. The first part of the definition captures cultural values, measured in earlier research, that will be used as independent variables in this dissertation. The second part of the definition refers to the dependent variables in this dissertation, that is people’s preferences for interpersonal leadership, which are measured in a study with a questionnaire. An important point to stress is that people’s preferences regarding interpersonal leadership could be influenced by a number of factors, as mentioned above, but it is the relationship with national culture that will be explored in this dissertation.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Purpose and Research Objectives

The purpose of this research project is to further the knowledge on management and the organisation of work. Interpersonal leadership (IPL) is studied from the viewpoint of the subordinates using an international sample of respondents from 18 countries. Respondents of different gender, in different age groups working in different companies, in different departments, and at different work positions have answered questions about their preferences for four areas of interpersonal leadership. The four areas are: employees’ preferences for participation in decision-making, employees’ preferences regarding managers’ exercise of influence and control, employees’ preferences regarding the manager’s communication of positive and negative feedback, as well as employees’ preferences for managerial concern for teams and individuals.

²⁹The concept of culture is often bound to the concept of values in anthropological literature where different cultures are viewed as reflecting different values systems (Ronen, 1986). Values can be distinguished from beliefs, although they often are used interchangeably. For example, in Fishbein's 'theory of attitude' (1963) which is discussed in Fischbein and Ajzen (1975). He "asserts that a person's attitude toward any object is a function of his or her beliefs about that object. Whereas a belief may change when the individual receives new information, values are relatively resistant to change. Thus, values can be seen as intervening between beliefs and attitudes, e.g. a *belief* that New York is the cultural capital of the world may lead to a favourable *attitude* to New York by someone who *values* culture."

The purpose with the study presented in this dissertation is to attempt to answer the question *whether employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership are related to national cultural values*. In order to fulfill this objective, the study will focus on the following two questions;

1. In what way, if any, do employees' expectations regarding interpersonal leadership vary across countries?
2. Are identified differences, if any, in employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership across countries related to differences in national cultural values?

The overall aim with the study to cast light on the nature of the "licence to lead" as expressed by employees in different countries. In order to answer the *first research question*, the data collected on employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership is examined to map similarities and differences across countries. An attempt is also made at identifying, if possible, comparable constructs of managerial leadership to facilitate the comparison across countries and the cultural analysis of the data. The *second research question* will first be approached by identifying cultural dimensions, measured in earlier research, that are hypothesised to have an influence on interpersonal leadership. These cultural dimensions will be used in the analysis of the relationship between employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership and culture. It is to be emphasised that no cultural dimensions will be measured in this dissertation. Instead, existing research will be used in the analysis.

Limitations of the Study

A number of limitations of the study apply:

- To only study the part of management, or leadership, that concerns the *working hierarchical relationship between manager and subordinate* (labelled interpersonal leadership (IPL) in this dissertation).
- To only *measure the dependent variables*, employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership, in the study.
- To *use existing research on cultural dimensions as independent variables* in the analysis, and consequently *not* measure cultural dimensions in this study.
- To only measure *employees' attitudes* of interpersonal leadership by the employees' responses regarding their immediate manager in a questionnaire.
- To only include nationality, company, department, work position, age and gender as *background variables* that can be used as control variables in the analysis.
- To only *draw conclusions based on the countries included in the study*, since adding more countries to the type of analysis conducted in this study can result in other conclusions.

Research Approach

The underlying research philosophy belief is that the value of the findings will lie in adding knowledge *on the margin* of a field of research. This is quite different from the approach of trying to explain as much of “the variance” as possible. The present study is an attempt to clarify the relationship between employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership and national culture. The identification of the dependent variables that measure IPL is based on a review of multi-country studies of different elements of IPL in combination with insights from informal talks with managers working abroad. The questionnaire is designed according to the above efforts, as well as taking the problems of measuring leadership attitudes into account. The questionnaire was used to collect data from more than 17, 000 respondents in 18 countries. The independent variables are derived from a literature review of cultural dimensions. Predictions of how the cultural dimensions will be related to “managerial behaviour” are formulated based on hypotheses formulated by the researchers

who have measured the cultural dimensions. The analysis is first conducted with data collected from one company active in almost all the countries in the study. Then a similar analysis is carried out with the data from respondents working for other companies active in the same countries (plus an additional two countries) that is used as a hold-out sample. In this way the findings can be verified as mirroring national rather than corporate cultural values. In addition, attempts will be made to identify groups of countries in which employees' display similar IPL preferences. The conclusions of this study are based on the analysis of the relationship between the collected data on employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership, and the cultural dimensions identified in earlier research.

DISPOSITION OF THE DISSERTATION

In *Chapter 2*, earlier multi-country studies of elements of interpersonal leadership are reviewed with two purposes. The first is to identify dependent variables measuring interpersonal leadership, and the second is to examine if any identified differences across countries have been analysed from a cultural perspective. This is followed by *Chapter 3*, which includes the methodology used in this study, problems related to measuring leadership attitudes and behaviour, the design of the questionnaire, the data treatment, and comments on the statistical methods used in the analysis. In *Chapter 4*, the sample of companies included in the Swedish-based Conglomerate are presented. The Conglomerate's growth has predominantly taken place through acquisitions and its company portfolio has been all, but stable over the years.

After these first four chapters, which aim at setting the stage for the study, the data analysis is divided into two parts. In the *first part of the data analysis*, the empirical results of employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership are analysed, and this is carried out in two chapters. In *Chapter 5*, the similarities and differences in employees' preferences for IPL are examined. The purpose of *Chapter 6* is to identify constructs of IPL that are comparable across countries and that vary across countries. The *second part of the data analysis* is devoted to the relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and national culture, and this is explored in three chapters. Frameworks of cultural dimensions are examined in *Chapter 7* with two purposes. The first purpose is to identify the cultural dimensions that can be used as independent variables in this study. This is done by an analysis of what the cultural dimensions are intended to measure and how they are hypothesised to related to attitudes about

management and organisation. The second purpose is to formulate predictions of how the cultural dimensions relate to interpersonal leadership based on the hypothesis formulated by the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions. The outcome of the predictions is examined in *Chapter 8*, where the relationship between preferences regarding IPL and national culture is analysed. Unexpected findings from the analysis also receive some attention in the discussion. In *Chapter 9*, the purpose of the analysis is to explore whether countries in which employees have similar preferences regarding managerial leadership can be clustered together. The discussion of the preferred interpersonal leadership in each cluster results in an identification of eight preferred IPL profiles. Finally, in *Chapter 10*, the results from the study are summarised, and the nature of the licence to lead across countries is discussed. Furthermore, the implications for cross-cultural management and leadership theories as well as for practice are also discussed in the concluding chapter.

CHAPTER 2

THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES: EARLIER COMPARATIVE MULTI-COUNTRY STUDIES OF INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

This chapter will start with an introduction to earlier research on comparative multi-country studies in order to distinguish studies of interpersonal leadership from other studies of leadership. The review of multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership is divided into three parts with a concluding discussion after each part. The focus of the review is on different dependent variables used to measure interpersonal leadership, if there are differences across countries and whether identified differences are analysed from a cultural perspective.

INTRODUCTION TO EARLIER RESEARCH ON COMPARATIVE MULTI-COUNTRY STUDIES

More than 7,500 studies of leadership have been conducted since the beginning of this century, as reviewed in Bass and Stodgill's *Handbook of Leadership* (3 ed., 1990). A majority of these studies have been carried out in the context of one country. In this dissertation the focus is on comparison of leadership behaviour across countries. This is not a study of comparative leadership in general, but a study, from the subordinates perspective, of interpersonal leadership¹, i.e., managers' management of subordinates². Only a limited number of multi-country studies focusing on interpersonal leadership have been carried out. A greater number of comparative studies have been conducted on managers' and subordinates' needs, sources of motivation, work goals, and other individual-related issues. These are also studies within the field of leadership and comparative management, but they do not focus on interpersonal leadership. In most of the studies on managing and leading

¹See Chapter 1 for a discussion of leaders and managers, leadership and management as well as the definition of "interpersonal leadership".

²'Subordinate' is defined as "occupying a lower position", and "one who stands in rank and power below another" according to *The Concise English Dictionary*. It should be noted that the term "subordinate" thus assumes a hierarchial structure.

subordinates, it is the managers, and not the subordinates, that have answered questions on how the subordinates should be managed.

Earlier multi-country studies have been grouped according to two criteria in table 2.1. The first criterion is the research topic. The studies are divided into two groups: those that focus on interpersonal leadership, and those that focus on individual-oriented issues such as needs, goals, and desires. The second criterion is the choice of sample, where studies with managers as respondents are grouped separately from those with subordinates as respondents. *The studies on the right-hand side of table 2.1* will be discussed in this chapter since they focus on interpersonal leadership. The *studies on the left hand side of table 2.1* are briefly discussed to give an overview and exemplification of the field of comparative leadership studies, although they do not focus on leading and managing subordinates.

The studies on the left-hand side of table 2.1 cover a number of topics such as motivation, exemplified by the work of McClelland (1961) which has been tested in a number of countries³. Other examples are studies based on Maslow's work on needs, which was part of the research conducted by Haire *et al* (1966), and others⁴. People's life goals have also been studied in an attempt to cast some light on what motivates people. One of the early multi-country comparative studies on life goals was conducted by England & Lee (1974)⁵. Multi-country comparative studies have also been conducted to further the knowledge of managers' personal traits, characteristics, as well as cognitive patterns⁶. Recent multi-country studies of managers have focused on role stress and ambiguity (Peterson & Smith *et al*, 1995) and on managers' reliance on experience, rules, or competence to handle various managerial events (Smith *et al*, 1996).

In parallel with the motivation research on managers during the 1970s, studies of motivation have also been conducted on subordinate staff in different countries. Good examples include Sirota and Greenwood (1971) and Ronen (1979)⁷. The work values of employees at various levels in organisations in different countries were studied by Schaupp and Kraut, as well as by Hinrichs in the mid-1970s before Hofstede's analysis of IBM

³ See e.g., Mischel (1961), Tedeschi & Kian (1962), Bradburn (1963), Levine (1966), Angelini (1966), Morsbach (1969), Singh (1969, 1970), Kanungo & Wright (1983) for testing of McClelland's concepts in different countries.

⁴ See e.g. Clark & McCabe (1970), Reitz (1975), Redding & Casey (1976), Bass *et al* (1979).

⁵ See also Bass *et al* (1979), Kanungo & Wright (1983), McCarrey *et al* (1984), Shenkar & Ronen (1987).

⁶ See e.g. Cummings *et al* (1971), Gruenfeld & MacEachron (1975), Bass *et al* (1979), Gill (1983), and Osborn & Osborn (1986).

⁷ Other examples include Simonetti & Weitz (1972) and Kao & Levin (1978).

employees' work-related values. In the middle of the 1980s England et al (1986) tried to understand the meaning of work to people in different countries. The studies on managers and subordinates' needs, goals and desires (left-hand side of table 2.1) are important contributions, well worth mentioning in this context. Given the focus on managerial leadership they will not be discussed further in this chapter⁸.

It is the studies on the right-hand side of table 2.1 that are in focus in this dissertation, and it is important to discuss them in some depth. One of the largest sources of confusion, and one of the main reasons for the slow advancement of the field of comparative leadership research, is most probably that researchers who embark upon a study of leadership often include in their theoretical framework a large number of studies embracing a vast diversity of topics. A focus and concentration not only in the theoretical framework, but also in the construction of research design and the interpretation of the findings would, in my view, result in an addition on the margin and an advancement of the field, instead of additional fragmentation. In addition, if the comparative research is to be conducted from a cultural perspective, the review of comparative leadership is often mixed with reviews of cultural studies. The research design often does not differentiate between culture and leadership, neither does it specify whether culture is the dependent or the independent variable, nor how it is operationalised. Thus, the reader is given the impression that any study of leadership that encompasses more than one country is a "cultural study", although culture may not be the dependent or the independent value. Furthermore, the reader is also given the impression that anything that varies across countries is a cultural phenomenon. Culture could not simply be an explanatory factor to the variation, but the variation itself is seen as cultural. This is a rather odd assumption, given that there could be various other explanations for variation across countries than culture, and that topics which are studied across countries need not in any way be related to culture. Hence, two concerns stand out as imperative. The first is to differentiate between the topics of earlier comparative leadership studies, and the second is to differentiate between comparative leadership research and cultural studies. In this chapter, earlier comparative studies of interpersonal leadership are the focus. Interpersonal leadership

⁸ For those who are interested in these topics see e.g. B. J. Punnett and S. Ronen (1984) for an introduction. The authors have compiled a table of organisational attitudinal variables used in comparative studies. They identified thirty-four studies which they divided into different groups. The biggest group of twenty-five studies dealt with values, attitudes and needs in a work-related setting. Only three studies in Punnett and Ronen's table studied managerial behaviour in more than two countries, and are thus included in table 2.2 in this chapter. Punnett and

is treated as the dependent variable in this dissertation and it is not assumed to be representative for culture as such. Instead, earlier measurements of cultural frameworks will be used as the independent variables.⁹ It is the purpose of this dissertation to examine whether interpersonal leadership varies across countries. If it does, it is interesting to examine whether these differences are related to differences across countries in terms of cultural dimensions and value orientations.

Table 2.1: Earlier comparative studies of interpersonal leadership and work related values (key words of the research mentioned after each author)

RESPONDENTS	RESEARCH TOPIC	
	Work related values: Individual needs, goals, values and sources of motivation	Interpersonal leadership: Managers managing subordinates
Managers	McClelland (1961) motivation see also Kanungo & Wright (1983) Haire <i>et al</i> (1966) motivation/needs (Maslow) see also Reitz (1975), Redding (1976), Bass <i>et al</i> (1979) England & Lee (1974) motivation (life goals) see also Bass <i>et al</i> (1979), Kanungo & Wright (1983) Cummings <i>et al</i> (1971) personal traits & cognition see also Gruenfield <i>et al</i> (1975), Bass <i>et al</i> (1979) England (1974/78) personal value systems see also Whitley & England (1977) Peterson & Smith <i>et al</i> (1995) role stress, ambiguity Smith <i>et al</i> (1996) manager's handling of events	Haire <i>et al</i> (1966) democratic vs. autocratic leadership Badawy (1980) participation Bass <i>et al</i> (1979) democratic vs. autocratic leadership Heller & Wilpert (1981) dyads on directive- ... participative Bottger <i>et al</i> (1985) participation continuum Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth (1983) Likert's authoritative Redding & Richardson (1986) Haire <i>et al</i> & Likert's ... authoritative Suutari (1996)
Subordinates	Schaupp & Kraut (1975) work values/goals Hinrichs (1975) work values England <i>et al</i> (1986) meaning of work Sirota & Greenwood (1971), motivation /needs Ronen (1979), Kao & Levin (1978)	Tannenbaum (1974 & 1980) participative & directive ... leadership IDE (1976) participation & influence (replication 1993) Schaupp (1978) participative management Smith <i>et al</i> (1989, 1992 etc) replication of Misumi's ... leadership

EARLIER COMPARATIVE MULTI-COUNTRY STUDIES OF INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

The discussion of earlier comparative studies of managerial leadership will revolved around three questions: 1) what are the measured dependent variables, 2) do the empirical results differ across countries, and 3) if there are differences across countries, are these differences discussed and analysed from a cultural perspective? In relation to the third question, it is of particular interest to find out if the researchers had any cultural reasons or hypotheses when deciding to conduct a multi-country study. The multi-country studies of

⁹ Earlier studies of cultural dimensions and values are the focus of chapter 7.

interpersonal leadership are divided into three groups and are presented in roughly chronological order: 1) the early studies with a bi-polar view of interpersonal leadership, 2) the studies of the 1980s focusing on continuums of participation in decision-making, and 3) the studies of the 1990s with two different approaches to multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership.

Early Multi-Country Studies with a Bi-Polar View on Interpersonal Leadership

The early multi-country studies on interpersonal leadership with their roots in the 1960s have a few characteristics in common. First, they seem to have a bi-polar view of interpersonal leadership with the autocratic-directive manager representing one type of managerial practices, and the democratic-participative manager as the opposite type. Second, attempts are made in the studies to measure issues such as the use of authority and influence, preferences for participation, rewards and sanctions, task or relation-orientation as well as assumptions about people's capacity for initiative and need for supervision (see table 2.2). Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) focused on managers' assumptions and attitudes, while Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello and Wieser (1974) and Bass, Burger, Doktor & Barrett (1979) aimed at measuring both attitudes and behaviour. Tannenbaum *et al* included employees at all levels in the organisation in their studies while the other studies focused on managers. The mentioned studies, as well as some replications of Haire *et al* in other parts of the world, will be further discussed below, starting with the work of Haire, Ghiselli and Porter.

Table 2.2: Items used to operationalise the dependent variables in the early studies of bi-polar interpersonal leadership

Author (year)	Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966) (also used by Badawy (1980) and Redding & Casey (1976))	Bass, Burger, Doktor and Barrett (1979)	Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello & Wieser (1974)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>focus of study</i> • <i>what is measured</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>autocratic-directive versus democratic participative managerial practices</i> • <i>assumptions and attitudes</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>authoritarian- directive versus participative leadership</i> • <i>actual and ideal leadership attitudes and behaviour</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>hierarchy in terms of authoritative versus participative managerial practices</i> • <i>actual and ideal leadership attitudes and behaviour</i>
the exercise of leadership through supervision and influence	capacity for leadership & initiative -" the average human being prefers being directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, and has relatively little ambition" - "leadership skills can be acquired by most people regardless of their inborn traits and abilities"	use of authority in getting things done (1= rely on persuasion and/or personal skills and knowledge - 9= rely on my position and power) able to influence others (1= completely unable - 9= completely able)	influence - to what extent in your work can/should you have influence over other people? - personally how much influence do you actually have on what happens in this plant?
participation in decision-making	participation -"in a work situation, if the subordinate cannot influence me, then I lose some of my influence on them" - "group goals setting offers advantages that cannot be obtained by individual goal-setting"	manipulation versus participation (1= rely on political alliances, deals, bluff - 9= rely on open communication and involvement)	participation & decision-making - do/should workers participate in making important decisions related to their work? -do/should workers participate in taking important decisions related to general plant problems? - when decisions are made, are/should the people being affected asked for their opinions and suggestions?
instructions, concern for subordinates, and inter-personal decision-making	sharing information and objectives - "a good leader should give detailed and complete instructions to his subordinates, rather than giving them merely general directions and depending upon their initiative to work out the details" - " a superior should give his subordinates only that information which is necessary for them to do their immediate tasks"	concern for the welfare of the subordinates (1= completely unconcerned to 9= completely concerned) task versus human relation concerns (1= primarily concerned with getting the job done to 9= primarily concerned with good relations)	inter-personal decision-making - does your immediate manager ask your opinion when a problem comes up that involves your work? - is your immediate superior inclined to take into account your opinions and suggestions?
rewards and sanctions	internal control -"the use of rewards (pay, promotion etc) and punishment (failure to promote etc.) is <i>not</i> the best way to get subordinates to do their work - "the superior's authority over his subordinates in an organisation is primarily economic"		rewards & sanctions - what happens if a member of this organisation does an especially good job in his work? - what happens if a member of this organisation does a very poor job?

The research findings by the psychologists Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966) are presented by Ronen (1986) as the first major work in the field of comparative management. They studied managerial attitudes in 14 countries¹⁰, focusing on "dealing with people" since they considered this to be central to the act of managing. The purpose was to identify whether

managers' attitudes and assumptions about managerial practices were the same across countries¹¹. If the attitudes and assumptions were found to differ across countries, the authors were interested in whether it was possible to group countries where managers had similar attitudes and assumptions. Haire *et al* (1966:19) explained that they attempted to cover the four distinct 'areas' of disagreement between the traditional-directive¹² and the democratic-participative managerial approaches. The first area was "capacity for leadership and initiative", the second was "sharing information and objectives", the third was "participation", and the fourth was "internal control" (see table 2.2 for a precise phrasing of the items)¹³. The first area could be seen as measuring managerial assumptions about human nature while the others measured attitudes towards managerial practices¹⁴.

According to Haire *et al*, between 25-30% of the variance was due to national differences, but there were differences in the degree of cross-country variation of each studied area. The largest difference in attitudes towards management practices across countries were calculated for 'capacity for leadership and initiative' (the range was 1.22) followed by 'sharing information and objectives' (1.18), participation (.82), and 'internal control' (.52)¹⁵. To be pointed out is that the two areas with the largest differences across countries included items on subordinates' perceived need for direction and detailed supervision. Haire *et al* did not discuss how the differences across countries in managers' assumptions and attitudes could be related to culture. They simply put forth their assumption that cultural values shape managerial attitudes¹⁶. The hypothesis was not supported by any analysis, but the authors stressed that the existence of across-country differences as such was a result of cultural influence. Haire *et al* also observed that although there were across-country differences there

¹⁰The 14 countries are: Argentina, Belgium, Chile, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Italy, India, Japan, Norway, Spain, Sweden, and the United States.

¹¹Their questionnaire included three parts: attitudes and assumptions underlying management practices, cognitive descriptions of the managerial role, and managerial motivations and satisfactions. It is the first part that is of interest in this chapter.

¹²Haire *et al* view the traditional approach as autocratic. The empirical data is presented on an autocratic-democratic scale.

¹³Each area was measured by two statements. The scores on both items for each country were added together and presented on a scale from one to five. On the scale, the value "one" depicted autocratic management while "five" represented democratic management.

¹⁴The managers' "assumptions" about the first area will also be referred to as "attitudes" to make the text less cumbersome to read.

¹⁵Haire *et al* did not calculate whether there were significant differences between the countries.

¹⁶They exemplified this postulation by arguing that the answers to many questions e.g. what the assumptions about human nature are, what the meaning of egalitarianism is, how industriousness and self-actualisation are seen, how much time one should invest in family, work and friends could be seen as clues to understanding which cultural values will influence managerial attitudes and assumptions.

also seemed to be a “universal pattern”. The pattern showed that managers had a positive attitude towards participative managerial practices, but that they did not have a strong belief in people’s capacity for leadership and initiative. Haire *et al* suggested that this was a result of participative managerial practices having received considerable “lip service” at development and training programmes as well as in media and literature. Hence, the managers were influenced by this, while they probably still disbelieved in peoples’ capacity to handle such practices. It has also been pointed out by Bottger, Hallein & Yetton (1985) that the phrasing of the items measuring people’s capacity for leadership and initiative refers to people in general rather than to the managers’ subordinates. It is possible that managers have more confidence in their own subordinates than in “people in general”.

Haire *et al* identified four country clusters: Nordic-European, Latin-European, Anglo-American and the developing countries (Japan remained independent)¹⁷. The authors argued that the clustering of countries implied a strong cultural influence on their collected data. They emphasised that the first three clusters mentioned included countries with similar languages and religion, and what was referred to as many common elements in their cultural background. According to the authors, the country constellations in the clusters also implied that it is culture, and not the level of industrialisation (as often argued by economists), that had led to differing attitudes and assumptions regarding managerial practices.

Haire *et al*’s work has received interest and inspired replication studies in different parts of the world. Two studies are especially interesting: the first was conducted by Badawy in Mid-Eastern countries and the second was carried out by Redding and Casey in Asian countries. Badawy (1980) handed out the Haire *et al* questionnaires to Mid-eastern middle management executives attending management training courses during 1978¹⁸ and collected 248 usable questionnaires. The respondents were active within chemical, petroleum and transportation industries in six Mid-Eastern countries¹⁹. The analysis showed no significant differences between the respondents from the different countries. Badawy pointed out that the lack of significant differences did not necessarily have to imply that the six countries were

¹⁷The four clusters include the following countries: Nordic-European countries (Norway, Denmark, Germany and Sweden), the Latin-European countries (France, Spain and Italy), the Anglo-American pair (the United States and the United Kingdom), and the developing countries (Argentina, Chile, and India).

¹⁸The questionnaires were filled in at the beginning of the course so that the respondents would not be influenced by the course when filling out the forms.

¹⁹The countries included Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Abu Dhabi, Bahrain, Oman, and the United Arab Emirates.

culturally homogenous. The similarities could also be due to factors such as limited sample size or the respondents' background.

The findings indicated that the Mid-Eastern executives had a more positive view on people's capacity for leadership and initiative than the respondents in the Haire *et al* study, and that they had more autocratic attitudes towards managerial practices (sharing of information, participation and internal control). Badawy also presented a qualitative description of Mid-Eastern management styles which he compared to Western style management. He stressed that there were fundamental differences in management styles and argued that these were mainly due to the different cultures, histories, and socio-economic characteristics of the two regions²⁰. The "fundamental" differences in managerial assumptions and attitudes that Badawy qualitatively described could perhaps be seen as reflected by the respondents' higher scores on the questions on attitudes managerial practices, that were interpreted as "authoritarian attitudes". However, the questions relating to assumptions of human nature indicated a belief in human nature. There could be a number of reasons why there are conflicting results between assumptions about human nature and attitudes towards managerial practices. It is possible that in the Haire *et al* and the Badawy study, the managerial responses are influenced by factors such as culture, religion, societal norms and current managerial beliefs, in such a way that assumptions about human nature and preferences for managerial practices do not necessarily have to correspond with each other. The differences in belief about human nature between the Mid-Eastern managers and the managers included in the Haire *et al* study could perhaps also be explained by cultural value-orientations, for example that human nature is seen as good or evil²¹.

Redding and Casey (1976) replicated Haire *et al*'s study with approximately 1,000 managers from eight Asian countries²². The findings are further analysed and discussed in Redding and Richardson (1986). Main findings were that the managers in the Asian countries scored attitudes reflecting a more autocratic approach to management practices compared to the countries in Haire *et al*'s study. Surprisingly, the belief in people's capacity for leadership

²⁰ Badawy described Mid-Eastern managers as highly authoritarian, and the power and authority were concentrated at the top of the organisation. He also emphasised the importance of group solidarity and a high degree of conformity which he argued emerged from the Arab tribal values. In addition, he also briefly described the communication patterns, the concept of time and space, the use of verbal and non-verbal language by the Mid-Eastern managers to differentiate them from the Western managers. The cultural dimensions and arguments used by Badawy strongly resemble the work of Hall (see e.g. 1959).

²¹ Cultural dimensions and value orientations are discussed in chapter 7.

²² Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, South Vietnam, and Thailand.

and initiative was higher in the Asian countries than in the Haire et al study. These findings are similar to those in the Badawy study discussed above. Redding and Richardson do not present any statistical analysis regarding the similarities and differences in managerial attitudes across the countries within the Asian group of countries, nor do they conduct any cultural analysis of their findings. However, they stress that the Hong Kong and Singapore scores were extremely close and they attribute this to the large proportion of overseas Chinese in the samples from both countries. Thus, they emphasise the influence of Chinese culture on managerial assumptions and attitudes²³. Both Hong Kong and Singapore were identified by Redding and Richardson (1986) as working with similar management systems according to Likert's typology of managerial systems, although there were significant differences between the two countries.

Haire et al and their followers attempted to measure what they referred to as the traditional-directive versus the democratic-participative managerial approaches. Bass et al (1979) observed that earlier studies on comparative management such as the Haire et al research focused on *attitudes*, and not on actual *behaviour*. Bass et al decided to study both attitudes and behaviour by self-appraisal forms and exercises involving real-life simulations. The self-appraisal scales on leadership styles²⁴ were filled out by 1,044 managers in 12 national groupings²⁵. The questionnaire included five sets of questions regarding both actual and preferred managerial styles (see table 2.2 for precise phrasing of the items)²⁶. The purpose of the study was to ascertain if managers prefer to use a directive or a more participative approach to supervisory-subordinate relations. Simulations were used to evaluate if the manager had a preference for working with uninvolved versus involved subordinates²⁷, where a preference for the involved subordinates was seen as an indication of participative managerial style, and a preference for the uninvolved subordinate was seen as reflecting an authoritarian or directive style. However, it is not clear how Bass et al related the items in the questionnaire to an

²³Redding and Richardson discuss similarities and differences between Hong Kong and Singapore after conducting a survey measuring Likert's four managerial systems (see earlier in this chapter).

²⁴ Other parts of the study included managers' needs, risk tolerance, pragmatism, interpersonal competence, effective intelligence and emotional control (Bass et al, 1979).

²⁵The national groupings include: Belgium, Britain, Germany & Austria (data pooled), France, Iberia (Spanish and Portuguese data pooled), India, Italy, Japan, Latin America, the Netherlands, Scandinavia (Danish, Finnish, Norwegian and Swedish data pooled), and the United States.

²⁶Bass et al collected their data through half-day small group exercises which involved different types of exercises, filling out forms, and feedback sessions.

²⁷ The simulations also included if the managers' themselves preferred to work for a participative or a directive supervisor.

authoritarian-directive versus a participative managerial style, which makes the interpretation of the results difficult.

The preference for working with uninvolved subordinates varied across countries, and significant differences across countries for all items in the questionnaire were identified. Bass *et al* did not conduct analysis to understand why there were differences in manager's attitudes and behaviour across countries²⁸. They presented their results in country profiles and had included a few characteristics of each country, but these characteristics were not discussed in relation to the results²⁹.

Bass *et al* measured "behaviour" in the form of actual managerial practices and "attitudes" in the form of preferred managerial practices. Their results indicated that the preference for managerial concern was larger than the actual level of concern displayed by the managers. In addition the preferences for participative managerial practices and ability to influence others were also larger than the perceived reality. The respondents also preferred less use of authority than what was currently the case. There were differences across countries in the respondent's preferences for a focus on human relations, not tasks. Consequently, the country scores reveal a pattern where managers in all the studied countries would prefer to use less authority (defined as "relying on position and power") than they actually do, as well as wanting to be able to influence others more ("influence" and "others" are not defined)³⁰ than they currently do. The implication of this pattern was not discussed by Bass *et al*, and it is not clear if the authors consider the preference to influence others as indicative of an authoritarian or of a participative management style. One interpretation could be that the pattern reflects a change from a direct form of authoritarian management to a more sophisticated indirect form of authoritarian managerial practices rather than representing a preference for a participative

²⁸ In the introductory notes to their study Bass *et al* referred to system theory and argued that in order to understand what goes on inside the firm, it is imperative to understand what is happening outside it. It is imperative to understand the culture and national economy in which the firm is operating. They discussed how organisations can be viewed as carriers of culture and emphasised that organisation techniques and policies were affected by societal and cultural norms. They also referred to Webber (1969) and Triandis (1967) who argue that cross-cultural divergence will continue in particular regarding supervisory-subordinate relations, attitudes towards leadership and decision-making. Bass *et al* put forth these arguments as reasons for conducting multi-country research, but they did not hypothesise how culture could influence managers' attitudes and behaviour nor did they discuss their results from a cultural perspective.

²⁹ The following country characteristics were mentioned by Bass *et al* (1979) in their country profiles: United States was seen as influenced by individualism, action instead of reflection, as well as pragmatism and equalitarianism. Britain by strong social class traditions, Scandinavia by fifty years of parliamentary, industrial, and social democracy, and France by the strength of individual opinion, and the importance of logic.

³⁰ The country variation is larger than the variation between managers with a low rate of advancement and managers with a high rate of advancement.

managerial style. On the other hand, the result could be interpreted as a preference for a more participative style, since participation is occasionally measured as degree of influence (see the discussion of continuums of participation in decision-making later in this chapter).

Two problems in the operationalisation of questions on leadership were discussed by Bass *et al.* The first is the difficulties in interpreting a complex scale, that is a scale with different wording at each end-pole. Bass *et al.*, for example, had “manipulation” at one end of the scale and “participation” at the other. The authors pointed out that a value indicating “participation” could be seen as a preference for “participation” or a non-preference for the other end of the scale, in this example, “manipulation.” The second interpretation problem is related to the lack of specificity in the question where, in the above example, the ability to influence “others” could refer to the respondents’ superior, peers, or subordinates

In sum, Bass *et al.* studied issues related to the authoritarian-directive versus the democratic-participative managerial style in line with the work of Haire *et al.*, Badawy, and Redding and Richardson. Their questions were similar to Haire *et al.* in that they focused on a bipolar notion of managerial styles.

An earlier study of both actual and ideal managerial practices was conducted by Tannenbaum and his colleagues from five countries (1974). A second study was co-directed by Tannenbaum and Rozgonyi (1986) in an additional six countries³¹. Tannenbaum *et al.* had decided to formulate a somewhat different research design than the one used in studies discussed above. Their idea was focus on organisations in five countries that had explicitly declared to have management systems based on different degrees of participation in decision-making³². Furthermore, instead of asking managers about interpersonal leadership, as in the studies discussed above, they wanted to study employees’ perceptions of, and preferences for, managerial practices. Tannenbaum *et al.*’s (1974) study of hierarchy in organisations included more than 1,600 respondents from small and large organisations in five countries³³. The measures used in the study were items drawn from earlier research on hierarchy, participation

³¹The following countries participated in the second study: Bulgaria, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Mexico, and Romania.

³²Tannenbaum *et al.* (1974) emphasised that hierarchy exists in one form or another, and that it is an important element of the organisational structure. They argued that organisation in different countries may share the element of hierarchy, but have formal systems of authority that vary from one country to another. This makes it an interesting topic for comparative research. Tannenbaum *et al.* (1974) discussed the need for hierarchy and its implications for the people working at different hierarchical levels. They described how authority is distributed hierarchically in the organisation and how hierarchy becomes an organisational characteristic that also has psychological implications for the employees in that it is related to power, status, success, and satisfaction.

³³The countries were Austria, Israel (kibbutz) , Italy, Yugoslavia, and United States.

and authority in organisations³⁴, but many of the measures were modified to translate well and have comparable meanings in all countries included in the study (see table 2.3 for precise phrasing in English). Questions were asked about both actual and ideal levels of participation as well as authority and influence over people and activities. The questions on participation could be seen as measuring two different types of participation: 'participation in decision-making' and 'inter personal participation,' for example the soliciting of opinions and suggestions from the subordinates.

The results show how the organisations in the five countries, as expected³⁵, differed in the degree of hierarchy (as measured by authority and influence, as well as salary and rewards). The variation was smaller within countries than across countries. Tannenbaum *et al* emphasised that the level of participation³⁶ could explain the differences in hierarchy across countries. The authors do not discuss their findings from a cultural perspective, although they mention that it is possible that something else than the level of participation, for example culture, could explain the differences in hierarchy across countries. The possibility that culture could be related to the varying degrees of participative systems that are endorsed in different countries is not discussed by Tannenbaum *et al*.

The inclusion of two different types of participation resulted in the unexpected identification of participatory practices, such as inviting employees' opinions and suggestions, as present in organisations that did not display participation in decision-making and vice versa. The results of the analysis of authority and influence indicate, perhaps not surprisingly, that authority and influence increase with the hierarchical ascent, that is with a higher position. However, Tannenbaum *et al* also found that authority and influence have a clear and sharp hierarchical distribution even in organisations that were identified as highly participative. In sum, the findings suggest that other forms of participation can exist in typically non-participative types of organisations, and that in an organisation with a high degree of 'participation in decision-making' employees still prefer that managers have authority over people.

³⁴ In particular the work by Likert (1961 and 1967).

³⁵ As expected, the Kibbutz and the Yugoslav plants were more participative than the plants in USA and Austria, while the Italian plants were the least participative.

³⁶ The countries included in the studies are described in terms of a number of characteristics that according to Tannenbaum *et al* could be seen as influencing the degree of authority and participation in organisations. The characteristics included political system of the country, ownership, recruitment of managerial personnel and the philosophy of management.

Concluding the discussion of the multi-country studies with a bi-polar view on interpersonal leadership

A number of observations can be made regarding the dependent variables that have been measured in the multi-country studies by Haire et al (1966), Redding & Casey (1976), Badawy (1980), Bass et al (1979), and Tannenbaum et al (1974). First, these early studies tended to focus on authoritarian-directive as opposed to democratic-participative managerial styles. Questions were asked about authority and influence, participation in decision-making, rewards and sanctions, task or relation-orientation, as well as assumptions about people's capacity for initiative and need for direction. Some of the research findings were contradictory in that participatory preferences were scored on some questions, and autocratic tendencies on other questions. In other words, it was not possible to identify a preference by managers or employees for only autocratic-directive or only democratic-participative managerial practices. The questions used to measure the above areas varied both in the number of items and the degree of specificity. One finding was that the degrees of participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation showed reversed proportionality. In the studies, different questions were asked about authority and influence and degree of participation in decision-making, although the bi-polar view represents an underlying assumption that autocratic or authoritarian managers do not endorse participative managerial practices, and vice-versa. Some of the findings, however, indicated that authority and influence had a hierarchical distribution also in organisations with a larger degree of participatory managerial practices.

In addition, two *methodological observations* can be made. The first is that the early studies focused on attitudes, while the later studies included both attitudes and behaviour (i.e., preferred and perceived interpersonal leadership as experienced by the respondent³⁷). The results of Tannenbaum's research indicate that the respondents prefer more than they currently perceive that they have for all the dependent variables in the study. However, perceived as well as preferred interpersonal leadership varies across countries. According to Bass et al, the preferred responses were only higher than the perceived responses on some items such as participation and ability to influence people. The preferred use of authority was lower than the perceived degree. The second methodological observation is that the research projects discussed above all focused on managers, with the only exception of Tannenbaum et al who included employees at all levels in their study. The results when including employees

at all levels in the organisation show a hierarchical distribution for some of the dependent variables. The perceived and preferred levels of authority and influence are lower among employees at the lower levels of the organisation than at the higher levels.

Finally, all studies except the study of Mid-Eastern managers conducted by Badawy reported *differences across countries*. Badawy, instead, reported differences between the Mid-Eastern managers and managers from other parts of the world. The differences across countries are assumed to be due to cultural differences, but only very limited, if any, attempts have been made to analyse or discuss the findings from a cultural perspective. Culture has been treated very much as a black box³⁸ and the researchers have been satisfied with identifying differences across countries which they have viewed as support for their cultural hypotheses.

Moving into the 1980s and Multi-Country Studies of Interpersonal Leadership with a Focus on Continuums of Participation in Management

Until the late 1970s interpersonal leadership had primarily been viewed as bi-polar, that is researchers' interest had been concentrated on authoritarian-directive versus democratic-participative types of leadership styles. Continuums of participation in decision-making, used in single-country research, were modified and used in comparative multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership in the late 1970s and the beginning of the 1980s (see table 2.3 below).

³⁷See Chapter 3 for a further discussion.

³⁸See chapter 7 for a discussion of cultural definitions and frameworks of cultural dimensions.

Table 2.3: Continuums of participation in decision-making

author (year)	(Schaupp (1978)) based on Likert	Heller & Wilpert (1981) Influence Power Continuum (IPC) based on Likert	Vroom-Yetton (1973) (group model) used by Bottger <i>et al</i> (1985)	IDE (1979) inspired by Vroom- Yetton , Likert and Heller & Wilpert from the subordinates' perspective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>focus of study</i> • <i>method</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>preferred versus perceived degree of participation</i> • <i>by choosing one of four described manager type</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>the decision-making method used by the manager</i> • <i>choose a method for each of 12 decision-making situations</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>the decision-making method used by the manager</i> • <i>choose a method for each of 30 decision-making situations</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>the perceived and preferred decision-making method</i> • <i>choose a method for each of 16 decision-making situations</i>
the decision-making method used by managers often labelled "tells"	own decision without explanation , expects subordinates to carry out.	own decisions no explanation - these are decisions made by you without previous discussion or consultation with subordinates and no special meeting or memorandum is used to explain the situation	own decision based on available information -	- not involved
the decision-making method used by managers often labelled "sells"	own decision with explanation, answers all question subordinates may have.	own decision with explanation - the same as above, but afterwards you explain the problem and the reasons for your choice in a memo or in a special meeting	- own decision obtain information from subordinates	- information afterwards
the decision-making method used by managers often labelled "consults"	own decision after prior consultation, expects all to work loyally even if not it is in accordance with the advice they gave	prior consultation with subordinate -before the decision is taken, you explain the problem to your subordinate and ask for his/her advice and help. You then make the decision yourself. Your final choice may or may not reflect your subordinate's influence.	- own decision obtain ideas and suggestions individually from the subordinates	- opinion given
specific methods			- own decision obtain ideas and suggestions from the subordinates in a group	- opinion into account
the decision-making method used by managers often labelled "joins"	-group meeting, consensus decision-making, if not possible then own decision.	joint decision-making with subordinate - you and your subordinate(s) together analyse the problem and come to a decision. The subordinate(s) usually have as much influence over the final choice as you. Where there are more than two in the discussion , the decision of the majority is accepted more often than not.	- group decision obtain ideas and suggestions from subordinates in the group, try to reach consensus decision	-equal weight in decision-making
the decision-making method used by managers often labelled "delegates"		delegation of decision to subordinate level - you ask your subordinate to make the decisions regarding a particular subject. You may not or may not request him/her to report his/her decision to you. You seldom veto his/her decision.		- own decision

The four continuums of participation in decision-making presented in table 2.3 above have a lot in common. At one end of the continuum, the manager makes all the decisions and at

the other end, the decisions are made by groups of employees or individual employees. The continuum varies in degree of explicitness for example in one continuum, who supplies the information on which to base the decision is included in the types of decision-making methods. Schaupp (1978) presented descriptions of four types of managers based on how they handle participation in decision-making. The respondents were asked to indicate which type they would prefer as a manager, and which type resembled their current manager. The research instruments used by IDE (1979), Heller & Wilpert (1981), and Bottger *et al* (1985) included not only the “participation in decision-making continuums,” but also descriptions of specific decisions for the respondent to decide on which method to use. The respondents were asked to use a “participation in decision-making continuum” to indicate how and by whom decisions would be taken for each specific situation. These studies will be discussed in further detail below, starting with the work by Schaupp.

In his exploratory study of participative management, Schaupp (1978) was inspired by Likert’s “authoritative to participative” continuum³⁹ when formulating the descriptions of four managerial types based on their degree of employee participation in decision-making⁴⁰. The respondents were selected randomly from all levels within one international manufacturing firm in eight countries⁴¹. The basic premise for the study was that cultural differences exist in employee perceptions⁴². Four areas⁴³ of employee perceptions constituted the dependent variables and were measured in an attitudinal survey. Employee perceptions of participative management were measured in terms of degree of influence in decision-making according to each described managerial type. The respondents were asked to indicate both the type that resembled their current manager and the type they would prefer to have as a manager. Culture

³⁹Likert’s four managerial systems also included four “interpersonal leadership” types that served as inspiration for the four types of managers that Schaupp describes in his questionnaire.

⁴⁰Schaupp mentioned that Ryterband and Barrett (1969) believed that the supervisor-subordinate relationship was the product of norms or values found in an organisation or a culture. Ryterband and Barrett (1969:25) also argued that “managers in a culture may adopt styles and values that are unique and even abrasive to others’ ways of doing things and still achieve ‘Western’ organisational goals”.

⁴¹The countries included in Schaupp’s study were Argentina, Canada, France, West Germany, India, Japan, The Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. The employees worked in one of the seventeen subsidiary plants in these eight countries

⁴²Schaupp (1978) presented three viewpoints on cross-cultural studies which he labeled “the universal school”, “the economic cluster school” and the “cultural cluster school.” He advocated the latter school where the basic argument was that culture is an independent variable explaining managerial behaviour and attitudes. However, he emphasised that it was not his intention to establish a model of cross-cultural behaviour but to explore differences in participative management across cultures.

⁴³The four areas were participative management, employee needs, employee satisfaction and industrial values, whereof the first- and the last-mentioned are of interest in this chapter.

was seen as the independent variable and Schaupp defined culture as synonymous with country in his study.

The degree of preference and perception concerning leadership styles varied across the countries. According to Schaupp, these significant differences supported the cultural hypothesis that culture influences employee perceptions and managerial practices, but no further cultural analysis or discussion was carried out. The findings also indicated that employees in all countries preferred a participatory leadership style (or subordinate-centred, in Schaupp's words). There were significant differences across countries in the preferred degree of participation. The results also indicated that the employees' perceptions of leadership styles differed from their preferences for the styles. In general, employees preferred a slightly more democratic type of style than they were having, or perceived was being practised by their own manager. However, according to Schaupp, it was possible that employees actually preferred the managerial type that they already had, since the statistical analyses indicated a strong correlation of 0.74 (Spearman rank correlation, sig. level < 5%) between perceived and preferred leadership style across the countries in the study⁴⁴.

Three country clusters were identified by ranking the countries according to their scores on perceived and preferred leadership styles as well as upward influence items⁴⁵ and entering these ranks into a factor analysis⁴⁶. The first factor included the Western countries, the second Japan and the third included less developed countries⁴⁷. Schaupp argued that the data seemed to cluster according to the independent variable, culture, which was seen as support for his cultural hypothesis without further discussion.

Schaupp also asked respondents to answer questions in the context of working for any company within the industry instead of in the context of their own corporate environment⁴⁸. These questions included issues such as the role of managers and employees, the use of rules,

⁴⁴However, they were correlated to a varying degree within countries.

⁴⁵The upward-influence items included questions such as: 1) how do you feel about the formal upwards-appeal policy, 2) would complaining to the manager help, 3) would complaining to higher management help, 4) would the complainer suffer?

⁴⁶Schaupp used a factor analytic method for clustering for countries in order to cluster them on patterns of variation instead of country means as had been done in earlier research.

⁴⁷The Western countries cluster included Canada, France, Netherlands, Germany, and the United Kingdom. The less developed countries cluster included Argentina and India, and the Japanese cluster included only Japan. Three countries loaded into two factors with more than 0.40: Germany loaded into both the Western countries cluster and the Japanese cluster. Argentina loaded both into the Western countries cluster and the less developed countries cluster, and the United Kingdom loaded positively into the Western countries cluster and negatively into the Japanese cluster.

⁴⁸Schaupp referred to these statements as "industrial values," a somewhat misleading name since they can easily be interpreted as industry related values rather than employee related values within an industry.

and attitudes towards participation and human nature⁴⁹. The rank of ten industrial values did not vary significantly across countries although some of the mean scores differed across countries. In other words, there was cross-cultural variation in degree but not in kind, according to Schaupp. When the author entered the ranks for all the countries into a factor analysis, the countries all clustered into one factor. The countries' factor scores indicated that an authoritarian management style (or "boss-centred", as Schaupp put it) was endorsed by more countries than the analysis of preferred and perceived managerial styles had indicated. Schaupp drew a parallel to the findings in the Haire *et al* study, and argued that respondents could answer what they considered to be socially desirable in the context of their own working environment. A preference for participative managerial practices could be driven by a need to conform socially, while respondents would be closer to their own opinion when talking about people in general.

Schaupp had observed that employees would prefer to participate in decision-making to a larger degree than what they currently experienced by asking them to indicate their preferred and perceived managerial type. Another way of further probing into employee attitudes towards, and experiences of, participation is to study decision-making with regard to specific decisions instead of participation in decision-making in general. In addition, it is possible that national legislation or policies in a country will influence the use of participation in decision-making. An international collaborative research effort was carried out to study participation in specific decisions and relating it to institutional factors.

The Industrial Democracy in Europe (IDE) project involved 25 social scientists⁵⁰ from 12 countries⁵¹. The research project was carried out in the late 1970s (IDE, 1976, and IDE 1979) and replicated in the late 1980s (IDE, 1993)⁵². The aim of the research project was to assess the impact of formal legally prescribed systems of participation on 1) the actual patterns of involvement and influence in the organisation, and 2) on the attitudes and reactions of the employees. The authors pointed out that the sample of organisations and countries that

⁴⁹Some of the items were the same as those used by Haire *et al*.

⁵⁰The following social scientists collaborated on the IDE research project: P. Abell (Great Britain), F. Agersnap (Denmark), J. Andriessen (Netherlands), O. Laaksonen (Finland), P. Coetsier (Belgium), P. Drenth (Netherlands), F. Heller (Great Britain), R. Peccei (Italy), V. Pusic (Yugoslavia), T. Ovale (Norway), J. Rayley (Germany), E. Rosenstein (Israel), V. Rus (Yugoslavia), M. Ryckaert (Belgium), T. Sandberg (Sweden), B. Stymne (Sweden), M. Warner (Great Britain), and B. Wilpert (Germany).

⁵¹ The countries in the study are Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Israel, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Yugoslavia.

⁵²In Sweden and Finland, the replication was carried out in 1981 but the data was included in the study presented in 1993 (IDE, 1993 and Stymne 1986).

participated in the study displayed a variety of participation schemes⁵³. The core variables in the research model are de jure participation, de facto participation, and outcomes of participation⁵⁴. Sixteen specific decisions covering economic aspects, personal matters, and working conditions were selected as a basis for measuring de jure and de facto participation⁵⁵. De jure participation measured the formal rules and regulations based on national laws, collective bargaining contracts or managerial policies involving the different parties in decision-making. De facto participation was measured both in terms of groups⁵⁶, influence over a particular decision, and the individuals' involvement in decision-making⁵⁷. It was stressed by the authors that in earlier research, focus had either been on measuring the degree of participation related to various managerial styles, or participation on analysing in the context of different national legal frameworks. The authors argued that neither approach was adequate to describe the complex phenomena of industrial democracy. Instead it was necessary, the authors claimed, to use a combination, which was also done in the IDE study.

The research findings from the IDE project indicate, perhaps as could be expected, that there were large differences in de jure participation, that is industrial democracy, across the countries in the study. The de facto participation of individuals in decision-making differed from the measurements of group influence in the decision-making process. In line with the results from the Tannenbaum et al study, a hierarchical pattern of both the influence and the involvement in decision-making was identified in all countries (except in Yugoslavia). The pattern depicted how middle management experienced that they had more influence and were more involved in decision-making than the foremen, who in turn had more influence and were more involved than the workers.

The amount of groups' influence was very similar across countries (with the exception of Yugoslavia) and most countries were considered to be "centralised", "power-less" and "non-

⁵³Examples of participation schemes include: self-management in Yugoslavia, co-determination in West Germany, and various different participation systems in Scandinavia.

⁵⁴The outcome variables included individual's attitudes and reactions toward participation and representativeness, satisfaction with work, organisational commitment and organisational climate. These variables will not be discussed further in this chapter.

⁵⁵The authors' emphasised that back-translation procedures were used together with researchers in the local environment to achieve comparability. However, it was emphasised that it was very difficult to achieve item equivalence. (p. 48)

⁵⁶"Groups" in this case refers to seven groups related to the enterprise: workers, foremen, middle managers, top management, level above the plant, representative bodies at establishment level, and external bodies and institutions.

⁵⁷In the analysis, difference is made between short term, medium term, and long term decisions.

democratic”⁵⁸. However, there was greater across-country variation regarding the degree of individuals’ involvement in decision-making. Consequently, country was identified as an important predictor of actual involvement in decision-making, although there was a larger variation in workers’ involvement in decision-making regarding short-term decisions than in long-term decisions. By conducting regression analysis, the authors could determine that leadership style is the strongest predictor of workers’ involvement in short-term decisions, while involvement in the more strategic medium and long-term decision-making was more affected by the national institutional legislation⁵⁹. Thus, the main finding was that a high level of employee participation in decision-making was related to both managerial practices and the national formal laws or collective bargaining systems. Furthermore, the authors emphasised that these two variables were stronger predictors than ‘objective’ variables such as organisational size or levels of automation (i.e. so-called technological or structural variables). The IDE research group (1979:292) concluded that “leadership style and institutional provisions for participation are two of the most important factors accounting for the diversity of democratic decision-making patterns across our sample organisations”⁶⁰.

The IDE project stressed that participation and national legal power structures have to be seen in the light of other national factors such as “socio-cultural” and economic factors. Data on the country context was gathered by each country’s research team, but it was emphasised that the purpose of the study was not to test the effect of “culture”. The authors conducted a cross-national analysis and used a sample of the low- versus high-scoring countries to analyse differences across countries. The discussion drew on historical, social, economic and political factors, but not on culture. Neither did the study discuss whether the three mentioned factors could be seen to be in any way related to culture.

In the replication studies (IDE, 1993) it was expected that the socio-economic and political changes that had taken place during the ten years after the first IDE study would have influenced both the formal participation and the actual participation in decision-making in

⁵⁸The authors suggested that industrial democracy was more determined by socio-political and institutional factors than technological, structural or economic factors.

⁵⁹The short-term decision-making was more routine and included decisions regarding the work conditions, work hours, equipment, training etc. The medium term included decisions regarding appointments of immediate superiors, wage levels, hiring procedures and reorganisations, and the more strategic long-term decisions included decisions regarding investments, and choice of new products.

⁶⁰Other findings included that company size and the technology used had little or no impact on *de facto* participation, and that companies with relatively high degrees of formalisation (e.g., Yugoslavia and Germany) were evaluated significantly more positively by the employees than organisations with lower degrees of formalisation.

organisations⁶¹. To be observed is that only groups' influence and *not* individuals' degree of involvement was measured in the replication study. In the first IDE study, the level of groups' influence was relatively low in most countries (apart from Yugoslavia), while the level of individual involvement in decision-making varied across countries. In the replications study, *one of the findings was that there had been changes in the de jure participation*, that is the national legislation, but these were not reflected in the *de facto* participation. It is possible that the individual's level of involvement could have increased over the years, although group influence has not increased, but as mentioned this was not measured in the replication study.

The IDE group, Schaupp, and Tannenbaum *et al* studied participation from the subordinates' perspective, while in the earlier discussed studies (Haire *et al*, Redding & Casey, Badawy, and Bass *et al*) participation was studied from the managers' perspective. Heller and Wilpert (1981) decided to create a research design where participation could be studied from both perspectives (albeit the subordinates were also managers). Consequently, their study threw more light on the issue of participation in decision-making by studying 1,600 managers active in 129 companies in eight countries⁶². The study was done in collaboration with eight other social scientists⁶³. The authors distinguished five methods of decision-making which they placed along an 'influence-power continuum' (IPC)⁶⁴(see table 2.3). The IPC was used to measure the 'mean decision-making centralisation' scores for each country. According to the authors, the IPC continuum had been developed during the long history of leadership styles research (Stogdill, 1974). One of its fundamentals was the four decision-making methods developed by Likert (1961). Heller & Wilpert pointed out that Likert's systems, and other similar continuums, have participation in decision-making as the most desirable and/or effective method. In order to capture a method of superior-subordinate interaction with greater degrees of freedom, Heller & Wilpert added 'delegation' (it could also be referred to as autonomy)⁶⁵ to the

⁶¹France and Italy could not participate in the replication study and two new countries, Poland and Japan, were added.

⁶²The countries included in Heller & Wilpert's study were: France, Great Britain, Israel, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, the United States, and West Germany.

⁶³The other social scientists included: P. Docherty (Sweden), J.M. Fourcade (France), P. Fokking (the Netherlands), B. Mays (England), B. Roig-Amat (Spain), T. Weinsall (Israel), and W.t'Hoofst (the Netherlands), and B. Stymne (Sweden).

⁶⁴Heller & Wilpert's IPC is a continuum of the degree of 'participative decision-making' including the following five 'methods' of decision-making: 1) manager's own decision without explanation, 2) manager's own decision with explanation, 3) prior consultation with the subordinates before making the decision, 4) joint decision-making with the employees, and 5) delegating responsibility to make the decisions to the subordinates.

⁶⁵According to Heller & Wilpert, this influence-power continuum was refined and strengthened in a few earlier European studies. They most probably refer to the IDE studies although they did not mention them by name.

'participation in decision-making continuum.' They considered this addition important for two reasons. Their first reason was that it captured the part of the manager-subordinate relationship most often omitted in earlier research⁶⁶. The second reason was that with changing organisational environments and growing human aspirations there was need for an instrument that captured a larger degree of involvement and sharing in decision-making than earlier research⁶⁷. Twelve decision-making situations were included in the questionnaire and the respondents were asked to indicate which of the five methods of decision-making in the IPC they or their immediate manager would use for each situation.

Significant differences in the decision-making behaviour of managers in different countries were identified by analysing the data from both the managers' and the subordinates' perspective. Country accounted for 10-15 % of the variance as to decision-making patterns⁶⁸. One unexpected pattern that emerged from the Heller & Wilpert study was the frequent occurrence in all countries of managers who were subordinates to other managers to indicate that their immediate manager used a more 'participative' method than themselves. Heller & Wilpert labelled this the 'power displacement effect'.

Heller & Wilpert explained that they wanted to avoid the use of culture when making cross-country comparisons since their research was not in a position to assess specifically cultural factors⁶⁹. The main thrust of their research was to identify the circumstances in which participative decision-making was being carried out. Country was seen as yet another contingency in their research design⁷⁰, but it was not further discussed. Heller & Wilpert carried out cluster analysis, but reported that the type of country groupings identified in earlier research was not supported by the data in their study.

In the IPC continuum, the focus was on the division of power and influence on decision-making between managers and the individual subordinates. Vroom and Yetton (1973) developed decision-method continuums for both individual and group problem solving. Bottger,

⁶⁶Heller & Wilpert did mention that a similar range of decision styles was used by Vroom and Yetton (1973 and 1974) but with delegation operationalised differently.

⁶⁷They compare with other continuums such as Likert's four systems, and Tannenbaum & Smith's (1958) directive-participative continuum.

⁶⁸ However, there was a large agreement across all eight countries in the study regarding the reasons for using participation. Improving the technical quality of the decisions was ranked highest by almost all countries and to improving communication was ranked second.

⁶⁹ They also pointed out that although they had attempted to identify matched samples across countries these could not be seen as representative for the business community within each country.

⁷⁰Other contingency variables were identified at three different levels: industrial sector, dominant technology, environmental turbulence at the meso level, organisational features (such as organisational levels and functional responsibilities, task, personal characteristics and skills) at the micro level.

Hallein & Yetton (1985) carried out a study using the group-oriented Vroom-Yetton participation in decision-making continuum (see table 2.3). The study was carried out with approximately 150 managers from Australia, Africa, Papua-New Guinea and the Pacific Islands⁷¹. The respondents read 30 cases and selected the appropriate level of subordinate participation to solve the problem in each case. The Vroom-Yetton model⁷² differed from Heller & Wilpert's IPC-continuum in two aspects. First, the source and type of information used to solve the problem was defined. Vroom-Yetton defined whether information comes from the manager or the subordinates, and if the manager invites ideas and suggestions, or only solicits information from the subordinates. Second, group participation in addition to individual participation was included in the model⁷³.

Differences across countries in the choice of decision-making methods were identified when the solution process was non-routine, and the nature and source of information required to solve a problem were unknown⁷⁴. The authors argued that the levels of participation were independent of nationality. Instead, they explained that this finding was due to differences in education⁷⁵. The purpose of the study was not to conduct a cultural analysis. Instead, it was designed to study if the use of participative methods was related to education levels. The authors argued that participation is an instrumental rather than cultural or ideological phenomenon, and referred to Vroom-Yetton (1973) who emphasised that managers should use participation to increase quality and acceptance of decisions. Furthermore, they stressed that managers used participatory practices to the extent that they believe that subordinates could make useful contributions. Thus, in their reasoning, the less-developed a country is, the lower the levels of education are and the lower the value of subordinate participation is.

⁷¹ In Bottger, Hallein & Yetton (1985), the nationality of the managers are unclear when presenting the country groupings of Africa and the Pacific Islands. The authors explained that they clustered the countries based on their geographical proximity, level of national development and level of education. To be noted is that these are not the variables that countries in clusters usually have in common. The variables cultural clusters usually have in common are language and religion (see Ch. 9).

⁷²The Vroom-Yetton model included: 1) managers' own decision based on managers' own available information, 2) managers' own decision, based on information obtained from subordinates, 3) managers' own decision, where ideas and suggestions are obtained individually from subordinates, 4) managers' own decision, where ideas and suggestions are obtained from subordinates in a group, and finally 5) group decision, where ideas and suggestions are obtained from subordinates in a group, and the manager acts as chairperson in the discussion of a problem.

⁷³Vroom-Yetton developed two continuums, one for solving problems with groups and the other with individuals. In this study only the continuum including groups was applied.

⁷⁴ This is referred to as low problem structure. The participation level with high structure problems, i.e. routine assignments, did not vary across countries.

⁷⁵ In the sample the level of education was the highest in Australia, followed by Africa, Papua-New Guinea, and the lowest for the managers from the Pacific Islands.

However, sorting out the influences of nationality versus the level of education from the results in Bottger, Hallein & Yetton's study becomes quite problematic, since the authors used level of education as one of the variables when identifying which countries should be grouped together⁷⁶.

Concluding the discussion of the multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership with a focus on continuums of participation in management

A few overarching observations can be made regarding the *dependent_variables* used in the studies by Schaupp (1978), Heller & Wilpert (1981), IDE (1976 and 1993), and Bottger *et al* (1985). First, these studies all used continuums of participation in decision-making. The continuums consisted of four to six different decision-making methods with varying degree of subordinate participation. The continuums varied in how explicit they were regarding where the information on which the decision was based came from, and if a group or an individual was at the most participative end of the continuum. The use of the continuums facilitated the interpretations of the perceived and preferred decision-making methods. Instead of discussing a score somewhere in-between participative and directive, as in earlier studies, it became possible to identify more types of methods, such as consultative or joint decision-making. In all of the reviewed studies, except Schaupp's, specific decision-making situations were described instead of referring to participation in decision-making in general. This method assisted in establishing a common reference point for the respondents that facilitated the interpretation of the data as well as the comparative component of the analysis. That the participation in decision-making was perceived to be higher in short-term work-oriented decisions than in long-term strategic-oriented issues was one of the imperative findings from the differentiation between types of decisions.

Two *methodological observations* can also be made. First, in two of the studies, only the perceived decision-making method was studied while in the other two both the perceived and preferred decision-making methods were studied. Findings similar to those discussed in relation to the studies of bi-polar interpersonal leadership emerged. In other words, employees preferred more participation than they had, although their preferences varied across countries.

⁷⁶In the country groups, the majority in the Australian group had tertiary or higher education and an average of 19 years of experience. In the other countries, the majority had a level of education that was below tertiary and they had an average of 13 years of experience. The analysis did not control for age, education and experience effects. The authors argued that since the age and experience variables did not correlate with the participation

However, in one study the perceived and preferred level of participation in decision-making correlated strongly across countries and this led the author to suggest that people basically have what they prefer in terms of participatory influence.

The second observation is related to the choice of respondents, where Schaupp and IDE included employees at all levels in the organisations, Bottger *et al* included only managers, and Heller & Wilpert included both managers' and their subordinates (although these were also managers). Results in line with the findings discussed earlier in the Tannenbaum *et al* study were also identified in the IDE study. Hence, to include employees at all levels resulted in the identification of hierarchical patterns in preferred and perceived influence and involvement in decision-making. The comparison of the perceived division in influence and power between managers and their closest subordinate resulted in what Heller & Wilpert refer to as the "power displacement effect". This effect arises when the subordinates report that their managers have used a more participative method than what the managers consider they use. However, in other studies the opposite finding has been identified, that is that managers indicated that they had been more participative than their subordinates perceived them to be.

Finally, all studies reported differences across countries. In these studies, the authors were much more explicit about their cultural assumptions and hypotheses. They often emphasised that their study was not a study of culture and consequently, they refrained from conducting cultural analysis. However, some cross-national analysis was carried out which compared historical, social, economic or political issues. However, it was not discussed if any of these factors were in any way related to or influenced by culture.

Moving from the 1980s into the 1990s with Two Different Approaches for Multi-Country Studies of Interpersonal Leadership

Two different approaches to multi-country comparative research on interpersonal leadership can be identified in the 1980s and into the 1990s. The first approach is to select frameworks developed in one country, such as the four systems by Likert (1961, 1967) developed in the United States or the Performance-Maintenance theory (PM theory) developed by Misumi during thirty years in Japan, and use them in other parts of the world. The second approach is to operationalise typologies developed earlier of managerial work, or the roles of the

measures, they did not constitute an internal validity threat to the findings. They identified a perfect rank order

approach is to operationalise typologies developed earlier of managerial work, or the roles of the manager, and compare each task or role individually across countries instead of working with factors or constructs of interpersonal leadership as dependent variables.

Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth (1983), and Redding and Richardson (1986) used Likert's research instrument to identify the managerial system that is used in countries in the Arabian Gulf region and in Asia respectively. Likert's four "systems" of managerial behaviour are based on research in the United States. However, it was argued by Likert (1967) that all systems exist in all countries, although the companies in highly industrialised countries tend to use more of system 4 managerial practices than system 1, and vice versa in less-developed countries. Likert's four systems were defined as: system 1 as "exploitative authoritative", system 2 as "benevolent authoritative", system 3 as "consultative", and system 4 as "participative group"⁷⁷. The four Likert systems are based on scores on a set of questions handed out to the respondents (see table 2.4).

Misumi's (1985) PM theory has been tested by Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989) and Smith, Peterson, Misumi, and Bond (1992), and by Lee Ah Chong & Thomas (1997) (see table 2.4). Suutari (1997) decided to create a categorisation of leadership based on earlier research. He identified 19 categories, or "aspects of leadership" as he refers to them. He acknowledges that his categorisation has many similarities to the Yukl & Nemeroff (1979) typology which is also specific and based on a review of leadership (see table 2.4). The discussion of studies will start with the work of Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth.

⁷⁷ The four methods were later referred to by more neutral labels: System 1,2,3, and 4.

Table 2.4: Items used to operationalise the two approaches used when studying interpersonal leadership in the 1980's and 1990's

author (year)	Likert (1967) used by Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth (1983) and Redding & Richardson (1986)	Misumi (1985) used by Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson & Bond (1989, 1992, 1993, 1994) and Chong & Thomas (1997)?	Suutari (1996) inspired by typologies by Yukl & Nemeroff (1979) and Yukl (1989a)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • origin • focus of the study • method 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • replications in other countries with a research instrument developed in the United States • autocratic to participative managerial systems • perceived and preferred leadership style 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • replications in other countries with a research instrument developed in Japan • Performance and Maintenance Theory • perceived leadership behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • inspired by typologies of managerial roles and tasks • "leadership aspects" based on managerial typologies • ideal managerial behaviour
The task-oriented type of items involving, e.g. planning, goals, control, information & communication	Goals	Performance items	Production emphasis
	1. How are organisational goals established?	1. Does your supervisor let you know about plans and tasks for your day to day work?	1. emphasise the importance of subordinates' efficiency 2. try to increase subordinates' efficiency
	2. How much covert resistance to goals is present?	2. To what extent does your supervisor give you instructions and orders?	Role clarification
	Control	3. When your supervisor gives you assignments, does he/she set clear deadlines for completing the work?	1. make detailed job descriptions so that the employees know exactly what is expected of them 2. see to it that each individual's function is defined as clearly as possible
	1. How concentrated are review and control functions?	4. How knowledgeable is your superior about the machinery or equipment for which you are responsible?	Informing
	2. Is there an informal organisation resisting the formal organisation?	5. Does your superior require you to report on the progress of your work?	1. inform subordinates beforehand about future plans that may affect their work 2. give subordinates all available information about matters that may affect their work 3. inform subordinates as early as possible about all matters that may affect their work
	3. What are the cost, productivity and other control data used for?	6. How precisely does your superior work out plans for goal achievement each month?	Planning/Co-ordination
	Communication	7. Does your superior urge you to complete work within a specified time?	1. see to it that the day's activities are planned in advance 2. see to it that the work of subordinates is carefully co-ordinated
	1. What is the usual direction of information flow?	8. Is your superior strict about observing regulations?	Conflict management
	2. How is downward communication accepted?	9. Is your working time ever wasted because of inadequate planning and organisation on the part of your superior?	1. help subordinates to resolve their conflicts 2. try to resolve conflicts and quarrels among subordinates 3. try to eliminate conflicts among subordinates
3. How accurate is upward communication?	10. Does your superior try to make you work to your maximum capacity?	Providing vision	
4. How well do superiors know problems faced by the subordinates?		1. communicate to subordinates his/her vision of where the organisation is going 2. communicate to subordinates his/her vision of the future	

The relationship or person-oriented type of items involving, e.g. participation in decision-making, motivation, rewards & sanctions, support, trust and teamwork	Decisions	Maintenance items	Interaction facilitation
	1. At what level are decisions made?	1. When you ask your superior to improve the facilities needed for your work, does he try to do so?	1. try to get subordinates to co-operate with each other 2. should encourage teamwork
	2. Are subordinate involved in decisions related to their work?	2. Does your superior try to understand your viewpoints?	Decision-Participation
	3. What does decision-making process contribute to motivation?	3. When a problem arises in your workplace, does your superior ask your opinion about how to solve it?	1. consult with subordinates before making a decision 2. get work groups approval on matters before going ahead
	Leadership	4. Does your superior treat you fairly?	Autonomy-Delegation
	1. How much confidence and trust is shown in subordinates?	5. Can you talk easily with your superior regarding your work?	1. allow subordinates to determine how to do their work 2. allow subordinates to decide on the means by which they strive for their objective
	2. How free do you feel to talk to superiors about job?	6. Is your superior concerned about your personal problems?	Individualised consideration
	3. How often are subordinates' ideas sought and used constructively?	7. Do you think you superior trust you?	1. give personal attention to each subordinate's needs 2. give personal attention to each subordinate's hopes
	Motivation	8. Is your superior concerned about your future career success?	Rewarding
	1. Is predominant use made of 1) fear, 2) threats, 3) punishment, 4) rewards, 5) involvement	9. When you do your job well does your superior give you recognition?	1. arrange substantial additional rewards and benefits for effective subordinates 2. arrange special benefits and wage increases for employees who do their jobs well
	2. Where is responsibility felt for achieving organisation's goals?	10. Does your superior generally support you?	Recognition
	3. How much co-operative teamwork exists?		1. provide individual recognition to a subordinate for each good performance 2. tell a subordinate when he/she does a particularly good job
			Criticising
			1. criticise the poor work performance of a subordinate 2. strongly criticise a subordinate who violates rules
		Initiation	
		1. offer ideas about new and different ways of doing things 2. stress the need for new ideas and practices 3. try out his/her new ideas in the work group	

Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth (1983) conducted a study of managerial practices in four countries in the Arabian Gulf region (Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates). The purpose of the study was not to compare the Arabian Gulf countries with each other. Instead, the country scores were calculated together in order to be compared to managerial styles identified in the United States⁷⁸. A sample of 381 managers working in multi-national organisations in the Gulf region filled out questionnaires that included items operationalising Likert's four systems⁷⁹.

The findings indicated that the respondents perceived that their organisations were working within a system 3 management mode, but that they would prefer to practise even more participatory management in the future in line with the system 4 mode. In fact, all scores for all facets of desired managerial leadership (support, team building, goal emphasis and help with work⁸⁰) were significantly higher than those for the perceived interpersonal leadership. Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth pointed out that this perhaps was not the result expected from traditional societies, but that it demonstrated the strong influence of external variables in the Arabian Gulf region. The authors did not exemplify these "external forces", or discuss what they were, where they came from, or how they influenced managerial practices. There could have been differences in the managerial systems across the countries in the Arabian Gulf region, but this is not possible to evaluate since the Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth data was only presented at the regional level.

The authors noted that the scores given by managers in the Arabian Gulf region were significantly lower than the scores by managers in the United States, who also were categorised as using a system 3 mode of management. They argued that the significant differences between American managers and those in the Arabian Gulf region reflected differences in management style, and not a difference in management systems. A larger degree of autocratic preferences than what was shown by the

⁷⁸Using items from the questionnaire, the facet measures of the management systems are first calculated. "interpersonal leadership" (ML included items measuring: support, team building, goal emphasis, help with work, and involvement. The score for organisational climate (CL) included: communication flow, decision-making practices, concern for persons, influence on department, motivation, and technical adequacy. These scores, after checking the internal reliability, were added together to form the score that the identification of Likert's system is based on.

⁷⁹Taylor and Bowers (1972) constructed the "Survey of Organisations" questionnaire based on Likert (1961) four management system, according to Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth (1983). The questionnaire was later used in cross-cultural studies by Likert and Likert (1976) and others.

⁸⁰See footnote 76 for an explanation.

questionnaire data became apparent during interviews. The contradiction implied by their quantitative and qualitative findings was not discussed. Instead, the authors advocated care to be taken when designing and using research instruments in Islamic countries, without explaining or exemplifying why or in what way their own research instrument could be biased. There could be a number of reasons for the discrepancy between questionnaires and interview data, for example that the questionnaire could have measured attitudes while the interviews captured behaviour and that these do not necessarily have to coincide. Another reason could be that an instrument developed in another country perhaps does not capture the pertinent characteristics of the managerial systems in the country where it is used, while these characteristics are identified during interviews.

Redding and Richardson (1986) had used the Likert questionnaire in Asia, and found that countries differed significantly from each other in terms of interpersonal leadership, but were identified as having the same management system in Likert's terminology. The authors argued that the countries were similar in a cultural sense, and therefore tried to explain the significant differences using other independent variables. Redding and Richardson (1986) conducted pilot studies using the modified Likert questionnaire filled out by 110 managers in Singapore and 103 managers in Hong Kong. In both Singapore and Hong Kong, the responses indicated that top and middle management shared the perception that management had been slightly more autocratic in the past, but was at the time of the study acting as system 3. Respondants desired to increase the level of participation by 'moving' into system 4 in the future. Thus, the pattern of preferring more participative managerial practices than what is perceived as the current level is also reflected in Redding and Richardson's data. Although both countries' scores placed them in the same system, there were significant differences in managerial attitudes between the two countries (a similar finding as in the Badawy study). A more participative style was preferred in Singapore than in Hong Kong. Redding & Richardson believed that culture, in this case the culture of the overseas Chinese, influences managerial attitudes and practices.⁸¹ The authors proceeded to compare Hong Kong and Singapore on a large number of variables to explain why significant differences had emerged when using the Likert

framework. The main thrust of their argument was that Singaporean managers were more positive towards participative practices since they were more open to foreign influence⁸².

Consequently, Redding and Richardson identified significant differences between Hong Kong and Singapore when replicating Likert's research, while no significant differences were found when using Haire *et al*'s questions as earlier discussed. Two observations can be made on the operationalisation of the dependent variable in the two studies. The first observation is that more specific questions were asked and more areas were covered by the Likert questionnaire than by the Haire *et al* questionnaire⁸³. The second observation is that questions on behaviour and not only assumptions and attitudes are included in the Likert questionnaire. In both Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth's and Redding & Richardson's studies it was revealed that countries belonged to the same Likert system, although there were significant differences between the scores for the countries. This could be an indication that Likert's operationalisation of the four systems is more effective in discriminating between companies within its country of origin than it is in discriminating between organisations in different countries.

Likert's four managerial systems can be seen as representative of the autocratic-democratic or directive-participative dichotomies that Bass (1981/1990) presented in his review of leadership studies. Bass also discusses two other dichotomies: the task versus relation-orientated type of managerial behaviour, and the empirically derived "initiation of structure" and "consideration" factors of managerial behaviour. The work of Misumi, the "Performance-Maintenance (PM) theory of leadership", to some extent, captures the two latter dichotomies of managerial behaviour.

⁸¹ This was discussed earlier in relation to Redding and Casey's replication of the Haire *et al* study where no significant differences were found between the two countries.

⁸² Factors influencing the degree of "openness" included, e.g., number of foreign companies, the structure of industries, education level and patterns (in particular foreign language and literacy rates), the age distribution in society (where older age groups are assumed to be more conservative), and the role of the state in promoting change.

⁸³ In addition, the questionnaire also covered the organisational level and it is possible that there were larger differences between Hong Kong and Singapore regarding organisational structural issues than managerial assumptions and attitudes. An example of the questions that were posed at the organisational level is 'How concentrated are review and control functions?' with the following choice of responses: very highly at the top, quite highly at the top, moderate delegation to lower levels, or widely shared.

A systematic interdisciplinary research programme has been conducted for thirty years in Japan (Misumi & Peterson, 1985). The programme, was inspired by the early Lewin, Lippitt and White studies in 1939, and numerous experimental and field studies, cross-sectional as well as longitudinal studies have been conducted and led to the development of the PM theory. Although the basic 'Performance' (P) and 'Maintenance' (M) concepts with the emphasis on subordinate performance (P) and maintenance of good relations (M) resemble several of the Western two-factor managerial behaviours in many ways, there are also differences. Misumi & Peterson (1985) emphasised how the two concepts are not independent or in opposition with each other as is often assumed when Western scientists discuss similar concepts. Instead, P and M are inter-woven⁸⁴. The most fundamental difference between the PM theory and Western models is that Misumi (1985) proposed that the P and M functions of effective leadership are general functions that may be exercised in a specific manner depending upon the organisational setting. Hence, the general functions of leadership styles would be similar across countries, while the specific manner they are carried out would vary across countries. According to Misumi and Peterson (1985) there were reasons to believe that conclusions from the PM research in Japan may be applicable in the West. This task was undertaken by an international group of researchers (see e.g., Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson & Bond (1989), Smith, Peterson, Misumi and Bond (1992), Peterson, Smith & Tayeb (1993), and Tayeb (1994)). Data was obtained in four countries⁸⁵ from a total of 1,052 assembly line workers in electronics assembly plants who evaluated their supervisors' leadership styles by using twenty items from the PM theory research instrument. Of these items, ten intended to measure "Performance" and ten intended to measure "Maintenance" (see table 2.5 for the general items)⁸⁶. All questions were asked about the respondent's immediate supervisor.

⁸⁴Misumi and Richardson (1985) argued that the PM theory does perhaps resemble Blake and Mouton's normative model presented in 1964, but that it differs in some fundamental aspects. For example, they mentioned that Blake and Mouton's "managerial grid" has not been empirically tested and represents ideal leadership types, which may not be empirically identifiable. Furthermore, they emphasised that the PM theory would be misinterpreted if compared to Blake and Mouton's model. Smith et al (1992) mentioned how House (1987) argues that the PM theory advocates 'all things in moderation', which is exactly the type of misunderstanding predicted by Misumi and Peterson.

⁸⁵The data was collected in Great Britain, the United States, Hong Kong and Japan from 1984 to 1987.

⁸⁶In addition to this, 36 specially created items were added to the questionnaire.

Smith et al (1989) reported that two factors describing leadership styles⁸⁷ could be identified when using the general items, although the “Performance” factor was less clear than the “Maintenance” factor. The hypothesis that the specific leadership items would vary across countries was not fully supported since some of the specific behavioural items grouped together in a similar way across all countries. However, very few of the chosen specific behaviours were representative ways of handling general managerial functions in all the studied countries, which does support the hypothesis that general leadership functions are handled in different ways across countries. In a later article, three factors were outlined. The “Maintenance” factor remained while the items from the earlier “Performance” factor were grouped under two factors: “Pressure-P” and “Planning-P”. (Peterson et al, 1993). The authors discussed how the “Pressure-P” factor could be seen as conceptually close to the Ohio state measure of “production emphasis”. However, as Peterson et al pointed out, “production emphasis” has been de-emphasised in contemporary research by withdrawing the items measuring it from the “initiating structure” where it earlier belonged. Instead, “initiating structure” measures role and work procedures and clarifications, which according to Peterson et al, was captured by their “Planning-P.” Peterson et al suggested that it is possible that “Pressure-P” captures elements of managerial work which currently are not receiving any attention in Western leadership research.

The findings from the comparative analysis of the data indicated significant differences across the countries⁸⁸ (Smith et al 1992)⁸⁹. The largest differences across countries concern the “Pressure-P” factor. The authors discussed these findings in terms of earlier research on the role of supervisors for groups, the functioning of groups and

⁸⁷The authors pointed out that the clearest delimitation between task and people-oriented behaviour was found in the United States, which they argued is not surprising given that this is where the Ohio State styles as well as the other two dimensional leadership styles were first conceptualised.

⁸⁸The researchers decided to pool the British and the American data since there were fewer teams on these sites and since both countries score high on individualism in Hofstede’s (1980/1984) study.

similar work-related behaviours of the countries in the study, but did not analyse the differences from a cultural perspective. The authors pointed to a problem of interpreting some of the differences in scores of leadership styles across countries. The differences could be due to the supervisors' focus on a certain leadership style, for example maintenance in one country than in others, or that the subordinates in one country experienced that their supervisors were more 'maintaining' than subordinates in other countries did. It seemed as if not only the specific measures, but also the general functions included in the "Maintenance," "Planning-P" and "Pressure-P", took on a different meaning across countries. Thus, the authors argued that there was a need for less culture-specific leadership functions to be able to compare across countries and to make more general statements, although there was a value in identifying specific effective leadership behaviours in a given culture.

In a later article, Tayeb (1994) discussed supervisory styles and cultural contexts. Her discussion was based on the similarities and differences across countries of the specific handling of the general leadership items, not the general managerial P and M factors. Thus, she discusses the specific items that did not correlate with the P and M factors for all studied countries. Tayeb distinguished between the Western and Eastern countries and related most of the findings to the cultural dimensions "individualism" versus "collectivism"⁹⁰. Although there were significant differences in the general managerial P and M factors across countries in the study, these were not analysed from a cultural perspective in Tayeb's article.

Likert and Misumi developed research instruments in their research within their respective countries, and these frameworks have later been applied in research outside their country of origin. Suutari (1996) decided to take a different approach when studying managerial leadership. After reviewing the leadership literature, in particular

⁸⁹The effectiveness of P and M leadership behaviour in work teams was also analysed by Smith *et al* (1992). They analysed the responses from the respondents' 84 first-line supervisors who were asked to rate their team performance on "productivity", "work quality", and "group co-operation". Misumi's view that simultaneous presence of the leader styles is crucial for effective management received some support. Planning-P and Maintenance leadership behaviour were identified as interacting significantly in predicting "work quality". The other part of Misumi's Performance measure, "Pressure-P" did not predict "work quality". It was found to be effective only when "Maintenance" was present. "Group co-operation" was the only team performance measure that varied across countries. The authors pointed out that the work conducted by the respondents was similar, and that cultural variation is the most probably explanation. The authors emphasised that only one or two plants were sampled in each country. Hence, cultural variation could refer to both organisational culture and national culture.

⁹⁰For a discussion of cultural dimensions, see chapter 7.

the different typologies of managerial work such as the work of Yukl and Nemeroff (1979), he decided to formulate a new questionnaire based on what he refers to as “aspects of leadership”.

Suutari (1996) collected data in eight countries⁹¹ in Europe for five different studies from 1993 to 1996 which were presented in his dissertation. In the three studies where a questionnaire was administered, a total of 301 managers participated⁹². The nineteen aspects of management Suutari had decided to study were measured by two or three items for each aspect (see table 2.4 for the items). He formulated hypotheses on how the countries in each study would score relatively to one another on each “leadership aspect”, by using a combination of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions⁹³ and other comparative leadership studies. A factor analysis was conducted using the leadership aspects in the 1993 study⁹⁴, which resulted in 14 factors comparable to 14 of his selected 19 aspects⁹⁵. Eight of these varied significantly across the countries, that is decision-participation, autonomy-delegation, rewarding, production emphasis, role clarification, conflict management, individualised consideration, and providing vision. In Suutari’s second study, which was partly replication and partly used new countries⁹⁶, 14 factors of leadership aspects also emerged from the factor analysis displaying only a few discrepancies from the first study. Again, eight aspects were found to be significantly different across countries. Five of these were the same as in the first study,

⁹¹Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden.

⁹²Only the studies based on his questionnaire of leadership beliefs will be discussed in this chapter. The two studies of Finnish expatriates’ perceptions of German, French, British, Russian and Swedish managers’ behaviour will not be discussed in this chapter.

⁹³See chapter 7 for a discussion on Hofstede’s and other researchers’ cultural dimensions and value orientations.

⁹⁴The first study included managers from Denmark, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, and Sweden.

⁹⁵The information regarding the statistical analysis is limited and it seems as if the factor analysis is conducted at the individual level, but it is not clear if it has been done with any type of standardisation procedures or if the countries have been weighted given the unequal sample sizes. Cronbach alphas are calculated to evaluate the reliability of each factor. These vary between .49 and .76 and although the author considers them as satisfactory, these levels would be contested by Nunally and others who suggest a cut-off point of .70. Almost all factors contain only two items, and the alpha would increase if some more items could be added to the factor. The author neither presents the correlations between the items individually nor between the 14 factors. Consequently, it is difficult to evaluate how the 14 factors relate to each other. One indication is that the factor analysis conducted with the country means (ecological analysis) resulted in most of the leadership aspects loading into two factors. However, correlations at the country level can be quite different from those at the individual level, but neither set of correlations are presented by Suutari.

⁹⁶The countries included in the second study were: Finland, France, the Netherlands, and Sweden.

that is decision-participation, role clarification, conflict management, individualised consideration and providing vision⁹⁷.

Suutari used the country means to rank the countries for each leadership aspect and discussed their rank order in relation to his hypotheses, and found that most of the countries rank as he had expected. He did not conduct any further cultural analysis apart from comparing his country rankings with Hofstede's country rankings. Suutari concluded the discussion on the note that there were differences in managerial beliefs regarding fourteen leadership aspects across the European countries in his study⁹⁸.

Concluding the discussion of the two approaches to interpersonal leadership applied in the late eighties and early nineties

A few observations can be made concerning the *dependent variables*. Likert's questionnaire was used by Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth in the Arabian Gulf countries, and by Redding & Richardson in Asian countries. Misumi has together with Smith, Peterson, Tayeb and Bond used Misumi's questionnaire in countries outside Japan. Suutari constructed his own questionnaire and administered it in Europe. Both Likert and Misumi in their work measure interpersonal leadership with an explicit focus on what the immediate manager does, and not attitudes in general towards managerial practices, while Suutari measures managerial beliefs, that is what managers think they should do, in his questionnaire. Likert's and Misumi's view on interpersonal leadership is that it is not bi-polar as the early studies, nor continuums of participation as in the second group of studies. They both work with the notion of interpersonal leadership as context dependent, but in different ways. Likert's four systems include variables

⁹⁷In the third study only Russia and Finland were compared, but a few leadership aspects derived in the other studies were found to vary also between Russia and Finland (decision-participation, role clarification, providing vision). However, entering the scores of all countries into one factor analysis would give a clearer result of which leadership aspects vary across all countries.

⁹⁸Suutari also conducted a factor analysis with the country means (ecological analysis) and identifies two factors: social orientation and work orientation. The former factor includes: decision-participation, planning, rewarding, autonomy-delegation, consideration, and individualised consideration, while the latter includes: goal setting, role clarification, production emphasis, individualised consideration and conflict management. He only compared these factors to those of Hofstede and Laurent given that he used the same argumentation as they do. The belief is that the factors represent underlying cultural dimensions that will influence the type of issues, in Suutari's case, the leadership aspects that load on the factor. He did not compare the two factors to the earlier empirically derived factors in leadership research such as task versus relation-orientation, and "consideration" and "initiation of structure", although there is a close resemblance between them and Suutari's two social and work orientation factors.

measuring organisational climate, and each system has a specific climate and a specific type of interpersonal leadership. Misumi argues that although there are two general managerial behaviours in the form of Performance and Maintenance, these are handled in different ways from one context to another. Consequently, context specific questions, in addition to the general questions, are formulated individually for each context. However, Likert's and Misumi's two frameworks have different underlying assumptions. In Likert's four systems, an organisation (or country in later applications) is expected to be represented by one system and consequently by only one managerial type, while in Misumi's PM theory managers are assumed to be both Performance and Maintenance-oriented. Suutari, on the other hand, decided to compare managers across countries by using fourteen "aspects of leadership" and not to combine these into any managerial styles or types.

Two methodological observations can be made. First, the above discussed studies vary in that the ones based on the Likert framework include both perceived and preferred managerial styles, the Misumi-based studies focus on what the immediate manager does, while Suutari's questionnaire taps managerial beliefs about what the manager should do⁹⁹. The studies of preferred and perceived leadership styles strengthen earlier findings in that the respondents prefer more than what they currently perceive to have in terms of interpersonal leadership. The second observation is that Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth, Redding & Richardson, and Suutari all used managers to answer questions on managerial beliefs and behaviour, while Misumi, Smith, Peterson, Tayeb and Bond used both assembly line workers and their first-line supervisors in their study. Misumi *et al* did not use this design to compare assembly workers' perception of the their supervisors' styles with the supervisors' own perceptions. Instead, they related the results of the supervisors' interpersonal leadership with their teams' productivity, work quality and group co-operation.

Differences across countries in interpersonal leadership were identified in all studies. However, in both Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth's work and Redding & Richardson's work, significant differences across countries were identified for countries which were defined as having the same management system and practices according to Likert's four systems. There have been two different reactions to these findings,

although both sides have argued that the fact that countries are classified into the same system makes sense, although there were significant differences between country scores. On one side, the significant differences are seen as representing a difference in degree, not in kind. The other side, in cases where cultural influences are seen as the same in the studied countries, views the significant differences between the two countries as explainable by other than cultural factors. One important question to raise in this context is how to ascertain that any identified across-country significant differences are related to cultural differences across countries.

Significant differences across countries in terms of P and M interpersonal leadership were also defined. Although the group of researchers did not explore these further in terms of cultural explanations, they discussed how the specific managerial behaviours were related to culture. Suutari had formulated hypotheses on how his fourteen leadership aspects would vary across countries, based on earlier leadership research and Hofstede's cultural dimensions, and discussed these hypotheses in relation to his findings.

The studies in the late 1980s and early 1990s display a cultural awareness quite different from that found in earlier comparative multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership. In the earlier studies, the assumption often seemed to be that any differences across countries would be cultural, while in later studies the researchers are more sophisticated in their way of acknowledging culture. Al-Jafary & Holingsworth, and Redding & Richardson present an explanation of why there would be cultural similarities between the countries they are studying. Misumi constructed a theory of both general and culture specific managerial behaviour. Suutari formulated and discussed hypothesis of variation across countries based on Hofstede's dimensions. However, there still seems to be very limited attempts, if at all, to relate and explain the differences in "managerial behaviour" across countries by using differences across countries in terms of cultural values and beliefs.

⁹⁹Suutari studies managerial behaviour through interviews, and not through his questionnaire.

CONCLUDING DISCUSSION OF EARLIER COMPARATIVE MULTI-COUNTRY STUDIES OF INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

Three questions have been in focus in the review of earlier comparative multi-country studies of interpersonal leadership. The first is which dependent variables are used to measure interpersonal leadership, the second is whether there are any differences in interpersonal leadership across countries, and the third is whether any differences across countries are discussed from a cultural perspective. In particular it has been of interest if the researchers have had any hypotheses concerning culture when deciding to conduct a multi-country study. During the review, two methodological issues were also discussed. The review of earlier studies was divided into three groups related to the point in time when the studies were performed. The first group were the early studies with a bi-polar view of interpersonal leadership, while the second group included the studies with a focus on continuums of participation. The third group included two different approaches: one approach was to use research instruments developed and used in one country when conducting studies in other countries, and the second approach was to construct a new instrument based on earlier typologies of management.

The Dependent Variables

The choice of dependent variables used in multi-country comparative studies has to some extent changed over the years (see table 2.5 for a summary). The first studies focused on such issues as authority and influence, participation in decision-making, rewards and sanctions, people's capacity and need for direction. There was only limited, if any, interest in the subordinates in terms of issues such as concern for their careers, needs, hopes and lives in general.

The issue of participation in decision-making received an increased interest during the 1980s and early 1990s which resulted in a number of studies with a focus on the degree of participation in decision-making, the decision-making methods in use, and the degrees of industrial democracy measured in terms of influence and involvement in decision-making. Some interesting findings resulted, including a distinction between participation in decision-making and inter-personal participation, that is soliciting subordinates' ideas and suggestions. In some countries only one of

the two types of participation would be present, while in others both would be carried out. There was also a suspicion that the positive attitudes in general towards participation in decision-making could be an example of socially desired responses, since attitudes towards participation in decision-making did not correspond to attitudes concerning people's capacity. However, studies that used continuums of participation in decision-making applied to specific decision-making situations generated two important findings. First, the degree of participation varied with the type of decision to be resolved. Decisions of a more long-term strategic nature would involve less participation of the subordinates than decisions directly related to their work. Second, the continuum also enabled a more direct differentiation between the various methods of decision-making. Instead of using more or less participative methods, it was possible to differentiate between four to six different decision-making methods, including consultative and joint decision-making methods.

In the last group of studies in the review, the relationship with subordinates has a much stronger position, where managers' concern, support, understanding and consideration for the subordinates are phrased in a number of questions¹⁰⁰. More questions are also asked about planning, goals and role clarifications. Topics such as authority, rules and regulations, and the subordinates' need for direction and supervision, that were present in the earlier studies, have, however, almost disappeared from the more recent studies of interpersonal leadership. This is somewhat unexpected, given that earlier studies showed strong significant differences across countries for the dependent variables that related to issues such as authority, influence, supervision and direction. Smith *et al* also argued that issues related to supervision and direction (their "Pressure-P" items) could be capturing elements of managerial work currently not receiving any attention in Western managerial research. In their study, the largest across-country differences were identified for the "Pressure-P" factor. The findings indicate that high degrees of authority and influence are present and preferred also by the respondents in highly participative organisations. Consequently, exercise of authority and the degree of participation are not correlated

¹⁰⁰To be noted is that both Likert's and Misumi's frameworks are from the 1960s (although Misumi has continued to develop his framework over the years). It is possible that the fact that these frameworks included questions on the concern for, and interest, in the employees' welfare and life inspired researcher in the 1990s to start using them in their studies.

as is often assumed in leadership studies. In contemporary research (and popular media), the notion of self-management and a reduction of the role of the manager have been some of the main dominant ideas. The “Zeitgeist” has most probably influenced the focus of empirical research and the formulation of questionnaires.

In sum, the dependent variables have changed so that there is more focus on the subordinates’ welfare and interests, as well as on work-oriented issues such as goals, planning and review. The discussion on participation in decision-making has become more nuanced and differentiates between types of participation. While interest in authority, influence, supervision and direction has almost disappeared, rewards, recognition, sanctions and teamwork still remain of interest in the 1990s. A few new topics derived from research on the roles of the manager have been added, for example disseminating information in a more general sense than merely informing subordinates about the work that they are supposed to do, resolving conflicts and communicating a vision¹⁰¹.

An additional point is how the dependent variables have been constructed over time. This has varied between two extremes, where one extreme method has been to add the country scores for all dependent variables to identify one system and one interpersonal leadership applied within each country. At the other extreme, countries have been compared across fourteen different leadership aspects individually. The first mentioned method presents a problem in that it assumes that a number of attitudes and behaviours coincide, such as the earlier mentioned assumption that employees who prefer high degrees of participation in management do not want managers’ to have authority and influence and vice versa. The problem with the other extreme method is the difficulty of grasping the findings without reducing the items to fewer constructs. There is also a question of reliability, since it is often more reliable to measure a topic with more items. Consequently, the choice of method is a delicate balance between facilitating interpretation, increasing reliability and easy application, and enabling precision, detail and flexible application of the concepts.

A final comment, to some extent related to the discussion above, concerns the phrasing of questionnaire items, and the labelling of constructs and leadership factors. Studying the phrasing of the items suggests that they are time as well as context

dependent. The discourse in the 1960s and 1970s seemed to view “persuasion” and “influence” as words that suggested using less authority, and describing a tendency towards participative beliefs and behaviour. In the 1990s, to “influence or persuade” somebody has rather negative connotations and is probably more associated with the use of authority than with participative practices. When presenting data or analysing it, most often it is the label of a construct (or a factor) that is referred to, and not the items that are used to measure the construct (or that load on the factor). In line with the earlier reasoning, the choice of label for the construct (or factor) is influenced by the contemporary discourse at the time of the study. In addition, another complication is how well the label represents the items that measure the construct (or load on the factor). One group of researchers from a certain country, or within a certain discipline, will perhaps not have the same perception of what the items measure as those that have labelled it, and hence they will question the choice of label. Consequently, the understanding of what a particular construct or factor attempts to measure, based only on the label of the construct, could vary not only across time but also across various contexts such as countries and disciplines¹⁰². Interestingly, validity seems to be time- and culture-dependent. Thus, it is imperative to clearly present the phrasing of the items used to measure the constructs or factors in order to facilitate readers’ understanding, as well as for advancing the field of comparative multi-country research internationally.

Some Methodological Observations

Two methodological issues were discussed during the review in this chapter. The first issue was whether it is the perceived, the preferred interpersonal leadership, or both that should be studied. Some researchers argued that only studying differences in attitudes would not capture the differences in behaviour since attitudes are not always manifested in behaviour. Many others decided to focus on both, and the general finding seems to be that managers as well as subordinates almost always prefer “more” than what they perceive as the current interpersonal leadership, in

¹⁰¹An additional topic was that managers should initiate new ideas, which is not related to “interpersonal leadership” as it is defined in this dissertation.

¹⁰²The difficulties in choosing labels that have similar meanings across countries are discussed in chapter 3 on methodology.

particular, regarding participation in decision-making. There are clear cross-national differences in both perceived and preferred managerial behaviour. In one study, a strong correlation between perceived and preferred behaviour was identified, and the author argued that people basically want what they have. This is one possible interpretation, while another is that there are in fact differences between perceived and preferred “managerial behaviour”. One question to raise in this context is what is measured by perceived versus preferred interpersonal leadership¹⁰³.

The second methodological observation related to the choice of sample where managers were the respondents in most of the studies, with subordinates as respondents in only a few studies. However, two important findings emerged in the studies asking subordinates for their opinions. First, a hierarchical dispersion of scores was identified, where managers scored highest and the workers scored the lowest on issues related to participation in decision-making, authority and influence over people. In addition, the slope of the hierarchical distribution varied from country to country. Second, in one study the subordinates indicated that their closest managers had used a more participative method than what their managers claimed they had used. This was labelled a “power displacement effect”. In other words, employees’ preferences will most probably vary with their hierarchical position in an organisation, and people at different levels could have quite different perceptions of how to interpret the same behaviour. The question to raise in this context is what the implications are of choosing managers as opposed to subordinates as respondents when studying interpersonal leadership¹⁰⁴.

Differences in Interpersonal Leadership across Countries and Culture

The view on the role of culture has changed quite substantially over the years (see table 2.5 for a summary). The early studies reviewed in this chapter viewed culture very much as a “black box”. There seemed to be an assumption that if differences across countries were identified, they were assumed to be due to culture. It is emphasised by Bottger *et al* (1985) and Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970) among others that “culture” in cross-cultural research often is used as an *ex ante* label for

¹⁰³This question will be discussed further in chapter 3 on methodology.

¹⁰⁴This question will be further discussed in chapter 3.

which an ex post interpretation is presented. In other words, most studies do not identify cultural dimensions on which countries are measured and predictions for leadership are based. Instead, when differences have been identified they are assumed to be culturally determined because the respondents came from different countries.

In the second group of studies reviewed in this chapter the authors were more explicit about their cultural assumptions and hypotheses. However, they most often stressed that their research was not aimed at studying culture and consequently they did not carry out any cultural analysis. They did, however, discuss historical, social, economic and political issues. One can argue that these issues are related to culture, are influenced by culture, generate culture or possibly even *are* culture, but none of these perspectives were discussed¹⁰⁵ in the reviewed studies.

The third group of studies reviewed in this chapter showed a strong awareness of culture. Hypotheses were formulated on how the countries would rank on different dependent variables, based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions or on general cultural knowledge about the studied countries. In the case of the work by Misumi, the theory itself included cultural sensitivity in that it is formulated to include both general and specific features of leadership behaviour¹⁰⁶. Consequently, leadership theories and research instruments have lately been designed from a cultural perspective, and hypotheses have been formulated from a cultural perspective. The question to ask in this context is whether cultural awareness when formulating theories, hypotheses and research instruments will lead to conclusions of a kind where differences identified across countries are seen as the result of cultural differences. In 1970, Ajiferuke and Boddewyn analysed a selection of cross-country studies of management in general (not only interpersonal leadership). According to their analysis, the main types of explanations of similarities and differences across countries are cultural, economic, psychological and sociological. The cultural explanations dominated but as emphasised by Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, they were most often imprecise regarding the nature and the influence of culture.

¹⁰⁵See chapter 7 for a further discussion of culture and cultural definitions.

¹⁰⁶Misumi's work is suggested by Dorfman (1996) as one of the examples of culturally influenced leadership models. These are leadership models that are derived in non-western contexts, or that take other than Western countries into account. Other examples are the work of Sinha (1980) from an Indian perspective, and Khandra (1990) from an Arabian perspective.

Furthermore, there seems to be a common assumption that if matched samples of respondents are used, any identified differences across countries must be due to culture. The matching of samples usually involves a direct matching across countries where the respondents are from the same age groups, same type of work or department, often the same industry, often the same gender, but work in different countries. However, matching personal and work-related demographics still leaves researchers a number of explanatory factors apart from culture that could account for the variation in leadership attitudes and behaviours across countries. The question of how to analyse differences in interpersonal leadership across countries emerges as imperative for the advancement of knowledge on comparative studies with a cultural perspective.

Implications for the Current Study

The discussion of earlier comparative studies of interpersonal leadership concluded that when formulating the dependent variables to study interpersonal leadership, it is imperative to study not only issues such as participation in decision-making, rewards, recognitions and sanctions, team-work, welfare and interest of the employees, but also to include questions on supervision and direction. The next chapter on methodology will discuss how the dependent variables used in this dissertation are formulated and measured.

In addition, the following important decision points were also identified in the review of earlier multi-country comparative studies of interpersonal leadership chapter:

- to identify a way to work with reliable constructs of interpersonal leadership that facilitate interpretation without being based on erroneous assumptions or losing their comparative precision and detail (see chapter 6)
- to acknowledge that any identified labels for constructs (or factors) are time- and context-dependent and that it is imperative to display the items used to measure constructs clearly. In addition, it is important to introduce the context in which the labels were created through a theoretical background and reference to other research that is a part of the context (this comment is relevant for chapter 6 and chapter 9 in this dissertation).

Finally, it is important to discuss how cultural values and dimensions can be used to understand if differences across countries in interpersonal leadership are related to differences in culture. In chapter 7, frameworks of cultural values and dimensions will be discussed and evaluated with regard to their suitability to be used as independent variables for understanding differences across countries in interpersonal leadership.

Table 2.5: Summary of Earlier Comparative interpersonal leadership Research

Author/s	Sample	Research Topic	Main findings	Main reasons for across-country variance
Haire, Ghiselli & Porter (1966)	3, 641 managers 14 countries	A study of managerial attitudes and assumptions seen as underlying autocratic-directive versus democratic-participative managerial practices: 1. capacity for leadership and initiative 2. participation 3. sharing information and objectives 4. internal control	- 25-30% across-country variance largest differences regarding (1) and (2) - autocratic assumptions regarding (1) while participative attitudes towards (2-3)	-cultural values <i>assumed</i> to influence managerial practices - clusters seen as a confirmation four clusters identified: Nordic-European, Latin-European, Anglo-American, Developing Countries (Japan independent)
Badawy (1980)	248 middle managers 6 Mid-Eastern countries	A study of autocratic-directive versus democratic-participative managerial practices Replication of Haire <i>et al</i> (see above)	-no significant differences between Mid-Eastern countries, but differences compared to Haire <i>et al</i> findings - democratic assumptions regarding (1), while directive attitudes towards (2-3)	- differences between Mid-Eastern and Western management <i>assumed</i> to be due to culture, history & socio-economic factors
Redding & Casey (1976)	around 1 000 managers 8 Asian countries	A study of autocratic-directive versus democratic-participative managerial practices Replication of Haire <i>et al</i> (see above)	- differences between Asian countries not examined only similarities - differences between Asian countries & Haire <i>et al</i> finding - democratic assumptions regarding (1), while directive attitudes towards (2-3)	- Singapore and Hong Kong have similar scores; this is <i>discussed</i> as due to cultural influences from the overseas Chinese
Bass <i>et al</i> (1979)	1 046 managers 12 national groupings	A study of actual and ideal leadership styles (directive versus participative): 1. use of authority in getting things done 2. manipulation versus participation 3. concern for the welfare of the subordinates 4. task versus human relations concerns 5. ability to influence others	- significant differences across countries - more directive-oriented use of authority and influence versus participative attitudes and practices (2-4)	- cultural differences <i>assumed</i> , but not discussed nor analysed in relation to the findings

Tannenbaum et al. (1974)	1 600 employees at diff. levels 5 countries	A study of hierarchy in organisations, actual and ideal managerial practices. - participation in decision-making - interpersonal participation - authority and influence - rewards and sanctions	- differences across countries, - appreciation of subordinates' ideas identified in less participative organisations - authority and influence identified in more participative organisations	- differences in hierarchy <i>assumed</i> to be to degree of participation, culture mentioned but not discussed as a source of influence in degree of participation as such
Schaupp (1978)	16 000 employees at different levels, 100 selected randomly from each country for the analysis 8 countries	A study of participative management (preferred and perceived leadership style) and of values in general - makes decisions, communicate and expect subordinates to carry out - makes decisions, explains to subordinates and answers questions - consults subordinates, listens to their advice, then announces decisions - calls a meeting with subordinates tries to obtain consensus on decision	- perceived and preferred leadership style varied across countries - three country clusters identified (Western countries, developing countries and Japan) - country ranks of values in general did not vary across countries	- significant differences across countries seen as a support for <i>cultural hypothesis</i> no cultural analysis is conducted
IDE International Research Group (1979)	997 employees at different levels	A study of <i>de facto</i> participation in organisations in terms of groups' influence and individuals' involvement in the decision-making process. - groups or individuals not involved - groups or individuals receive information afterwards - groups or individuals give their opinion - groups' or individuals' opinion taken into account - groups or individuals have equal weight in decision-making - groups or individuals make their own decisions	- larger differences in involvement in decision-making than experienced amount of influence in decision-making - involvement in short term decision-making influenced by leadership style while long-term influenced by national legislation	- authors emphasise that participation in decisions-making and the national legal power structures can be related to culture, but they emphasise <i>the study does not test effect of culture</i> . Instead they discuss historical, economic, political and social factors.
Heller & Wilpert (1981)	1 500 managers at two different levels 8 countries	A study of participation in decision-making: Influence-Power Continuum: - own decision without explanation, - own decision with explanation - prior consultation - joint decision-making, - delegation	- significant differences in decision-making - identification of the power displacement effect	- The authors explain that they avoid using culture when making cross-country comparisons since <i>their study is not designed to assess cultural factors</i>

Bottger, Hallein & Yetton (1985)	150 managers 4 countries (Australia Pacific region)	A study of subordinate participation: The Vroom-Yetton model (an information and participation continuum) includes: - own decision based on own available information - own decision, obtain information from subordinates - own decision, obtain ideas and suggestions individually from subordinates - own decision, obtain ideas and suggestions from subordinates in a group - group decision, obtain ideas and suggestions from subordinates in a group, act as chairperson in discussion of problem	- differences across countries when solving complex non-routine problems - differences due to level of education and not nationality	- participation in decision-making is <i>seen as instrumental and not due to cultural differences</i> - hard to differ between the two since respondents grouped according to both nationality and education
Al-Jafary & Hollingsworth (1983)	381 managers 4 countries in Arab Gulf region	Likert's four management systems: - system 1 = exploitative authoritative - system 2 = benevolent authoritative - system 3 = consultative - system 4 = participative group	- no differences between countries but significant differences between Arabian Gulf countries and the United States	- difference <i>argued</i> to be due to style not system - <i>cultural similarity assumed</i> due to external forces
Redding & Richardson (1986)	110 top and middle managers 2 Asian countries	Likert's four management systems (see above)	- significant differences between Singapore & Hong Kong, but both evaluated as managerial system 3	- difference argued to be due to non-cultural differences - <i>cultural similarity assumed</i> since both countries have large populations of overseas Chinese people
Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson & Bond (1989)	work teams & team supervisors	A multi-country test of Misumi's Performance (P) and Maintenance (M) theory developed in Japan (see table 2:4 for a specification of items)	- significant differences across countries in both general and specific "managerial behaviour" - largest differences concern Pressure-P factor	- specific behaviours are <i>specified from various cultural contexts</i> and discussed in relation to culture - cultural differences in the general PM factors not discussed
Suutari		A study of managerial beliefs regarding 14 leadership aspects. (see table 2.4 for a specification of items)	- significant differences across countries identified for eight aspects	- <i>hypothesised country rankings of each aspect discussed in relation to findings</i>

CHAPTER 3

METHOD, MEASUREMENTS AND STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

In this chapter the study presented in this dissertation will first be briefly introduced together with the choice of research design. Some of the problems encountered in earlier quantitative leadership research and how they are handled in this study will be raised, after which an account of the development of the questionnaire, and descriptions of data treatment, will be given. This will be followed by a discussion of the statistical techniques used in the analysis. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of reliability, validity and generalisation.

RESEARCH DESIGN

An Introduction to the Study

The method used in this research project is a large empirical survey. The sample consisted of managers and employees in a large Swedish multinational conglomerate active in different types of industries, with affiliates in more than 20 countries¹. The following 18 countries were included in the survey: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, the Philippines, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The questionnaire survey included 25,262 respondents², of whom 17,593 responded and in most cases from more than one

¹ It was decided by Procordia to not include Italy due to the on-going merger process during 1992 and 1993. However in the process of taking this decision 20 employees answered and were omitted from further analysis. The number of respondents from Greece, Hong Kong, Ireland and Portugal were omitted from further analysis since less than 50 employees had responded (see chapter 4 for further details).

² Total number of employees included 26,005 and the questionnaire was distributed to 25,262 employees according to the reports from Askus and Procordia. The response rate is further discussed in a later section of this chapter.

company in each country³. The questionnaire was added to the Conglomerate's own internal attitude survey and was filled out *by personnel at all levels in all departments in the participating companies in all countries*. Thus, the data material provides the opportunity to compare respondents in a large number of countries, with the possibility of controlling for differences, if any, at different levels within the company, at different positions, as well as across age groups and gender. This will absorb some of the methodological difficulties, and enable generalisation of the findings⁴.

Research from the "Inside" or from the "Outside"? Implications not only for the Research Design, but also for Data Treatment and Choice of Analytical Methods.

Geertz (1984) mentions that a general problem within *anthropology* has been the methodological discussion regarding how to approach the study of culture, or rather, from whose point of view. The formulations according to him have been diverse and include, for example "inside" versus "outside", "first person" versus "third person", "phenomenological" versus "objectivist", as well as "emic" versus "etic". Geertz suggests that "experience-near" versus "experience-distant" is a simple way to describe that perspective of research. The former represents the perspective of the studied object, how an "informant" describes what he/she sees, feels, thinks etc. in a way which is readily understandable by others is defined as "experience-near" research. An "experience distant" approach is where the objects are looked at from a "distance", from the "outside". The latter is, as Geertz expresses it, often employed by analysts to forward their scientific aims with research rather than attempting to understand a particular context from the perspective of those who are active in it. However, *Geertz emphasises that it is a matter of degree, not polar opposition, between an "experience-near" and "experience distant" research approach.*

According to Triandis (1994) the word "etic" derives from *phonetics* which deal with the sounds that occur in all languages, while *phonemics* deal with the sounds that occur in

³ See Chapter 4 for a description of the conglomerate and the respondents.

⁴ One of the problems with many of the studies conducted on leadership is what Bass (1981) refers to as "erroneousness of the law of small numbers". He stresses how it is erroneously assumed that small samples will be as representative as large samples, and refers to Smith and Hunter (1980) who saw that much of the variation observed in small samples could be accounted for as random departures from a relative simple overall generalisation. Bass continues to point out that this problem is apparent in leadership studies since most often only small samples of leaders are available unless the organisation is very large.

only one language. These two terms were coined by the linguist Pike (1967). It is argued that within *cross-cultural psychology*, “etics” is used to denote universal cultural elements and the study of general comparable classifications, while “emics” is used for culture-specific elements and the study of unique, specific wholes.

Hofstede (1984) mentions that *sociologists* use the related concepts of “idiographic” versus “nomothetic” to describe the same phenomena. Lammers (1976) describes how these two concepts were formulated by Windelband in 1894 to differentiate between two styles of scientific inquiry. The “idiographic” style focused on “wholes” or “gestalten” (unique configurations of events, conditions and developments) and this type of research was mainly found in the “social sciences and the humanities”. The “nomothetic” style was found in the natural sciences where the focus was on the identification of general laws or “Gesetze”. Lammers quotes Galtung (1967:23-24) when describing the advantages of both types of method, “Ideographic science has the advantage of giving explanations that are realistic in the singular case in the sense of taking into account a more nearly sufficient number of factors; generalising science has the descriptive advantage of surveying a larger field for which reason it can develop categories meaningful in the wider context”. Hofstede mentions that the idiographer will not use quantitative data and statistical analysis, but the researcher who collects data for comparative analysis will use different statistical methods according to their degree of nomotheticity. *A greater idiographic concern will express itself in a focus on the relation between variables within cultures, followed by a comparison of the identified patterns from one culture to another.* However, this is not Hofstede’s choice of data treatment; instead, he studies variances and correlations *across* cultures (e.g., ecological country level correlations). He argues that this is more nomothetic and can lead to laws of the “greatest generality”. A question to raise is how “laws of generality” can be based on patterns derived without “idiographic concern” since patterns that exist across countries do not necessarily exist within each country. In other words, countries are compared on a particular dimension as *if they display similar patterns of values, beliefs, attitudes or behaviour underlying that dimension, although similar patterns may only exist in all of the countries.* This issue will be further approached in relation to the discussion of factor analytical methods in a later section of this chapter. ***The research approach in this dissertation is to focus on the relation between variables within cultures, followed by a comparison of the identified***

patterns from one culture to another. Thus, the research approach in this dissertation is nomothetic, but with a strong idiographic concern.

PROBLEMS WITH MEASURING LEADERSHIP IN QUANTITATIVE SURVEYS AND ACROSS COUNTRIES

Some of the problems with conducting research on leadership will be approached in this part of the chapter. First, the phrasing of items, meaning equivalence and the choice of scale will be discussed. This will be followed by the difficulties with “group generated bias”.

Phrasing of Items and Implicit Theories

One problem in earlier leadership research raised in the debate is that managerial work descriptions obtained by subordinates' answers may be based as much on respondents' implicit theories of “appropriate leader behaviour” as on the leaders' “actual behaviour” (Larson, 1982; Phillips, 1984 and Tollgerdt-Andersson, 1989). However, in the current project this is not a problem, but an opportunity since the employees' “implicit leadership theories” can be seen as underlying the *licence to lead* “given” to their immediate manager. Thus, in the current research project the respondents are asked to indicate both what the manager *does* and what the manager *should* do, with the intention of capturing the implicit theories with the latter question⁵

Furthermore, Lord, Binning, Rush, and Thomas (1978) suggested in 1977 the existence of a systematic respondent's bias, which they tested in a series of experiments in 1978. This bias occurs due to respondents' tendency to fill out their evaluation of managerial behaviour based on their perception of the manager's overall competence, that is, a manager who is generally known to be successful will receive more positive evaluations than those who have a different reputation. Thus, it is possible that when the respondents fill out a questionnaire of their preferences regarding managerial behaviour they are influenced by the manager's overall reputation, in particular if the items are generally phrased. The items in earlier researchers' instruments have often been general statements or descriptions of managing subordinates, for example, “he rules with an iron hand”, or “the leader demands more than we do” (Bass, 1981). Thus, it is possible that if the questions refer to the manager's working

relationship directly with the individual respondent instead of asking about the manager's leadership behaviour in general, then the "reputation" bias is minimised. For example, a manager may have a reputation in the organisation for frequently interacting and communicating with employees. However, when the respondent is faced with the question, "How often should *your immediate manager* and *you* communicate with each other?" it is probable that the respondent will answer "monthly" if that is the respondent's preferred choice, although the manager has a reputation for communicating frequently with subordinates. Consequently, respondents in this study will be asked to *answer questions regarding their individual working relationship with their immediate manager rather than questions about interpersonal leadership in general.*

Meaning Equivalence

One of the fundamental issues in cross-cultural and comparative research is *meaning equivalence* of items. According to Smith and Schwartz (1995) this issue is absolutely central to the validity of cross-cultural studies. The problem is the difficulty in establishing whether the meaning of an item is similar in different countries. To conduct the often suggested back-translation process can handle some of the differences in meaning of words and expressions across countries. In this study differences in the meaning of some of the items were detected in the back-translation process and the phrasing of these items were changed to correspond to the original meaning of the question. However, as emphasised by Smith and Schwartz it is not possible to be confident that there is meaning equivalence even with the best translation and back-translation processes.

Most often the instruments have been formulated in one country, this is what Berry (1969) refers to as an "imposed-etic". The problem with imposed-etic, as Smith and Schwartz' point out, is that the instruments are used with the untested assumption that the meaning of the items remain unchanged across the studied countries. The authors suggest a remedy for this problem used within cross-cultural psychology (see e.g., Bond, 1988; Schwartz, 1992 and Triandis 1990). Smith and Schwartz propose that the problem is handled by examining whether *the structure of relations among the studied values is similar within each culture.*

⁵ The data collected on what the manager *does* will not be analysed and discussed in this dissertation. It is, however, currently being analysed in relation to what the manager should do as well as the job satisfaction level

In order to facilitate the understanding of the suggested method the reasoning will be expressed in the words of Smith and Schwartz' (1995). They argue that the meaning of a value is understood in its association, positive as well as negative, with other values and concepts. Any such association should be possible to show in form of intercorrelations between values. Thus, if values have similar meaning across cultures the intercorrelations should be similar, and correspondingly if the meaning of the values differ across countries, then the intercorrelations should also differ across the same countries. The pattern of correlations are most often examined within each country by using factor analysis or multi-dimensional scaling analysis on the whole set of values. The resulting factors or configurations of values are then compared. *Smith and Schwartz argue that factors or value configurations that are similar across countries can be used for further analysis with more confidence regarding the equivalence of meaning in the used items.* However, when items are included in different factors or configurations from one country to another the meaning equivalence of those items must be rejected, according to Smith and Schwartz.

In this study it was decided to examine the correlation patterns within each country.

However, instead of analysing all the items together the items have been divided into four areas of interpersonal leadership (IPL) based on the theoretical review in chapter 2 that generated the items. Furthermore, given that the sample size and the demographics of the sample varied across countries it was decided not to conduct a factor analysis within each country. Instead it was decided to simply study the Spearman rank correlations for the items within each country. This analysis is referred to as the "patterning effect" and is discussed in chapter 6.

The items that were identified as having similar patterning effects within each country in this study were added into two constructs, omitting the items that had not displayed similar patterning effects across countries, in line with Smith and Schwartz reasoning. Thus, the resulting constructs most probably have similar meaning equivalence, according to Smith and Schwartz. In addition, Cronbach alphas were also calculated to estimate the internal consistency of the constructs (see chapter 6).

It was decided to continue the analysis of five of the thirteen items that were not included in the two constructs mentioned above⁶. These five items were included the survey of both the main sample and the hold-out sample⁷. All five items were measured on an absolute time frequency scale that is comparable across countries⁸. Thus, it was decided that these five items would be further analysed and discussed in this dissertation. It is not only the equivalent meaning of items, but also that of scales that are pertinent in comparative research. The latter issue will receive some attention below.

Choice of Scale and Variation in Interpretation

In earlier quantitative leadership studies large variation of scales have been used, but those that are measured on a frequency scale, for example, “how often subordinates ideas are sought and used constructively”, have often used the following type of scale: “seldom”, “sometimes”, “often” or “very frequently”. However, when such a vague scale is used, interpretation problems often occur. Both the respondent and the researcher have difficulties in interpreting the scale when they need to determine what the various alternatives represent in absolute terms. For example, the alternative “often” could vary depending on what is considered by the respondent and the researcher as “often” for example, once a month is considered by some as “often” and by others as “sometimes”. This type of differences in interpretation can occur between countries with cultural variations in the perception of time⁹, but it is also possible that it varies across departments as well as across individuals. For example, an employee at the marketing department could consider once a month as “often” while an employee at the research and development department would consider this as “seldom”. Consequently, in an attempt to minimise the interpretation problems both at the cultural and individual level *an absolute time frequency scale is used in this study*, that is the respondent is asked to indicate if something occurs “daily”, “weekly”, “monthly”, “yearly”, or “never”, instead of using “seldom”, “often” or other relative labels.

Five of the twenty-four items included in this study were measured on the above described absolute time-frequency scale, the other items were measured on a five-point scale

⁶ Two of these items were included in another area of IPL than the two constructs discussed above (see chapter 6 for further discussion). These two items had similar patterning effect within-countries, but were not identified as internally consistent.

⁷ The two samples will be further discussed in this chapter and the next chapter in this dissertation.

⁸ These items will be described in further detail in a later section of this chapter.

⁹ See e.g. the work of Hall (1959) for an introduction to cultural differences in the perception of time.

that varied from “not at all” to “a very large extent”. This type of scale suffers from a lack of an equivalent reference point at the high end of the scale. One reason for the inclusion of the scale was that it had the required format that facilitated the incorporation of the questions formulated in this dissertation project into the Conglomerate’s internal questionnaire. The second reason was the intention to avoid the typical value-laden “agree or disagree with statements “that would be more susceptible to in-equivalence of meaning discussed above, and finally it was deemed as difficult to use the absolute time scale on these items. It is acknowledged that caution should be used when interpreting this type of scale. Consequently, the constructs consisting of items with similar patterning effects seen as having equivalent meaning in the countries included in this study are measured on scales that do not necessarily have an equivalent meaning in all the countries in this study. However, the items that were not included in any equivalence generating patterns, where measured on equivalent absolute times scales.

Group Generated Response Bias

A classical problem in cross-national studies can be described as a group generated bias, which is one of the most difficult issues to handle in cross-national research. This is when a group of respondents’ answers tend to cluster together at some part of the scale. It is possible that most respondents answer very low on most of the items in some countries if the norm is to understate, while they score high if it is the norm to exaggerate. The problem occurs when both groups “in reality” have similar opinions about a matter, but they score low or high due to a norm based response bias. This is a difficult problem to handle since the use of standardisation procedures will not only eliminate any national response bias, but perhaps also the differences across countries that was the object of study. It is suggested by Smith and Schwartz (1995) that theoretically grounded hypotheses about how values relate to other variables can be used to distinguish whether the differences in responses across countries are due to measurement bias or substantial differences¹⁰. This is the chosen approach in this dissertation and how values are hypothesised to relate to interpersonal leadership is discussed in chapter 7 and analysed in chapter 8. In addition, it is to be observed that this problem is most probably less prevalent for the items measured on the specific time scale. Finally, the variance, standard deviations and histograms for each item in this study have been examined in an attempt to capture any signs of

¹⁰ Smith and Schwartz refer to Schwartz, Verkasalo, Antonovsky & Sagiv (in press) in their discussion.

national group generated biases in the data. Whether the data is affected by any such group-generated bias is not readily apparent.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Development of the questionnaire was carried out during early spring 1992¹¹, and the first data collection was conducted in Kabi-Pharmacia in late spring 1992. A second data collection was carried in the other Procordia-owned companies¹² during the autumn of 1992 and spring of 1993 with a shorter version of the questionnaire. The collected data was coded during 1993.

The questionnaire covers three sets of items, where *the first set of questions includes items operationalising interpersonal leadership that were formulated uniquely for the study presented in this dissertation*. The other two sets were formulated by the Conglomerate¹³. One set of questions included a number of employee characteristics, such as the nationality, age and gender of the employee, as well as the employees' work position, and at which department, and in which company the employee is currently working. The third set consisted of questions formulated by the Conglomerate to measure the employees' degree of satisfaction and belief in the future. Only the two first mentioned sets of questions will be described in detail below, since

¹¹ The Conglomerate, Procordia, was employing a Swedish survey consulting company, Askus, for developing a questionnaire on employee attitudes and work satisfaction. Representatives from Askus approached Professor Gunnar Hedlund at the Institute of International Business at the Stockholm School of Economics in Sweden. Askus had an interest in using the questionnaire to detect cultural similarities and differences and the representatives from Procordia found this to be an interesting project. Professor Hedlund asked if I was interested in this opportunity, which I was, but for studying differences and similarities in employees' perceptions and preferences for "interpersonal leadership" across countries rather than culture. However, I explained to representatives from both Askus and Procordia that the identified differences in employees' perceptions and preferences in "interpersonal leadership" would be analysed from a cultural perspective. This was agreed to and two thirds of the last page of the questionnaire were placed at my discretion for formulating any questions that I found relevant for the research purpose. There was a limitation in that the format of the questions should follow the existing format used in the questionnaire to as large an extent as possible. In addition, representatives from both Askus and Procordia reviewed the selection of items before they were sent to the authorised translators in London, the United Kingdom, used by Askus. Only a few of the items received any comments and these could be accommodated without affecting the purpose of the research project.

¹² See chapter 4 for details about the Procordia owned companies.

¹³ As mentioned in footnote 5 the Conglomerate, Procordia, was working together with a survey consulting company Askus on the development of their attitude and job satisfaction questions, as well as the production, distribution and coding of the collected data.

the latter set of questions was not analysed within the frame of the study presented in this dissertation¹⁴.

Operationalising Interpersonal Leadership

Four different areas of dependent variables were discussed in the review of earlier multi-country comparative studies of topics related to interpersonal leadership in the preceding chapter. One area was *“participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation”*. This was an area that received an increased interest during the late seventies and early eighties. Amidst the important findings from these studies was the result that attitudes towards “participation in decision-making” did not necessarily have to correspond with attitudes towards “interpersonal participation”¹⁵. Consequently, it was decided to operationalise items for both types of participation. *“Influence and control”* is an area that has decreased in interest, somewhat surprising given that the responses to these types of questions varied strongly across countries. However, the decline in interest is understandable in the light of the increased attention given to managerial concepts such as the self-managing employee and self-managing teams. This is a topic that deserves more study since one of the basic assumptions both in leadership theory and among practitioners is that there is a dichotomy of autocratic-directive managerial style versus democratic-participative managerial style. In other words, authoritarian managers are not expected to engage in participative managerial practices and vice versa. In addition, a positive attitude towards “influence and control” is not expected to prevail in highly participative organisations and vice versa. The third area is what was earlier referred to as “rewards and sanctions”, but is currently labelled *“positive and negative feedback”*. The change in terminology is in line with that applied in studies of a later date¹⁶. This is an area that has been shown to vary across countries, but it is often presented in the shadows of more unexpected or spectacular findings in comparative studies of interpersonal leadership. The fourth area is an area that has continuously been receiving increased attention since the first studies in the “human relation school” were initiated. This area will be referred to as

¹⁴ The data on employees’ job satisfaction and belief in the future is not analysed in this dissertation. Instead it is a part of a current project analysing employees’ attitudes and job satisfaction when working with national managers compared to non-national managers (Zander, 1997 forthcoming).

¹⁵ “Interpersonal participation” refers to managers’ soliciting employees’ advice and suggestions, while participation in decision-making refers to varying degrees of participation in terms of how involved the employee is in the decision-making. See chapter 2 for a discussion of the studies of participation.

¹⁶ An early example of change was when one of Fayol’s categories of managerial work was changed from “command” to “motivate”. Change in assumption of human nature of theory x to y is another such example.

“individual and team concerns”. The exact phrasing of the items used to operationalise all four areas are presented in table 3.1¹⁷.

Table 3.1: Items used to measure the dependent variables in this dissertation

Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation	Scale¹
To what extent should your immediate manager delegate responsibility to you (delegate) ² ?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager share decision-making with you (decision-making)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager discuss company strategies with you (strategies)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager take advice from you (advice)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager appreciate your taking initiative (initiative)?	extent
Influence and Control	Scale
How often should your immediate manager supervise your job in detail (supervise)?	time
How often should your immediate manager review your achievements in comparison with your job objectives and expectations (review)?	time
To what extent should your immediate manager follow-up your job performance (follow-up)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager direct your department’s work by using rules and regulations (rules)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager influence your way of looking at your work (influence)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager offer you rewards to encourage work (rewards)?	extent
Positive and Negative Feedback	Scale
How often should your immediate manager make you feel proud of your work (proud)?	time
To what extent should your immediate manager recognise your good work (recognise)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager praise your efforts (not only the outcome) (effort)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager formally reprimand poor performances (reprimand)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction (dissatisfaction)?	extent
Individual and Team Concerns	Scale
How often should your immediate manager and you communicate with each other (communication)?	time
How often should your immediate manager take an interest in and talk about your personal life with you (personal)?	time
To what extent should your immediate manager take an interest in your career (career)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager make you do your utmost (you)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager try to make you feel part of a team (team)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager make the department perform its utmost (department)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers (co-operation)?	extent
To what extent should your immediate manager inform you about the department/section plans and aims (inform)?	extent

¹time: 1=daily, 2=weekly, 3=monthly, 4=yearly, 5=never, and extent: 1=“not at all”....5=“to a very large extent”

²key words to denote each item, when presenting data in tables and discussing results, are indicated within parenthesis

¹⁷ The phrasing of the items will vary somewhat in the flow of the sentences in the text of this dissertation, but the exact phrasing used in the questionnaire is in Table 3.1. In addition, the items were not presented in this order in the questionnaire, and as mentioned earlier in this chapter exactly the same items are asked twice, but using “does your immediate manager” instead of “should your immediate manager” for the second response set.

Each of the areas will be discussed in more detail below, starting with “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation”, followed by “influence and control”, “positive and negative feedback” , and finally “individual and team concerns”.

Participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation

“Participation in decision-making” has been operationalised in numerous studies by using statements (or cases). The respondents were asked to choose one decision-making method on a continuum of methods of how each case was handled, or should be handled, from a decision-making perspective. This design has several advantages, such as establishing a common reference point by describing the decision-making situations, and achieving precision in the measurement by differentiating between various decision-making methods. None of this was feasible in the design of the questionnaire for this dissertation due to space limitation, and the restriction of a standardised response format¹⁸. The solution was to choose three different types of decision-making methods by phrasing the items as (see table 3.1 for the exact phrasing of items): to what extent the immediate manager should *discuss company strategies* with the respondent, should *share decision-making* with the respondent, and should *delegate responsibility* to the respondent. Consequently, these three questions can be regarded as similar to what is often referred to as “consultative decision-making”, “joint decision-making”, and “delegation”. Thus, on continuums of “participation in decision-making” with five methods of participation, the three items mentioned above would be comparable to the three methods that are “closest” to the subordinate on the continuum. The two methods closest to the manager in most continuums are often not methods of “participation”; instead, it is the manager alone who makes the decisions, and then informs or explains the decision to the subordinates¹⁹. It has been shown in earlier research that these two methods are seldom the preferred choice of subordinates. However, in the current study the respondents have the option of scoring “not at all” if they consider that it is the manager who should make all the decisions.

“Interpersonal participation” is operationalised with these items: to what extent the immediate manager should *take advice* from the respondent, and to what extent the immediate manager should *appreciate that the respondent takes the initiative*. These two items are stronger

¹⁸ The Conglomerate was exceedingly generous in supplying the opportunity to add questions to their own internal survey. Thus, the space and format restrictions were seen as a challenge, (rather than a problem), to the research design.

than soliciting ideas and suggestions which is the phrasing most often used in earlier research. The formulation of the first mentioned question of “taking advice” is a result of informal interviews with managers who have been working abroad for longer time spans in several of the continents. In their experience soliciting ideas and suggestions could be carried out for a variety of reasons and did not necessarily entail interpersonal participation. However, one of the notable differences across countries, in their experience, was whether managers took advice from their subordinates. Listening to and taking advice from the subordinates were seen as a type of interpersonal participation. “Appreciating initiative” is a broader concept than those used in earlier research, and it includes both ideas generated by employees and work conducted resulting from employees’ initiative. Both items also attempt to capture the flavour of current research. This does not only refer to the prevailing “theory y” assumption of human nature, but to concepts such as the “self-managing employee”, and “self-managing teams” which are debated and studied in contemporary work psychology and organisational behaviour research.

Influence and control

In earlier research on influence and control, questions on supervision, the exercise of rules, and direction of work, as well as items on influence over people have often been asked. Management by objectives (MBO) is often referred to as a “modern” form of directing work. Managers who manage employees in accordance with MBO ideas review their subordinates to evaluate if objectives have been achieved. However, it is the employees’ responsibility and concern as to how the work should be carried out in order to achieve the objectives.

Five items were formulated. The first and most debated item was how often managers should *supervise the respondent’s work in detail*²⁰. The second item was how often the immediate manager should *review the respondent’s achievements in accordance with objectives and expectations*. Both of these items have fixed response categories in form of “daily”, “weekly”, “monthly”, “yearly”, and “never” (see table 3.1).

The review question specifically mentions that it should be carried out in comparison with objectives and achievements. Thus, there was a need to formulate a more general item that captures the respondents’ preferences for the extent to which the immediate manager should

¹⁹ The first method is often labelled “telling” and the second method is often referred to as “selling” (see Chapter two for further discussion).

follow-up the respondents' work performance. If the respondents prefer detailed supervision, perhaps they have a need for the manager to follow-up their work to ensure that instructions have been carried out in a satisfactory manner. Alternatively, it is also possible that there are respondents who consider that it is still the managers' job to follow up the subordinates' work performance, although they do not have preference for frequent supervision.

Three more forms of "influence and control" are included in the questionnaire. The first is influencing work *by offering rewards to encourage work.* This is intended to capture the positive aspects of influence through encouragement rather than supervision and control. The second form is very explicit and clear in ensuring both influence and control in how the work is carried out *by using rules and regulations.* The third form attempts to capture the more implicit and subtle forms by examining if the immediate managers should *influence the respondent's way of looking at their work.* Influence over people and work in general has been measured in earlier studies, but in line with the discussion above, it was decided to focus the questions on the respondent's situation and to use more specific phrasing of items in the current study.

Positive and negative feedback

In the third area the items operationalising positive feedback include how often the immediate managers should *make respondents feel proud of their work,* and to what extent the manager should *recognise good work* done by their subordinates. Both these items are very output-oriented, but some employees would perhaps appreciate it if their immediate managers *praised their efforts (not only the outcome).* In other words, this is an attempt to capture more process-oriented type of feedback. It is possible that some employees do prefer to be praised during the work process, and thus feel that they have their managers' support rather than to simply be acknowledged, if at all, when the work is completed.

Two forms of negative feedback are included in the questionnaire. The first is to what extent the manager should *formally reprimand poor performance.* The second is much stronger, and perhaps controversial, in that it questions to what extent the managers should *raise their voice to express dissatisfaction.* "Expressing dissatisfaction" is a much more emotional phrasing than "reprimanding poor performance", particularly when it refers to expressing dissatisfaction by raising his/her voice. This strong emotional phrasing may be seen as

²⁰ This item was debated during the development of the questionnaire. Some representatives from the Conglomerate believed that supervision was an outdated form of managerial behaviour, and consequently, it was not necessary to include it in the questionnaire.

unconventional, but it is a result of the earlier mentioned informal talks with managers with wide international experience. They emphasised that in some countries subordinates seemed to expect an autocratic paternalistic type of leadership, and within this role the managers should clearly and strongly indicate dissatisfaction. In other words, the manager is expected to be satisfied or dissatisfied with the work carried out by the subordinates as if they had done it for him/her personally rather than for the organisation. Furthermore, the subordinates would assume that the work that they had carried out was done to satisfaction unless the opposite was strongly indicated.

Individual and team concerns

Finally, individual and team concerns constitute the fourth area, and as mentioned above, these concerns have continued to increase in interest over the years. A concern for the individual employee's development and life can be expressed in different ways. First, concern can be shown by the extent to which the immediate manager should take *an interest in the respondent's career*, or perhaps through how often the manager *takes an interest in and talk about the respondent's personal life with them*. The intention was to establish whether the subordinates consider that their managers should be concerned not only about their careers, but also about their lives outside work. The item, *how often should you and your immediate manager communicate with each other*, is an attempt to operationalise a preference for communication in general, about any topic. It is possible that employees do not want their managers to engage themselves in their careers nor in their private lives *per se*, but they want to frequently communicate with their managers.

Another facet of both individual and team concern is the manager's ability to enlist co-operation and the best endeavours of others as is mentioned in the discussion of interpersonal leadership in chapter one. One step towards this is to encourage and ensure that the individual subordinate, does his/her best in his/her own work as well as working with others. Regarding the individual employee, the following items are included in the questionnaire: to what extent the managers should *make the respondents do their utmost*, and to what extent the managers should *try to make the respondents feel part of a team*. Regarding the work of employees, the following items are included in the questionnaire: to what extent the managers *should make the department perform its utmost*, and to what extent they should *encourage co-operation between associates and co-workers*.

Finally, an additional question is asked about to what extent the immediate manager should *inform the employees about the department's plans and aims*. This item attempts to operationalise information of a more general nature in line with recent studies rather than information regarding work tasks that was more common in earlier research. Informing per se does not necessarily have to relate directly to individual or team concerns, but it could be seen as expression for such a concern.

The Operationalisation of Interpersonal Leadership in the Short Version of the Questionnaire

Four areas of interpersonal leadership: “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation”, “influence and control”, “positive and negative feedback”, as well as “individual and team concerns” had been identified in earlier research. The areas are operationalised by nineteen items on a five-point Likert type scale (ranging from “not at all” to “to a very large extent”), and five items on a time-frequency scale (including the response alternatives: “daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, and never”). Three of four areas are operationalised by items measured on both types of scales. “Participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation” was seen as too difficult to operationalise on a time-frequency scale and only items on the five-point Likert type scale were included. It was decided by the Conglomerate to use a shorter version of the questionnaire in the survey of the food, candy, brewery, tobacco, the matches and lighters companies as well as Pharmacia Biotech instead of the longer version used in Kabi Pharmacia. Eleven of the original 24 items operationalising interpersonal leadership were given space in the shorter version.

The items measured on the time-frequency scale were all included in the short version of the questionnaire, while only five items measured on the Likert type were retained. The most important criterion for the choice of which eleven items to include in the short version of the questionnaire was reliability in comparability of the items measured on the time-frequency scale. Consequently, all five items measured on the time frequency scale were retained. Two of items that were measured on the “extent” scale (“you” and “department”) were non-negotiable

items and were also retained²¹. The final four items were chosen to cover areas not already covered by the time-frequency items with the exception of negative feedback, since those items have been considered as “too extreme”.

For the first area, one item operationalising “participation in decision-making” (“delegate”), and one item operationalising “interpersonal participation” (“initiative”) was included in the short version of the questionnaire. Two items measured on the time-frequency scale (“supervise” and “review”) represented the second area in the short version, while only “proud” was included from the third area²². In the fourth area, four items operationalising individual concerns (“personal”, “communication”, “co-operation”, and “you”) and three items operationalising team concerns (“department”, “co-operation” and “information”) were retained in the shorter version of the questionnaire.

It should be noted that the selection of items for the short version was carried out before the first set of data was analysed, and thus was not based on any results from the first data collection.

The Background Variables

The background variables include both demographic variables such as nationality, age and gender of the respondent, and a number of work-related variables such as department and work position (see table 3.2 below). All questions, except on nationality, were formulated by the Conglomerate.

Many of the Procordia-owned companies had the liberty of tailoring some parts of the short version of the questionnaire to be used in their company. This affected primarily the choice of department and work position categories. The categories in the “tailored” questionnaires were re-coded to correspond to those used in the Kabi Pharmacia questionnaire for two reasons²³. First, the categories used in the Kabi Pharmacia questionnaire were of a more general nature. Second, the main analysis in this dissertation is conducted with the data obtained by the long version of the questionnaire in Kabi Pharmacia, while the data collected from the other companies are used as a hold-out sample.

²¹ They were non-negotiable since they were important for another research project on the employees’ perception of what their managers do in comparison with the employees’ preferences and this is analysed in relation to employees’ work satisfaction and belief in the future (see Zander forthcoming).

²² The negative feedback items together with a few other items were considered as “too extreme” by representatives from the Conglomerate to be included in the shorter version of the questionnaire.

²³ The re-coding will be described in a later section of this chapter.

Table 3.2: The Background Variables¹

Age Groups ²	Position	Departments ³
1. under 25 years old	1. manager (in charge of salaried staff)	1. factory floor/ production
2. 25 - 35 years old	2. specialist/researcher/senior administrator	2. laboratory/research
3. 36-45 years old	3. supervisor (in charge of manual workers)	3. technical service
4. 46-55 years old	4. salaried staff/professional	4. marketing
5. over 55 years old	5. manual/production worker	5. sales
		6. personnel/information/finance/administration
		7. warehousing/distribution/transport
		8. other department/section

¹ The Kabi-Pharmacia questionnaire. ² The age groups do not include an equal number of categories, but this was the groups chosen by Askus and Procordia. ³ The number of departments were reduced to four in the analyses.

To be observed is that when formulating the questions to be included in the survey it was not possible to use the word “manager” since from the companies’ perspective “manager” did not refer to the person in charge at all levels in the companies included in the study. Consequently, it was the companies who decided that “superior” would be used in the British version and “supervisor” in the American version consistently throughout the questionnaire. Correspondingly, it was decided in each country how the person in charge would be referred to in each language version (see appendix 3).

Regarding the respondents’ and the managers’ nationality, it was not possible to ask the respondents to state their nationality²⁴. Hence, the items had to be phrased so that the respondent could answer yes or no to the following question - *"Do you and your immediate superior come from the country in which you are now working?"*. There are separate response sets for the respondent’s nationality and for their immediate manager’s nationality in the questionnaire. The phrasing of this question varied from one country to another, but it did not ask if the respondent was a “citizen” of the country. The point was that it was the respondents who should decide if they “are” from the country. In other words, respondents may come from France and have a citizenship in the United States but still think of themselves as “French” rather than “North American”. Thus, if the question was on “citizenship” they would feel compelled to answer “yes”. This would mean that they would be seen as a representative of the United States in the database, although they think of themselves as French. However, with the current phrasing they could answer “no” and be excluded from the North American database.

²⁴ Every item had to be sanctioned by a number of managers at the Swedish MNC, both in Sweden and at the affiliates. Very few items were questioned, but the issue of stating nationality was perceived as ‘sensitive’ by a number of managers, resulting in the existing formulation of the item.

TEST AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To improve the reliability and validity, the questionnaire was informally tested and changed where considered necessary before being submitted to the translators. Another helpful method for improving validity was informal discussions with managers who have worked in several different countries. The questionnaire was originally in English and it was translated by authorised translators into twelve²⁵ different languages (including American English). Each translated version of the questionnaire was “back-translated” by a native speaker of each language. Back-translating is a procedure recommended by researchers in the field of cross-cultural management, to avoid a language bias of the data. The bias does not only occur due to incorrect translations, but also to misunderstandings of specific terms or concepts used in the questionnaire. A discussion of this problem with meaning equivalence was presented earlier in this chapter. The back-translation procedure led to a smaller number of changes before the final version of the questionnaire was printed.

A copy of the full four pages of the English version of the long questionnaire including the work satisfaction items asked by Procordia is included in appendix 3. The twelve other language versions are presented for the questions identified in this study and added to the questionnaire as well as the background variables used in the analysis in this dissertation. To be observed is that the American English translation and the Portuguese translation are presented for the short version of the questionnaire in appendix 3.

The questionnaires were distributed by the Conglomerate to its companies world-wide in different batches during one year’s time span from late spring 1992 to 1993. The questionnaires to the main sample was distributed and collected during spring 1992, while the questionnaires to the hold-out sample were administered during autumn of 1992 and during 1993. The difference in time is not seen as influencing the results, since the time period for administering the questionnaires *remained the same within each company*, although it varied *across the companies* included in the survey.

²⁵ The languages are: American, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Finnish, German, Dutch, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Japanese and Italian. The Italian questionnaire is not included in the appendices since the Italian sample was omitted from analysis.

The average response rate from the survey was 70%²⁶. Although, this is a high response rate compared to many other large scale surveys, it is important to question whether the group of non-respondents of around 30% differ from the respondents in a systematic way. This is difficult to answer since the questionnaires were filled out anonymously. However, discussions with representatives from Askus AB, who conducted the survey, and with representatives from Procordia resulted in the following two main reasons. First, it was the representatives' belief that those responsible for the survey in respective company varied in how much time they dedicated to the distribution and collection of the questionnaires and this influenced the response rate²⁷. Second, it was also their impression that the non-respondents often were employees who were in the middle of a reorganisation process within their company. Consequently, these employees did not respond to questions about their work place and immediate manager since they were moving to another position, or had just moved to another position within the organisation. Thus, it is probable, but not possible to ascertain, *that the non-respondents did not differ from the respondents in a systematic way that would have an affect on the results of this study.*

DATA TREATMENT

Data treatment before conducting the analysis included re-coding the background variables and the time-frequency scales. In addition, the "intensity order" based on response percentages was calculated to facilitate the analysis of the "ordering effect" in chapter 5. Finally, the country means were adjusted for the analysis conducted in the second part of this dissertation. These four types of data treatment will be described below.

Re-coding the Background Variables

In the long version of the questionnaire (used for the main sample) work position included five categories (see table 3.2). In a few of the other Procordia-owned companies in specific countries these five categories were altered. The data was re-coded to achieve, as far as possible, comparable work positions across all companies and countries.

²⁶ The response rate varied from a low 25% in Procordia Inc. in the United States where only 13 of 52 responded to 100% in the smaller companies and 93% in Swedish Match with more than 3,000 employees (see table 4.1 in Chapter 4 for details).

²⁷ See table 4.1 in Chapter 4 for response rates at the company level.

Eight departments were specified in the long version of the questionnaire, which was deemed too many categories to handle in the analysis of variance (ANOVA) to be carried out in the first part of this dissertation. Hence, it was decided that the following categories would be merged: 1) “factory floor and production” were merged with “warehousing and distribution and transport”, and 2) “sales” was merged with “marketing”. Two categories, “technical service” and “others” were omitted instead of re-coded, since in some countries the “technical staff” was a part of sales, while in other countries it was a part of production.

The re-coding resulted in the following four department categories: 1) production (i.e. “factory floor & production” and “warehousing & distribution & transport”), 2) sales (i.e., “sales” & “marketing”), 3) administration (i.e. “personnel” & “information” & “finance” & “administration”), and 4) research (i.e. “laboratory” & “research”). The “tailored” company questionnaires were re-coded according to the same logic.

Re-coding the Time-Frequency Scales

To ensure comparability and reliability across countries, the time frequency scale used in the study discussed in this dissertation was specific, that is, the five response categories included: daily, weekly, monthly, yearly and never. However, such a time-specific scale is ordinal and needs to be re-coded into interval values in order for it to be used for calculating means, standard deviations, and for use in various analytical statistical methods. It is important that the re-coding represents the specific values, that is daily, weekly etc., as much as possible.

The response category “never” was transformed “zero” times a year. If a task is carried out “yearly” this can be seen as done “once” a year. “Monthly” is seen as carried out “eleven” times a year with one month used as a proxy for the total amount of non-working days. It is a proxy since the number of working days lost for public, religious and private holidays vary from country to country. Subsequently, “weekly” preferences are conducted “48” times a year, and “daily” preferences are carried out “240” times a year. This re-coding was carried out for the five variables measured on a time-frequency scale in the database (see table 3.2).

Calculating “Intensity Orders”

In chapter five the ordering effect of the items within each area of interpersonal leadership is based on the “*intensity order*” of each item. In the questionnaire, the respondents have not been asked to rank the 24 items operationalising interpersonal leadership. Instead, they were asked to indicate *to what extent* their immediate manager should carry out 19 different tasks, and *how often* they should carry out five tasks. Both the “extent” and the “frequency” can be seen as the *intensity* of interpersonal leadership. This will be referred to as “*intensity order*”, not to be confused with the more common “rank order”, used when the research design is based on the rank ordering of items.

The “ordering effect” is simply the order of the items in each country based on the percentage of employees responding that an element of interpersonal leadership should be carried out intensively. “Intensity” is measured as four or five on the “extent scale”, and as daily or weekly on the time frequency scale. *The idea behind using response frequencies is to be able to include both the items measured on the extent scale and those measured on the time scale in the same comparison*²⁸.

The “intensity orders” for the items operationalising the four areas of interpersonal leadership are then ordered according to their magnitude for each country. The item within one area that is preferred by the highest percentage of employees in one country is given the order number one in that particular country for that particular area. For example, if the largest percentage of employees in Japan consider that the manager should praise their effort and not only the outcome in the area of “positive and negative feedback”, then this item will receive intensity order number one within positive and negative feedback area. Furthermore, for the items within the same area, if the second largest percentage of employees consider that the managers should recognise their good work to a large extent, then this item will receive order number two.

These intensity order numbers are then used to calculate the *area order sums* for each item by adding together the order number for each item in each country. The *range of order numbers* is simply the lowest and the highest ordering any given item has for the countries in

²⁸ However, the intensity response frequencies will not fully correspond to the means since the mean is influenced by the distribution of the response frequencies. In other words, 50% of the respondent may answer 4 or 5 for two different items, but for one of the items the other 50% of the respondents have answered 1, while for the other item they have answered 3. These two examples will generate very different means, but not different intensity response frequencies.

this study. The intensity order, the area order sum, and the range of order numbers of each item for each country are presented and discussed in chapter five.

Adjusting Country Means

In the next chapter the country samples will be described detail as to how they vary in demographic composition with regard to the respondents' age, gender, work position and department across countries. To use the raw data without any adjustments could result in comparing a country sample where the employees in majority are young factory workers with a country sample where the employees in majority are older researchers who work in R&D laboratories. This type of comparison could attribute differences to variation across countries that are related to differences in age, gender, work position or department.

This problem has most often been handled by researchers through matching the samples on those criteria found to have an substantial effect on the country mean. Other researchers have chosen to ignore the demographic differences in their samples. The country means used in the analysis in this dissertation have been adjusted to avoid a "confounding noise" due to demographic differences. These country means are adjusted according to a method used by Smith *et al* (1996). Thus, when calculating the country means of the above five variables, adjustments were made for differences in age, gender, work position and department. The adjusted country means for each country indicate the employees' preference on average regarding interpersonal leadership.

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

In the current study several statistical techniques are used for the analysis of the collected data. First, correlation analysis is conducted both within and across countries. The purpose with the correlation analysis within countries is to *identify comparable patterns* of interpersonal leadership. The across-country correlation analysis aims at *examining the relationship, if any, between interpersonal leadership and national culture* measured in earlier research.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to explore *differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries*, as well as departments, work positions, age groups and gender. *The factor analysis complements the within-country correlation analysis and can, to some extent, be seen as a validation procedure.* Finally,

cluster analysis is used in identifying similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries. *Countries in which the employees' have similar profiles of preferences cluster together.*

Correlation Analysis

In chapter 6 the aim is to measure the association between variables *within* the countries included in the study. The correlation analysis is carried out by calculating the Spearman's rank correlation coefficients since normality cannot be assumed. In chapter 8 the relationship between the dependent items²⁹ of interpersonal leadership (measured in the current study) and the independent variables of cultural derived from earlier research (not measured in this study) is examined *across* countries. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients are also used in this analysis. An additional important reason for using rank correlation procedures in the analysis is that it is the relative differences across countries, and not the absolute, that are of interest.

The correlations resulting from the analysis are included in the discussion based on the size of the correlation and its significance level. The sample size is also taken into account when considering the "significance" of the significance level. In chapter 6 the correlation coefficients are calculated *within* countries. In some countries the sample size exceeds 1,000 respondents and correlation coefficients of 0.06 are significant at the 1-% level. These correlations are not seen as "substantial correlations" and are consequently not included in the discussion. On the other hand in chapter 8 rank correlations are calculated *across* the 18 countries included in the sample presented in this dissertation. The number of countries is reduced in many of the analyses since the independent variables derived from earlier research do not supply scores for all the countries in the current study where the dependent variables have been measured. Thus, the results from the rank correlation analysis indicate correlation coefficient of .5 and above that are not significant. In chapter 8, the discussion of the relationship between employees' preferences regarding IPL and culture is based on the substantial correlations. Consequently, the significance is viewed as measuring the strength of the relationship together with the correlation coefficient.

²⁹ "Items" and "variables" are used interchangeably to refer to the questions of "interpersonal leadership" included in the questionnaire used to collect data in the study presented in this dissertation.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used to examine differences across countries, departments, work positions, age groups and gender. In both the main sample and the hold-out sample there is a disproportional larger number of respondents in some countries compared to other countries. Thus, two sample designs, *balanced* versus *unbalanced* are used in the ANOVA analysis. In the balanced design, 135 respondents were randomly selected from the countries with 135 or more respondents; the other country samples were omitted. In the unbalanced design the countries with fewer than 135 respondents were also included in the analysis. This procedure to achieve both a balanced and an unbalanced design was carried out with both the main sample and the hold-out sample.

Five background variables: nationalities, department, position, age, and gender were all entered simultaneously into the ANOVA (unique method) in order to examine their main effects on each of the interpersonal leadership variables.

The following³⁰ groups were included in each background variable³⁰

- *Nationality*: France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States (9 groups)³¹
- *Department*: Research & Development, Administration & Finance, Sales & Marketing, and Production & Transport (4 groups)³²
- *Position*: Manager, Researcher, Supervisor, Staff, Workers (5 groups)
- *Age*: less than 25 years old, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, and over 55 years old (5 groups)
- *Gender*: male and female (2 groups)

Separate ANOVAS were conducted for all 24 items of interpersonal leadership in the main sample and the 11 items in the hold-out sample. The ANOVAS were carried out with both the balanced and the unbalanced design and the resulting F-values and significance levels are presented and discussed in chapter 6.

³⁰ In the terminology used when conducting ANOVAs the background variables would be referred to as “factors”, and the groups within each factor would be referred to as “levels”.

³¹ In the analysis of the unbalanced sample the countries with the smaller sample sizes were also included in the analysis, i.e. Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Canada, Finland, and Switzerland).

³² Re-coding of departments was carried out as described earlier in this chapter.

Factor Analysis

The question whether employees in a multi-national sample have a similar perception of managerial behaviour as that hitherto consistently generated in earlier research, that is, the task-oriented and relations-oriented behaviour, could be approached by conducting a factor analysis. The objective of a factor analysis is to simplify complex and diverse relationships that exist among observable variables. Thus, by uncovering common dimensions that link together different variables, an insight into the underlying structure of the data is provided (Dillon & Goldstein, 1984). The identification of common dimensions also allows comparisons across groups such as different countries, companies, and departments. In this study it is the comparison of managerial behaviour across countries that is of interest.

The notion of uncovering “common” dimensions raises the question of what can be seen as “common”, or “universal” dimensions that are comparable in an international context. The on-going debate (see e.g., Leung & Bond, 1989, Bond & Smith 1994, and Triandis, 1994) uses the concepts of “etic” versus “emic” to distinguish between universal and specific issues. Etic refers to a cultural dimension or cultural elements which exist in all countries and can be seen as comparable across countries, while emic refers to those cultural elements which are specific to a certain country³³. One method used for deriving etic dimensions is to calculate the means of each item for each country and then submit these country means into a factor analysis. This procedure, referred to as an ecological analysis (Robinson, 1950, and Hofstede 1980), results in etic dimensions according to its advocates. The factor analysis at the ecological level, that is, using country means, can result in quite different factor structures as opposed to using the individual data. One reason for this is that correlations between items at the country level may not be the same as those at the individual level. This phenomenon does not worry Robinson (1950), Shweder (1973) and Hofstede (1980) who argue that analysis at the individual level should not be confused with analysis at the cultural level³⁴. Leung and Bond (1989) cite Shweder (1973:543) as follows: “valid indicators of a theoretical variable may be discovered across a representative sample of cultures without being

³³ For an in-depth discussion of “etic”, “emic”, “universal” and “common” see chapter 7.

³⁴ Hofstede mentions that the factor analysis results in different analysis depending on whether he uses individual data or country aggregated data. He mentions that factor analysis of all individuals (that is, from all countries) results in a similar factor solution as those performed within each country, but he does not obtain a similar factor solution when using only country means. He decides to use the factor solution deriving from the factor analysis of country means.

discoverable within any of them, or may be discovered within any of them without being discovered within each of all cultures without being discoverable across them.”

Leung and Bond (1989) attempt to cast some light on the identification of ‘etic’ dimensions by advocating another method than the ecological factor analysis. They argue that performing a factor analysis of the individual data, after the data has been standardised, will result in etic dimensions. The individual data needs to be standardised so that each item has the mean of 0 and the standard deviation of 1 within each country in order to eliminate the differences between respondents from different countries. What is being eliminated is the situation that one country (the country mean of all the respondents in that particular country) will score high on a certain item while another country will have a lower mean on that same item. This is referred to as the “positioning effect”. The reason for eliminating the positioning effect is to be able to clearly identify which items correlate with each other. This is referred to as the “patterning effect”. The patterns indicate if, and how, items correlate, for example, if there is a negative, a positive, or no correlation at all between the items under study. It is possible that two items correlate positively in one country, negatively in another, and not at all in a third country. This is what Leung and Bond would argue, a “culture-specific” pattern. Only if a relationship between items, that is, pattern of correlations, is similar from one country to another is it possible to talk about a ‘universal’ (or etic) dimension, according to Leung and Bond. After extracting factors representing the patterning effect, these can be compared in terms of positioning effect between countries by computing the factor scores with the unstandardised data. Thus, two countries could show the same relationship between two items such as a positive correlation, that is, patterning effect, but their average scores would differ in that one country scores high and the other scores low, that is, positioning effect. Leung and Bond argue that their above proposed procedure results in etic dimensions, while the more commonly used ecological analysis identifies cultural and not etic dimensions. The authors emphasise that the etic factors are meaningful dimensions for individual variation while the ‘cultural’ factors are meaningful dimensions for cultural variation. They mention that the factors derived from the individual data often differ from those derived from a factor analysis of country means, but when these two correspond, a strong etic dimension has been identified. From the above discussion it becomes evident that deriving dimensions which are meaningful for comparing preferred managerial behaviour across countries involves difficult and controversial decisions. First, there is a logic to the argument that it is possible to identify

meaningful dimensions from the ecological analysis which would not be discovered within each country as Shweder, Robertson and Hofstede emphasise. However, if a comparison of the country scores is intended to be done on the ecologically derived dimensions, then a question to raise is *whether it is meaningful to compare factors which may not exist in some of the countries studied*. Conducting an ecological factor analysis results in factors with a certain relationship between a number of items in each factor, for example, three items correlate strongly positively in one factor. However, when each country is studied separately it could become apparent that this relationship holds true for only a number of countries, while in other countries some of the items may correlate negatively or not at all. Thus, a comparison across countries would be made on factors said to reflect underlying structures of the data, but these underlying structures do not exist in all the countries being compared. When performing a factor analysis with the individual data (within-country standardised) the generated factor solution will only include factors that exist in each of the countries in the study.

Second, there is the effect of sample size. It has been argued that the number of subjects should be higher than the number of items to achieve stable results from a factor analysis. Nunally (1978) argues that a ratio of ten to one is necessary, while Guilford (1954) emphasises that there should be at least twice as many subjects as items. Leung and Bond mention both of these ratios when they discuss the problems of achieving these ratios when the subject is a country and not an individual. Hofstede, Bond and Luk (1993:491) stress that this limitation does not apply to ecological factor analysis since the country means used in a factor analysis are reflective of a large number of individual scores and then are "extremely stable and independent of odd individual answers." Although it is reassuring to know that the ecological factor solution will not be unstable due to the sample size in terms of the country means, it is possible to raise the question of the effect of sample size as regards the absolute number of subjects involved. This question becomes pertinent in the discussion related to the ecological factor analysis' potential for uncovering unknown relationships. As earlier mentioned the factor analysis can, and often does, identify factors which do not exist within each country and this is argued to be related to performing an analysis at the country and not the individual level. The question to raise is whether the "ecological level" factor structure reflects such unique country level factor structures of items or if it is a consequence of running a factor analysis with very few subjects.

For the purpose of the analysis in this paper, that is to identify common factors of managerial behaviour which can be compared across countries, it is deemed necessary to identify factors that exist in each country. *Hence, an ecological factor analysis will not be performed. Instead, the method of using individual level data (which has been standardised within each country and then pooled together) suggested by Leung and Bond (1989) will be used to generate factors.* The sample sizes from each country in the current study are of unequal sizes³⁵. To prevent the country with the largest size, in this case Sweden with 51% of the respondents, determining and driving the factoring of the variables, the sample sizes have been matched by using weights. The factor solution is presented and discussed in appendix 6.3 and the results from the discussion are highlighted in Chapter 6.

Cluster Analysis

The purpose of the cluster analysis conducted in this dissertation is to examine if there are countries in which employees have *similar* preferences regarding interpersonal leadership, and consequently “cluster” together into groups. In addition, if it is possible to identify the distinct *differences* between the clusters of countries. Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984) observe that classification is a basic human conceptual activity, and they introduce their book on cluster analysis with the quote below.

An Ancient Chinese Classification of Animals

Animals are divided into (a) those who belong to the Emperor, (b) embalmed ones, (c) those who are trained, (d) suckling pigs, (e) mermaids, (f) fabulous ones, (g) stray dogs, (h) those that are included in this classification, (i) those that tremble as if they were mad, (j) innumerable ones, (k) those drawn with a very fine camel's hair brush, (l) others, (m) those that have just broken a flower vase, and (n) those that resemble flies from a distance (Jorge Luis Borges, *Other Inquisitions: 1937-1952*)

Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984) emphasise that “cluster analysis” is a generic name for a wide variety of procedures used to classify entities³⁶. It was decided that the *iterative*

³⁵ See chapter 4 for information regarding sample sizes in each country.

³⁶ According to Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984:7) “the clustering method is a multivariate statistical method that starts with a data set containing information about sample of entities and attempts to reorganise these entities into relatively homogenous groups”.

*partitioning clustering method*³⁷ would be used when examining the similarities in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries³⁸.

The iterative partitioning method allocates cases to clusters based on a dissimilarity measure³⁹, Euclidean distance. This measure is sensitive to differences in magnitude. Thus, in order to prevent variables measured on scales with larger size and standard deviation differences⁴⁰ dominating the other variables, it is necessary to enter standardised items into the cluster analysis procedure. Consequently, the adjusted country means were standardised and entered into the cluster analysis procedure. The number of clusters to be derived through the iterative partitioning method has to be specified beforehand. The *decision of how many clusters* to request was based on findings from earlier research where country clusters had been generated. Thus, seven clusters were retrieved in the main sample, and eight clusters in the hold-out sample. However, the effects of choosing other numbers of clusters are discussed in chapter 8.

Another advantage of the iterative partitioning method is that the cluster centres that were generated in the main analysis could be saved and used as initial starting centres in the hold-out analysis. Thus, it was possible to ascertain in the hold-out analysis not only if the same countries clustered together as in the main analysis, but also if they had a similar profile of preferences for interpersonal leadership as in the main analysis.

³⁷ One reason for choosing the iterative partitioning method instead of the more commonly used hierarchical agglomerative method is that the cases are first assigned to clusters and can be reassigned to another cluster during the iterative process. The hierarchical agglomerative method only makes one pass through the data, so poor initial partitioning of the data is not modified in subsequent steps. In addition, once a cluster is made it cannot be split, only joined with another cluster; thus, the latter produces clusters that are nested and a part of a hierarchy (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984).

³⁸ It has been demonstrated by Cronbach and Glaser (1953) and discussed by Aldenderfer and Blashfield that the *similarity* between profiles of variables can be decomposed into three parts: 1) *shape*: the patterns of dips and rises across the variables, 2) *elevation*: the mean score of the case over all of the variables, and 3) *scatter*: the dispersion of scores around average. Aldenderfer and Blashfield emphasise that using correlation coefficients instead of dissimilarity measures can be directly misleading since both elevation and dispersion (scatter) in profile data are not included when forming the clusters. An alternative, according to Aldenderfer and Blashfield, is to combine correlation coefficients with dissimilarity measures to determine if it is shape, elevation or scatter that contributes to similarity across cases as was done by Skinner (1978).

³⁹ The distance measures are referred to as "dissimilarity measures" since if the distance between two cases are equal to zero, the two cases are similar as opposed to measures such as correlation coefficient which are considered similar when they are close to one (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984).

⁴⁰ The time frequency items measured on a scale from 0 to 240 compared to the extent items measured on a scale from 1 to 5.

RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND GENERALISATION

The two important questions to answer according to Kerlinger (1986) are “what is the *reliability* of the measuring instrument” and “what is the *validity* of the measuring instrument”. In addition the question of the generalisation of the results will be addressed.

Reliability of the Constructs

Kerlinger argues that research instruments that are identified as dependable, stable, consistent, and predictable are reliable, while unreliable instruments display the opposite characteristics. In addition, the degree of precision and accuracy will determine an instrument’s reliability. Thus, a reliable instrument is minimally affected by random measurement error, and if the measurement is repeated it will yield similar results. Simply phrased, if the instrument consistently measures what it is intended to measure, the reliability of the instrument is high. Assessment of reliability when using constructs refers to how accurate, on average, a construct created by adding items together will measure the “true” score of a population⁴¹. The observed score includes both the “true” score and an unknown amount of random error. According to Lord and Novick (1968:30-31) the “true” score can be defined as the expected value of an observed score, which can be interpreted as the average score an individual “would obtain on infinitely many independent repeated measurements (an unobservable quantity)”⁴². In the long run, “positive” and “negative” random errors are expected to cancel each other.

The *internal consistency method* can be used for estimating the reliability of empirical measurements⁴³. Cronbach’s alpha is the coefficient used to assess internal consistency in the constructs used in the study presented in this dissertation. The coefficient is calculated as follows where N is equal to the number of items, $\sum\sigma^2(Y_i)$ is equal to the sum of item variances, and σ^2_x is equal to the variance of the total construct:

$$\alpha = \frac{N}{N(N-1)} [1 - \frac{\sum \sigma^2(Y_i)}{\sigma^2_x}]$$

⁴¹ For a more elaborate and scholarly discussion of assessment of reliability see e.g., Nunally (1978), Carmines and Zeller (1979) as well as Kerlinger (1986).

⁴² Kerlinger (1986:407) in their discussion of Lord & Novick’s definition of a “true” score emphasise that “a “true” score is a fiction, albeit a useful fiction”.

⁴³ Carmines and Zeller (1979) suggest four methods for assessing the reliability of empirical measurements: the split-halves method, the re-test method, the alternative-form method, and the internal consistency method. The first two mentioned alternatives are not recommended by Carmines and Zeller since the results from first test, or the first half of the sample, will influence the results from the second test or the second half of the sample.

Cronbach's alpha increases with the average inter-item correlation and the number of items on the scale. If items are added to the scale, they will increase the reliability of the measuring instrument, unless the added items do not correlate at all with the other items in the construct. However, if the items correlate weakly the increase will be progressively less with an increased amount of items. Cronbach's alpha is regarded as a robust and conservative measure of internal consistency⁴⁴ Nunally (1978) has suggested that the Cronbach alpha should be 0.7 and above to be considered reliable, while Carmines and Zellar (1979) argue that that the alphas should not be below 0.8 as a general rule.

Cronbach alphas for the constructs used in the current study were calculated within each country as presented and discussed in chapter 6. In a few cases items had to be deleted due to low inter-item correlation which improved the reliability of the construct. In most of the countries the alphas were above 0.8, some were above 0.7, and only one construct in one country had an alpha of 0.69.

Validity of the Constructs

Kerlinger (1986) emphasises that the topic of validity is complex, controversial and important. The particular difficulty lies in that the concept of validity is related to the nature and the meaning of the variables, and that this is often not possible to measure. The question in focus according to Kerlinger (1986:417) is "are we measuring what we think we are measuring". Thus, reliability indicates how accurate something is being measured, while the validity indicates *if what is intended to be measured is in fact being measured*.

The three most important types of validity are "content", "criterion-based", and "construct" according to Kerlinger⁴⁵. *Content validation* is guided by the question "is the substance or content of this measure representative of the content or the universe of content of the property being measured" (Kerlinger, 1986:417). Content validation consists mainly of judgement, and the representativeness of the items have to be judged in relation to what is intended to be measured. The *criterion-related validity* places emphasis on the criterion and the prediction to an outside criterion. Thus, the research instrument is verified against some outcome or measure, and it is this criterion that is difficult to define. The *construct validity* is

⁴⁴ For further discussion and tests see Nunally (1978) and Novick and Lewis (1967).

different from the other two types of validity since it is related to theory, theoretical constructs, and the scientific empirical inquiry involved in testing hypothesised relations, according to Kerlinger. The important question is *why* there is a relationship⁴⁶. Consequently, these three forms of validation can be expressed in the following way: identifying *why* there should be a relationship between the construct and other variables, if the items used to measure the construct are *representative* of the intent with the construct, and finally, if the constructs predict what *they* are intended to predict. These three types of validation display the difficulties in validation, in terms of subjective judgement, in particular of the representativeness, and the criteria for predictions.

In the current study, the items used to operationalise interpersonal leadership were derived theoretically in chapter two, and how representative the items are for the constructs they measure are discussed in chapter six. The items measure the dependent variables in this study, but predictions are made on how they relate to the independent variables that were derived in earlier research in chapter seven. Thus, these are discussions related to the three forms of validation discussed above. However, as mentioned, they are subjective forms of assessing validity.

Two other strongly advocated methods for validation are the use of a holdout sample and the use of factor analysis. Although the latter should be used with care as Carmines and Zeller (1979) emphasise, factor analysis that are simplistically interpreted could be misleading rather than validating. Factor analysis has been carried out with Carmines and Zeller's words taken into consideration. The resulting factors are presented and discussed in chapter 6. The results from the factor analysis correspond to the constructs that were derived from earlier research and identified as internally consistent based on the Cronbach alpha coefficients.

Finally, validation is to some extent evaluated by the use of a holdout sample. However, the data collection in the holdout sample was carried out with the shorter version of

⁴⁵ Kerlinger (1986) refers to how the classification of the three types of validity is the result of the joint effort of the American Psychological Association, the American Educational Research Association, and the National Council on Measurements Used in Education, presented in Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests (1974).

⁴⁶ Cronbach (1970) suggests three parts to construct validation: 1) suggesting what constructs possibly account for test performance, 2) deriving hypothesis involving the construct, and 3) testing the hypothesis empirically.

the questionnaire. Thus, the constructs were to a large extent validated in the hold-out sample, although the two constructs were created with fewer items than in the main analysis.

Generalisation

The important question to raise is whether the results from the study presented in this dissertation can be generalised for a larger group of people than those that participated in the study. Peng, Peterson & Shyi (1991) point out that often only one organisation is studied in each country. Consequently, the management practices and culture of one organisation in a country is used to reflect the country's culture and management practices in general, resulting in difficulties in recognising the cross-national compared to the cross-organisational. One way to handle this is to include more than one organisation in each country, which is done in this study⁴⁷. Consequently, the results that are highlighted in this study are not only relevant for the employees of Kabi Pharmacia world-wide, but also for employees working for the companies included in the study within the following industries: food, candy, beverages, tobacco, matches and lighters in the same countries as the Kabi Pharmacia employees were working.

The results are based on responses from employees in different age groups, of different gender, with different work positions, in different departments, for different companies, in different industries, in the countries included in the study, and it is suggested that the results can be seen as tentative preferences of employees working in the countries in the study. However, it is acknowledged that generalisation can not be made to people in general in the countries included in the study, since the results from this study is not based on a random sample of respondents in each country.

⁴⁷ The question that then arises is whether there is an industry effect that could lead to difficulties in separating the cross-national from the cross-industry from the cross-organisational effects. A difficulty in this context could be to identify the boundaries of different industries. In this study there are firms from at least two different industries represented in almost every country. However, there will be some difficulties in separating the industry effect from the organisational effect (since in most cases there is only one firm from each industry).

CHAPTER 4

PROCORDIA - A PRESENTATION OF A SWEDISH CONGLOMERATE

This chapter will begin by introducing the conglomerate Procordia, its companies and organisation in 1992 and 1993. These are the years when the study discussed in this dissertation was carried out. The response rates from the survey will also be presented. The introduction will be followed by a brief historical exposé of Procordia's growth and restructuring processes from the late 1960s to the early 1990s. A presentation of the demographics of the responding employees follows. The concluding discussion focuses on the implications of using a sample of employees working in different companies which for a short period of time were parts of the same conglomerate.

PROCORDIA AT THE TIME OF THE STUDY 1992-1993¹

The conglomerate Procordia AB was the result of numerous substantial restructuring and growth processes. These processes changed and shaped Procordia from being a diversified state-owned holding company "Statsföretag AB" in the late 1960s into a focused stock-exchange registered industrial conglomerate in the 1990s. Procordia's turnover in 1992 was 40 090 million SEK, a 5% increase from 1991. The average number of employees were 40 070 and 16 151 of these were employed outside Sweden. The Conglomerate² was owned by the Swedish State and Volvo, each holding 42.7% of the voting shares. The rest of the shares were owned by banks, foundations and private parties.

During 1992, intensive negotiations were carried out between Volvo and the State to merge Volvo and Procordia. At the same time Volvo was negotiating a merger with Renault (Östman, 1994). In May, it was announced that Volvo and Procordia would not merge, but

¹ The sources used for this section are Procordia Annual Report 1992 and 1993, Procordia Directory 1993, Östman (1994) and Anell, Eliasson, Gerge, Henning, Hägg & Larsson (1992).

² Procordia AB will, in the following, also be referred to as 'conglomerate', while the companies owned by Procordia are referred to as 'company/companies'.

the State would decrease its ownership in Procordia, while Volvo would increase its ownership from 42.7% to 45%.

In September 1992, Procordia acquired Swedish Match AB³, a world leading producer of matches and lighters⁴. The management of Swedish Match promised to stay with the company if they would not be re-located from Nyon in Switzerland. During the summer of 1993, the management of a division in Procordia, United Brands, moved to Nyon, and the business area United Brands changed its name to Swedish Match⁵.

In 1992 and 1993 the business idea in Procordia was to focus on Health Care and Branded Consumer Product companies. The companies were organised in six business areas: Kabi Pharmacia, Pharmacia Biotech, Procordia United Brands, Procordia Food and Procordia Invest⁶. The focus and the organisation of each business area could be described as follows: *Kabi Pharmacia* was an international research intensive pharmaceutical company producing pharmaceuticals and self-care products. The company was the result of a merger between Kabi and Pharmacia in 1990. *Pharmacia Biotech* developed, produced and marketed instruments, chemicals and services to pharmaceutical- and biotech-companies for the development and production of biotechnology-based products. The company was the result of the merger between Kabi and Pharmacia. *Procordia United Brands* included companies that produced tobacco, confectionery, matches and disposable lighters and the newly acquired Swedish Match⁷. *Procordia Beverages* included breweries for beer and soft drinks, as well as mineral water producers⁸. *Procordia Food* included grocery importers, deep-frozen food

³ Swedish Match was founded in 1917. Swedish Match had acquired 51% of Feudor in France in 1958 and the remaining 49 % in 1971. During the 1980s the following acquisitions were made: in 1981 the Dutch company Poppell, in 1987 the American Wilkinson Sword, and in 1988 the British company Bryant & May.

⁴ During 1992, United Brands started discussions with Swedish Match for the second time. The first time was in 1989, but Swedish Match was seen as having too many unrelated business lines including razor-blades and other male cosmetic products to be of interest to Procordia. Swedish Match was instead sold by STORA to a consortium of owners including Gillette and Morgan Stanley only to be resold two years later to an Italian-Nigerian consortium. During these years Swedish Match had focused its activities and was now of interest to Procordia (Östman, 1994).

⁵ The two companies' cultures were seen as quite different and it did not make sense to have United Brands' management at such a distance from the Swedish Match management in Nyon (Östman, 1994).

⁶ This organisation of Procordia only lasted during 1992 and half of 1993 before Branded Consumer Products and the Investment companies were sold off to Volvo. Procordia was left with Kabi Pharmacia and Pharmacia Biotech, and changed its name to Pharmacia AB.

⁷ Other companies reporting to Procordia United Brands are: Ahlgrens AB (Sweden), Damel S.A (Spain), EBAS Group B.V. (the Netherlands), John Solomon Inc (United Kingdom), Pinkerton Group Inc (United States), Swedish Tobacco AB (Sweden), and Swedish Tobacco GmbH (Germany).

⁸ The companies reporting to Procordia Beverages included: AB Pripps Bryggerier (Sweden), A/S Hansa Bryggeri (Norway), Sofiero Bryggeri AB (Sweden), and AB Ramlösa Hälsobrunn. (Sweden).

producers with an emphasis on fish and seafood, and health food companies⁹. *Procordia Invest* was Procordia's internal investment company for developing the companies owned by Procordia that were active outside the core areas, Health Care and Branded Consumer Products¹⁰.

Most of the companies owned by Procordia in 1992 and 1993 participated in the survey reported in this dissertation (see table 4.1 for response rates by company). It was a decision by the management of Procordia not to conduct the survey in most of the Investment companies. It was also decided to omit companies in Italy from the survey due to the ongoing negotiations with Montedison to buy the pharmaceutical companies Farmitalia Carlo Erba in Italy and Erbamont Inc. in the United States. The first part of the survey was conducted at Kabi Pharmacia during the spring and summer of 1992. During the autumn of 1992 and spring of 1993 the second part of the survey was carried out at the companies within the five other business areas including the newly acquired Swedish Match.

⁹ The companies reporting to Procordia Food included: AB Felix (Sweden), Felix Abba Oy (Finland), Felix Austria GmbH (Austria), Ekströms Önos AB (Sweden), Österberg & Löfqvists (Sweden), Abba Seafood AB (Sweden), Procordia Health Food AB (Sweden), Procordia Food Norge A/S (Norway), and A/S Beauvais (Denmark).

¹⁰ The companies reporting to Procordia Invest were: Bryggeri AB Falken (Sweden), Flavoring AB (Sweden), JEDE AB (Sweden), Partena AB (Sweden), Lithell & Fast Food AB (Sweden), Sockerbolaget AB (Sweden), Suttons Seeds Ltd (United Kingdom), and Wallac Oy (Finland)

Table 4.1: Response Rates from the Survey 1992-1993*

Company organised by business area (BA)	total number of employees	number of distributed questionnaires	number of returned questionnaires	response rate %
BA KABI PHARMACIA				
Kabi Pharmacia*	9 543	9 543	5169	54%
Pharmacia Deltec**	725	725	633	87%
BA PHARMACIA BIOTECH				
Pharmacia Biotech	2 152	2 055	1 610	78%
Pharmacia Biosensor***	120	110	96	87%
BA UNITED BRANDS				
United Brands Head Office	11	11	11	100%
Swedish Match	3 944	3 493	3 251	93%
Pinkerton Tobacco	770	770	584	76%
Pinkerton Group	13	13	12	92%
Ahlgrens Svenska Försälj. AB	75	75	55	73%
Oy Ahlgrens-AFL	21	20	19	95%
BA BEVERAGES				
Pripps	2830	2830	2081	74%
Sofiero Kivik	54	54	45	83%
Ramlösa	113	107	96	90%
Hansa A/S	580	580	383	66%
BA FOOD				
Abba AB	567	563	464	82%
Seafood A/S	560	560	428	76%
Abba Glyngore GmbH	21	21	11	52%
Lighthouse of Scotland	44	44	44	100%
AB Felix	1 353	1 202	963	80%
Felix Austria	243	243	105	43%
Oy Felix Abba	84	84	67	80%
Procordia Food Norway	32	31	31	100%
Österberg och Löwquist AB	68	68	56	82%
Ekströms	212	212	119	56%
Onos	178	174	139	80%
Health Food HO	9	9	9	100%
Friggs Naturprod	52	49	49	100%
Anjo Brankato	29	29	19	66%
A/S Anjo Danmark	8	7	6	86%
Beauvais A/S	312	312	160	51%
Procordia Food AB Head Office	10	10	9	90%
BA INVEST				
Falken	355	355	219	62%
Falken Norrland	65	62	43	69%
Falken Totalt	420	417	262	63%
Flavoring	57	57	57	100%
Svensk Snabbmat	125	118	111	94%
Svenska Tobaks GmbH	11	11	11	100%
PROCORDIA				
Procordia Dataservice	35	35	33	94%
Krusenbergs Herrgård	13	12	12	100%
EuroCentre (Belgium)	17	17	12	71%
Financial Services (USA)	9	9	9	100%
Procordia Inc (USA)	52	52	13	25%
Procordia HK (Sweden)	113	113	87	77%
PROCORDIA TOTAL	26 005	25 262	17 593	70%

Notes: * The original questionnaire was distributed to Kabi-Pharmacia and a shortened version to the other companies, **Pharmacia Deltec was moved to Kabi Pharmacia in 1992 from Pharmacia Biosystems ***Biosensor was a part of business area Biosystems in 1992, but this was changed in 1993 so that Biosensor reported directly to the management of Procordia.

PROCORDIA - AN HISTORICAL EXPOSÉ

This brief historical exposé¹¹ focuses primarily on the Procordia-owned companies that participated in the 1992-1993 study (see table 4.2 for the highlights).

The Early Procordia Years as “Statsföretag AB” (1969-1984)

On May 29th, 1969 the Government of Sweden presented a proposition for forming a 100% state-owned holding-company that would include all the state-owned companies¹² to facilitate co-ordination of activities and thus become more efficient. The state-owned holding-company was named “**Statsföretag AB**” and started its operations on January 1st, 1970. Statsföretag included a large variety of companies active in several industries such as ASSI (forestry), LKAB (mining), Kabi (pharmaceutical and chemical), SARA (service), Liber (publishing), and Kockums Industrier (shipbuilding). During the 1970s, Statsföretag experienced periods of up-swing, as well as recession, changes in political power in Sweden, and changes in management, which resulted in a series of reconstruction activities.

In 1984, a new managing director was appointed to head Statsföretag, which at that time included around 25 major companies and represented a capital of 2.7 billion Swedish crowns (SEK)¹³. The first step in the new managing director’s reconstruction process of Procordia was to merge Investment Procordia AB and the profitable Tobacco company with the holding-company Statsföretag AB itself. This merger led to a formal decision to change the name from Statsföretag AB to **Procordia AB** on the 3rd of December, 1984 (Östman, 1994).

The Structuring, Growth, and Re-structuring of Procordia AB (1985-1989)

Financial, market and industry analyses were carried out for each company owned by Procordia during 1984-85. It was deemed important to balance risk-taking ventures with

¹¹This brief historical exposé is based on the following sources: “PROCORDIA: Visioner och handlingar på vägen från Stasföretag till nya Pharmacia” by Professor Lars Östman, with additional information from annual reports and other secondary documentation (see footnote 1).

¹²Excluding the credit institutions and the companies that sorted under the communication department (Östman, 1994).

stable revenues. After the analysis, the existing companies in Procordia were divided into three groups: “growth companies” (e.g., Kabi-Vitrum, and Procordia Food), “cash generators” (e.g., the Tobacco company), and the “portfolio investments” (e.g., Liber). Companies within the areas of construction and textiles were sold off. A number of companies were acquired during this period such as the American tobacco company Pinkerton, the Swedish breweries Pripps (including the Swedish Falcon breweries), and the Swedish food producer Önos.

In March 1987, the Swedish government decided that it was appropriate to spread the ownership of Procordia through an introduction on the stock-exchange (with the state retaining 84% of the shares). On the 15th of October 1987 trade in Procordia shares began. A vision for Procordia’s activities was intensively discussed during 1987, 1988 and 1989¹⁴, while priority was placed on the following three business areas: Health Care, Consumer Goods and Service. This meant that the manufacturing industries and the chemical companies were sold off, while acquisitions were carried out within Health Care and Consumer Goods¹⁵.

The Health Care companies were primarily active in Sweden and the Nordic countries, but the ambition was to expand into Europe. The financial needs to continue the expansion and the development of Kabi was one of the major reasons for introducing Procordia on the stock market (Östman, 1994). The expansion had started in 1972 when two Swedish pharmaceutical companies Vitrum AB and Aco Läkemedel AB were acquired. Together with Kabi AB they formed a group that first was named Kabi-Vitrum AB and later changed to Kabi AB¹⁶. The integration process did not start until 1976 and was not seen as finalised until 1983¹⁷. The integration was carried out part of a restructuring process that prepared Kabi for international expansion. In 1987, Kabi formed Kabibaxter Infusion AB together with the American pharmaceutical company Baxter-Trevenol for marketing and sales

¹³Of the companies that participated in the 1992-1993 survey, the following were owned by Statsföretag AB at the time of the name-change: the Swedish Tobacco Group, Kabi AB, Ekstöms AB, and Löfqvists AB.

¹⁴ A seminar with a focus on a vision for Procordia was organised in Key West, Florida in August 1989. Invited academics Henry Mintzberg, Amitai Etzioni and James Abegglen also participated in the seminar. The main impression was that Procordia was “a success story so far”, so why not carry on in the same way? (Östman, 1994)

¹⁵ The activities within the service sector are not presented since none of the service companies were a part of the 1992-1993 study.

¹⁶ The name change from Kabi-Vitrum to Kabi AB evoked strong feelings in an already difficult integration process and the Vitrum employees organised a funeral for the ‘Vitrum company’ after the name change had been announced (from a case study prepared by Filip Wijkström, Stockholm School of Economics, Sweden).

¹⁷ According to the case study by Wijkström (see footnote 16), Kabi, Vitrum and ACO had different cultures and each existed as autonomous units within the Kabi Group before the integration process was started.

in the Nordic countries¹⁸. As a part of this strategy, 51% of the stock in the German company Pfrimmer GmbH¹⁹ was bought in 1988. The newly acquired company was integrated with Kabi's activities in Munich and was given the name Pfrimmer Kabi GmbH. In 1989, Kabi became one of the largest pharmaceutical companies in Europe when it acquired the Spanish company Fides. The development within Kabi was seen as impressive, but there was still a need for structural changes according to management, and consequently further mergers and acquisitions were discussed (Östman, 1994).

The ambition to expand the market from Sweden to the Nordic countries, and to become competitive in the European market was also expressed for Consumer Goods. A series of acquisitions were made in line with this strategy, for example the Swedish confectionery company Ahlgrens (with the famous Läkerol Brand), the Norwegian brewery Hansa Bryggeri, and Holomed International - a Health Food company with international competence in distribution. The Swedish Tobacco Group's negotiations with the German cigar company Arnold André were initiated and finalised in 1988, when Procordia bought 25 % of the stock in Arnold Andree (which later was raised to 40%)²⁰. The German confectionery company Villosa-Werk was acquired in 1989. The company was seen as a good channel for introducing Scandinavian confectionery to the European market. A year later, the Spanish confectionery company Damel and the Danish Benzon Brands were acquired. Furthermore, the Procordia-owned American tobacco company Pinkerton was diversifying by buying two confectionery companies - American Candy and Bunte General during this time period.

Procordia, Provendora and Pharmacia Merge into Procordia (1990-1991)

At the beginning of 1990, two years after the introduction on the stock exchange, the merger between Procordia, the Volvo owned Provendora (food companies), and Pharmacia AB (pharmaceutical company) took place after negotiations had been carried out during 1989. Towards the end of 1989 the ideas had been presented to the Swedish Government, since the finalisation of a merger would reduce the State's ownership to less than two thirds of the

¹⁸ The American company's minority shares in Kabi Baxter Infusion as well as its factory in Halden was also bought during this time period.

¹⁹ Pfrimmer GmbH had a subsidiary in Spain that was integrated with Kabi's activities in Spain (Wijkström, see footnote 16).

²⁰ Furthermore, the Dutch cigar company, Willem II, was integrated into the Swedish Tobacco Group's Dutch subsidiary Elisabeth Bas (EBAS group) in 1989. The EBAS group was owned by Procordia in 1992-1993, but did not participate in the survey due to strikes.

stock. After a series of debates and discussions, the Government on May 9th decided to accept a lower percentage of state ownership in Procordia, 1990. The agreement was that Pharmacia and Provendora should join Procordia, and that the State and Volvo each were to own 42.5% of the stock. The “new” Procordia had an initial turnover of 37 billion (based on 1989 figures) compared to the “old” Procordia’s turnover of 21 billion. The number of employees increased from 28 000 to 46 000. The new pharmaceutical company would become one of the 25 largest companies in Europe and contribute with 32% of Procordia sales.

The new board of Procordia had their first meeting in June 1990 and one of the issues to resolve was the name of the new pharmaceutical company resulting from the merger between Kabi and Pharmacia. It was decided that it would be organised into two companies, one called Kabi Pharmacia²¹ (pharmaceuticals) and the other Pharmacia Biosystems²². A “Corporate Bridging Group” was appointed to monitor the transition of the old organisations into the new organisations, a process which was expected to continue until the beginning of 1991.

During the pre-merger discussions, meetings and preparations it became clear that Pharmacia was not positive to the merger with Kabi. The general opinion within Pharmacia, according to Östman (1994), was that Kabi had little to contribute to the operations of Pharmacia. Furthermore, Pharmacia was still struggling to integrate their earlier mergers with LKB (medical instruments) and Leo/Ferrosan in 1986²³. The organisation and integration of Kabi Pharmacia turned into one of the most difficult aspects of the merger process (Östman, 1994). As part of the post-merger integration process, a number of organisational changes were carried out²⁴. In Germany, Pharmacia had two locations, one in Ratingen (earlier Leo) and the other in Freiburg (earlier Pharmacia), while Kabi’s products had been sold through Pfrimmer Kabi in Erlangen. Kabi Pharmacia acquired the rest of the shares in Pfrimmer Kabi GmbH.

²¹ Kabi-Pharmacia Läkemedel was organised into five separate companies (Biopharma, Therapeutics, Parenerals, Ophthalmics, and Nordiska Laekemedel).

²² Biosystems was to be organised in four areas: biotechnology, diagnostics, Pharmacia Deltec, and Pharmacia Biosensor. The American company Deltec had been acquired by Pharmacia in 1985.

²³ Pharmacia, LKB, Leo and Ferrosan were all seen as different cultures according to the case study by Wijkström (see footnote 16)

²⁴ During this time period Kabi Pharmacia also bought 72% of the stock in Pierre! from Fermenta, turning Italy into one of its largest markets.

Kabi's and Pharmacia's market organisations were integrated during 1990, followed by production and administration during 1991. By the end of 1991, two-thirds of the stipulated rationalisation goals were achieved (Annual Report, 1991 and Östman, 1994). However, the division of international market companies between Kabi Pharmacia and Biosystems had been difficult and a restructuring process was carried out during 1991 and 1992. As it became clear that there were relatively few links between the companies in Biosystems, it was suggested that Pharmacia Deltec and Pharmacia Diagnostics would be transferred from Biosystems to Kabi Pharmacia. This left the biotechnical parts of Biosystems, and the name was changed to Pharmacia Biotech.

The integration of Procordia and Provendor in the food business area was not seen as difficult, since the individual companies were relatively untouched by the fusion as they were organised in nine business areas²⁵ (Östman, 1994)²⁶. This organisational structure did not last. Already one year later, in 1992 at the time of the study, Procordia's structure was changed again into the structure described at the beginning of this chapter. The years after the survey was carried out, Procordia continued its restructuring activities including selling of companies and acquisitions²⁷.

²⁵ Procordia's and Provendor's consumer goods were organised in the following nine business areas: United Brands (tobacco and confectionery), Beverages (e.g., Pripps and Hansa), Convenience Foods (Ekströms, Österberg, Önos and Provendors' Felix), Seafood (and Glyngore Limfjord acquired in 1991 and Abba from Provendor), Meat and Fastfood (includes Svensk Snabbmat from Provendor), Sockerbolaget (from Provendor), Weibulls (from Provendor), Health Food (Procordia's Friggs and AnjoBrankato) and Falken (jointly owned with Swedish Unilever).

²⁶ The only source of conflict seemed to have been the closing of Provendor's head office in Malmö in the south of Sweden, since it was promised that it was to remain head office when Volvo acquired Cardo a few years earlier.

²⁷ In brief it can be said that Procordia focused on Health Care and Branded consumer Products (BCP) during 1993. The confectionery companies were sold off, and the 51% of the pharmaceutical company Farmitalia Carlo Erba in Italy and Erbamont Inc in the United States owned by Montedison in Italy were acquired. This resulted in the pharmaceutical company becoming one of the ten largest in Europe and one of the twenty largest in the World. When the Branded Consumer Products became a part of Volvo in November 1993 it was decided to focus on Health Care, and Procordia was renamed Pharmacia. Two years later, Pharmacia merged with the American pharmaceutical company UpJohn Inc and changed its name to Pharmacia & UpJohn Inc.

Table 4.2: Procordia AB - highlights from 1969 to 1993¹

Year	Highlights
1969	'Statsföretag' was formed and include all state-owned companies within a large variety of industries
1970	Operations of 'Statsföretag' started with 30 companies, and only two were a part of Procordia at the time of the study: Swedish Tobacco Group AB (state-owned since 1914), and AB Kabi (state-owned since 1961)
1972	Statsföretag acquire Vitrum AB and ACO AB which were to be merged with Kabi AB
1984	Statsföretag AB change its name to Procordia AB
1984	The Swedish food producers Önos AB and Friggs Naturprodukter AB were acquired as an addition to the food producers such as Ekströms AB and the Löfqvists AB , food importers
1985	The Pinkerton Tobacco Company (US) and Swedish breweries Pripps (including the Swedish breweries Falcon and the soft drink producers Sofiero Kivik?) and the confectionery company Ahlgrens AB were acquired
1987	Procordia was introduced on the stock-exchange (the State continue to hold 84% of the stock).
1987	Procordia decide to focus on three areas: Health Care, Consumer Goods and Service. The other companies were to be sold off.
1987	Kabibaxter Infusion AB was formed by Kabi-Vitrum AB and the American Baxter-Trevenol for marketing and sales in the Nordic countries.
1988	Expansion into Europe was started when 51% of the stock in German Pfrimmer were bought in 1988 and integrated with Kabi into Pfrimmer Kabi GmbH.
1988	The Swedish Tobacco Group bought 25% of the German Cigar company Arnold Andree (later raised to 40% of the stock)
1989	Kabi acquire the Spanish company Fides, and bought the minority shares in Kabi Baxter Infusion as well as its factory in Halden
1989	Norwegian Breweries Hansa Bryggeri, A/S , 92.7% of the shares were acquired
1989	The German confectionery company Villosa-Werk was acquired.
1989	The Dutch cigar company Willem II was integrated into Swedish Tobacco Group's Dutch subsidiary Elisabeth Bas
1989	Provendör and Pharmacia both a part of Volvo were merged with Procordia into a Procordia where the State and Volvo each reduced their ownership to 42.5%
1990	Pharmacia (which had merged in the 80s with Leo/Ferrosan and LKB) including Pharmacia Deltec (USA) the Pharmacia Biotech companies and Pharmacia Bosensor , was merged with Kabi. Two new organisations are formed: Kabi Pharmacia and Pharmacia Biosystems (changed in 1991-1992). The merger with Pharmacia also brought Krusenbergs Herrgård and Pharmacia EuroCentre in Belgium (name changed to Procordia EuroCentre) into Procordia.
1990	The merger with Provendör added the following companies: Ramlösa Häslobrunn AB , Abba , Felix , and Svensk Snabbmat AB
1990	The Spanish confectionery company Damel and the Danish Benzon Brands were acquired. The American Pinkerton company diversified by acquiring American Candy and Bunte General .
1990	Kabi Pharmacia bought the rest of the stock of Pfrimmer in Germany, and 72% of the stock of Pierrel in Italy
1990-91	A corporate bridging group was formed to monitor the transitions into the new organisational form. Kabi and Pharmacia's market organisations were joined during 1990, and the administration and production during 1991
1990-91	The Danish Glyngöre Limfjord A/S was acquired and merged with Marina Danish Seafood A/S
1991	Flavoring AB was acquired.
1991	Norway Food A/S was acquired and its name was changed to Procordia Food Norway
1991-92	Pharmacia Deltec and Pharmacia Diagnostics were transferred to Kabi Pharmacia from Pharmacia Biosystems leaving the biotechnical parts to form Pharmacia Biotech
1992	It was decided that Procordia would focus on Health Care and Consumer Brands Goods, while a number of companies without apparent co-ordination and rationalisation potential were organised in Procordia Invest.
1992	The State's ownership in Procordia was decreased while Volvo's ownership was increased from 42.7% to 45%.
1992	The first phase of this study was carried out in Kabi-Pharmacia,
1992	Swedish Match AB was acquired
1992	Swedish Match acquired Spanish match producing company Fosforeras
1992	Ekströms AB and Önos AB were merged
1992	Österbergs AB & Löfqvist AB were merged
1992	The German company Woldemar GmbH was acquired and integrated into Abba Glyngöre's German activities
1992	Kabi Pharmacia opened market companies in Greece and Hong Kong
1992-93	The second phase of this study was carried out in the following business areas: United Brands/Swedish Match , Pharmacia Biotech , Procordia Food , Procordia Invest , and Procordia Staff

Note: ¹ the focus is on the companies that participated in the 1992-1993 survey presented in this dissertation (the companies are highlighted the first year that they are owned by Procordia).

THE DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE EMPLOYEES WHO PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY

In this section, the number of responding employees in each **country** will be presented as well as five tables describing the demographics of the respondents in each country²⁸. In table 4.3 the number of respondents from each **company** in each country is presented. In table 4.4 the respondents in each country are divided into five **departments**, while in table 4.5 they are divided by their five work **positions**. In table 4.6 they are divided into five **age** groups and in table 4.7 the **gender** of the respondents in each country is indicated. Table 4.8 summarises the demographics (company, department, position, age, and gender) for all the responding employees in the study.

Employees in twenty-three **countries** participated in this study (see table 4.3 below). The total number of respondents varies from one country to another, and countries with less than fifty respondents (i.e. Greece, Hong Kong, Ireland, Italy and Portugal) are henceforth omitted from further analysis (see chapter 3 for a discussion). This leaves eighteen countries that will be included in the analysis in this dissertation. Table 4.3 also indicates the number of respondents in each country who have answered yes to the question that they come from the country they work in (henceforth referred to as “nationals” see chapter 3 for the formulation of items). Only the “nationals” responding are included in the remaining tables in this chapter and in the analysis carried out and presented in this dissertation.

²⁸ It is not possible to evaluate if a representative sample of the employees in each country filled out the questionnaire, since the demographics for all employees are not available.

Table 4.3: The number of respondents in each country

country	total number of respondents	number of national respondents
Australia	71	48
Austria	172	157
Belgium	285	226
Brazil	1 683	1 540
Canada	67	53
Denmark	679	639
Finland	129	127
France	425	351
Germany	479	469
Greece	6	omitted*
Hong Kong	21	omitted
Ireland	46	omitted
Italy	20	omitted
Japan	304	290
Netherlands	342	289
Norway	668	620
Philippines	360	340
Portugal	30	omitted
Spain	413	370
Sweden	8 795	7 903
Switzerland	98	70
UK	498	456
USA	1 936	1731
Total	17 527	15 679

Note: *countries with less than 50 respondents are omitted from further analysis

In table 4.4, the number of respondents in each country is shown in total and by **company**. As is evident from the table, the respondents include employees working for Kabi Pharmacia in sixteen countries (Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States), for Pharmacia Biotech in fourteen countries (Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States), and for Swedish Match in thirteen countries (Austria, Belgium, Brazil, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States). Additionally, there are employees, who participated in the study in nine countries who work for other companies. These other companies are food, confectionery and tobacco producers, but also Procordia Head Office or regional offices (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States).

It should be pointed out that Kabi-Pharmacia and Pharmacia Biotech are two organisations that were created out of the merger between Kabi and Pharmacia during 1990-1991, while Swedish Match was newly acquired when the survey was conducted. The remaining companies in the study were acquired by Procordia during the 1980s and 1990s

with the exception of the original Statsföretag AB companies that were included in Procordia AB (see table 4.2).

Table 4.4: Number of respondents by country and company*

country	KP	Bio	SM	Other Companies **
Australia	48			
Austria	45	9	4	Felix 99
Belgium	72	19	126	Procordia EuroCentre 9
Brazil		23	1517	
Canada	39	14		
Denmark	41	29		Beauvais 158, Anjo 6, Abba 405
Finland	34	7		Abba Felix 67, Ahlgrens 19
France	183	27	141	
Germany	321	86	43	Abba 9, Swedish Tobacco 10
Japan	189	101		
Netherlands	137	27	125	
Norway	200	23	6	Hansa 362, Abba Felix 29
Philippines			340	
Spain	361	8	1	
Sweden	2362	910	277	Abba 425, Ahlgrens 210, Ekströms 119, Falken 246, Felix 827, Flavoring 56, Pripps 1 829, Procordia 215, Ramlösa 85, Sofiero 45, Svensk Snabbmat 110, Österberg & Löfqvist 56, Önos 250
Switzerland	39	14	17	
United Kingdom	144		273	Lighthouse of Scotland 39
United States	358	807	10	Pinkerton 536, Procordia 20
Total	4573	2104	2880	6 241

Note: *company is abbreviated KP (Kabi Pharmacia), Bio (Pharmacia Biotech), and SM (Swedish Match).

** Other company owned by Procordia that were included in the survey are included in this column of the table.

In table 4.5, the number of employees responding in each country is reported by **department**, that is, research & development, production (including transport, warehousing etc.), sales (including marketing), administration (including finance, human resources etc), and other (e.g, technical support) (see chapter 3 for a discussion).

In nine countries, the largest percentage of the respondents work in production and transport (i.e., Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Sweden and the United Kingdom). The range of percentage of respondents working in production varies from 35% to 70% (if all the countries are included, the range is 2% to 70%). In the other nine countries, the largest percentage of the respondents work in sales (i.e., Australia, Austria, Canada, Finland, Germany, Japan, Spain, Switzerland and the United States). The percentage range of respondents working in sales is 32% to 72% (including all countries the range is 4% to 72%).

The percentage range of respondents working in research and development is 0% to 17%. In Sweden, Germany and Spain only, the percentage of respondents working in a research and development department exceeds ten percent, but in Belgium, the Philippines

and Switzerland, the percentage is zero. The percentage range for respondents working in administration is 7% to 40%, while the percentage range for respondents working for other departments varies between 1% and 27%.

Table 4.5: Number of respondents by country and department¹

	research & development		production & transport		sales & marketing		administration & finance		other		total country	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Australia	2	4.44	4	8.89	20	44.44	12	26.67	7	15.56	45	100
Austria	7	4.52	45	29.03	51	32.90	18	11.61	34	21.94	155	100
Belgium			94	42.73	63	28.64	41	18.64	22	10.00	220	100
Brazil	73	4.78	1015	66.47	56	3.67	194	12.70	189	12.38	1527	100
Canada	1	2.00	7	14.00	23	46.00	7	14.00	12	24.00	50	100
Denmark	32	5.11	351	56.07	127	20.29	59	9.42	57	9.11	626	100
Finland	4	3.17	2	1.59	68	53.97	51	40.48	1	.79	126	100
France	27	8.21	138	41.95	79	24.01	47	14.29	38	11.55	329	100
Germany	59	12.94	116	25.44	167	36.62	51	11.18	63	13.82	456	100
Japan	17	6.07	30	10.71	152	54.29	19	6.79	62	22.14	280	100
Netherlands	19	6.79	118	42.14	33	11.79	35	12.50	75	26.79	280	100
Norway	28	4.99	331	59.00	114	20.32	68	12.12	20	3.57	561	100
Philippines			235	70.36	46	13.77	19	5.69	34	10.18	334	100
Spain	40	11.05	80	22.10	151	41.71	55	15.19	36	9.94	362	100
Sweden	1153	17.30	2982	44.75	995	14.93	817	12.26	717	10.76	6664	100
Switzerland			4	5.97	48	71.64	6	8.96	9	13.43	67	100
UK	18	4.02	156	34.82	142	31.70	55	12.28	77	17.19	448	100
US	107	9.25	312	26.97	364	31.46	186	16.08	188	16.25	1157	100
Total dept.	1587	12	6 020	44	2 699	20	1 740	13	1 641	12	13687	100

Note:¹ for a discussion of the coding of departments, see chapter 3 for further details.

In table 4.6, the number of respondents who indicated any of the following five work **positions** includes: manager (in charge of salaried staff), researcher & specialist, supervisor (in charge of manual workers), staff (salaried staff or professional), and worker (manual and production worker). In twelve countries the largest percentage of respondents are staff (Australia, Austria, Canada, Finland, France, Germany, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States). The percentage range of respondents working as staff varies from 35% to 70% (with all countries included, the range is 10% to 70%). In the other six countries (Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and the Philippines) the largest percentage of the respondents, (50% to 83%) are workers (with all countries included, the percentage ranges from 1% to 83%).

The percentage range of responding managers is 4% to 28%, while the range of responding supervisors varies between 1% and 8%. Finally, the percentage of responding researchers in each country varies between 0% and 25%. In Canada and the Philippines there are no respondents who have indicated that they are researchers.

Table 4.6: Number of respondents by country and position¹

country	manager		researcher & specialist		supervisor		staff		worker		total country	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Australia	7	14.58	3	6.25	2	4.17	32	66.67	4	8.33	48	100
Austria	25	15.92	5	3.18	12	7.64	73	46.50	42	26.75	157	100
Belgium	36	16.44	9	4.11	8	3.65	70	31.96	96	43.84	219	100
Brazil	62	4.19	96	6.49	75	5.07	300	20.28	946	63.96	1479	100
Canada	10	20.83			2	4.17	29	60.42	7	14.58	48	100
Denmark	54	8.70	9	1.45	30	4.83	199	32.05	329	52.98	621	100
Finland	20	16.26	2	1.63	2	1.63	58	47.15	41	33.33	123	100
France	31	9.14	41	12.09	23	6.78	161	47.49	83	24.48	339	100
Germany	62	13.51	21	4.58	17	3.70	272	59.26	87	18.95	459	100
Japan	77	27.60	17	6.09	2	.72	178	63.80	5	1.79	279	100
Netherlands	35	13.06	48	17.91	14	5.22	44	16.42	127	47.39	268	100
Norway	66	12.62	16	3.06	44	8.41	134	25.62	263	50.29	523	100
Philippines	6	1.79			17	5.06	34	10.12	279	83.04	336	100
Spain	62	17.51	87	24.58	9	2.54	143	40.40	53	14.97	354	100
Sweden	915	12.13	385	5.10	290	3.84	3073	40.74	2880	38.18	7543	100
Switzerland	13	18.84	4	5.80	3	4.35	48	69.57	1	1.45	69	100
UK	62	14.16	16	3.65	18	4.11	191	43.61	151	34.47	438	100
US	252	14.90	201	11.89	93	5.50	592	35.01	553	32.70	1491	100
total position	1 795	12	960	6	661	4	5 631	38	5 947	40	14994	100

Note: ¹for a discussion of the coding of position, see chapter 3 for further detail.

In table 4.7, the respondents in each country are reported by age groups. In twelve countries the majority of the respondents are between 25 and 35 years old (i.e., Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, the Philippines, Spain, Switzerland and the United States). The percentage range of respondents from this age group is between 30% and 60%. In Austria and Finland the majority of the respondents are between 36 and 45 years old. For all the countries, the percentage in this age group ranges between 20% and 42%. In four countries, more than 10% of the respondents are under 25 years old (Belgium, Brazil, Sweden and the United Kingdom), and the percentage range of all the countries is between 1% and 30%. Only in Norway and Sweden are more than 10% of the respondents 55 years old or above. The percentage range for this age group is between 1% and 11%, and for those from 46 to 55 years old it is between 3% and 23%.

Table 4.7: Number of respondents by country and age

country	< 25 years		25-35 years		36-45 years		46-55 years		> 55 years		total country n
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Australia	2	4.17	29	60.42	10	20.83	4	8.33	3	6.25	48
Austria	5	3.25	46	29.87	64	41.56	35	22.73	4	2.60	154
Belgium	24	10.76	111	49.78	47	21.08	36	16.14	5	2.24	223
Brazil	445	29.81	610	40.86	296	19.83	115	7.70	27	1.81	1493
Canada	3	5.66	30	56.60	14	26.42	3	5.66	3	5.66	53
Denmark	47	7.40	236	37.17	180	28.35	128	20.16	44	6.93	635
Finland	2	1.57	45	35.43	50	39.37	25	19.69	5	3.94	127
France	30	8.60	177	50.72	87	24.93	42	12.03	13	3.72	349
Germany	30	6.64	190	42.04	134	29.65	73	16.15	25	5.53	452
Japan	26	9.00	178	61.59	73	25.26	9	3.11	3	1.04	289
Netherlands	24	8.39	171	59.79	57	19.93	31	10.84	3	1.05	286
Norway	38	6.15	219	35.44	175	28.32	118	19.09	68	11.00	618
Philippines	19	5.64	169	50.15	130	38.58	18	5.34	1	.30	337
Spain	28	7.57	176	47.57	106	28.65	53	14.32	7	1.89	370
Sweden	806	10.28	2356	30.04	2184	27.84	1703	21.71	795	10.14	7844
Switzerland	2	2.86	25	35.71	24	34.29	16	22.86	3	4.29	70
UK	52	11.40	169	37.06	119	26.10	85	18.64	31	6.80	456
US	74	4.35	665	39.05	583	34.23	307	18.03	74	4.35	1703
total age	1 657	11	5 602	36	4 333	28	2 801	18	1 114	7	15507

The **gender** distribution of the respondents is indicated in table 4.8. The percentage for male respondents ranges from 22% to 85% and for female it is the opposite, that is, 15% to 78%. Only in Austria, Australia, the Philippines and Switzerland are the majority of the respondents women.

Table 4.8: Number of respondents by country and gender

country	male		female		total country	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Australia	14	29.17	34	70.83	48	100
Austria	76	49.03	79	50.97	155	100
Belgium	124	55.11	101	44.89	225	100
Brazil	914	63.56	524	36.44	1438	100
Canada	30	56.60	23	43.40	53	100
Denmark	295	46.38	341	53.62	636	100
Finland	70	55.12	57	44.88	127	100
France	194	55.59	155	44.41	349	100
Germany	236	51.75	220	48.25	456	100
Japan	177	61.03	113	38.97	290	100
Netherlands	243	84.97	43	15.03	286	100
Norway	403	65.11	216	34.89	619	100
Philippines	72	21.69	260	78.31	332	100
Spain	212	57.30	158	42.70	370	100
Sweden	4893	62.34	2956	37.66	7849	100
Switzerland	31	44.29	39	55.71	70	100
UK	256	56.14	200	43.86	456	100
US	916	53.50	796	46.50	1712	100
total gender	9 156	59	6 315	41	15471	100

The demographics for the total sample of respondents are displayed in table 4.9. The table indicates that the “typical” respondent is a man (59%) employed in Kabi Pharmacia (29%)²⁹, works in a production department (38%), as a production worker (38%), and is between 26 and 35 years old (36%).

4.9: The Demographics in Summary*

Company 15683	Kabi Pharmacia 4 577 (29%)	Biotech 2 104 (13%)	Swedish Match 2 880 (18%)	Other Company** 6 122 (mix %)	
Department 13 687	R & D 1 587 (12%)	Production 6 020 (44%)	Sales 2 699 (20%)	Administration 1 740 (13%)	Other 1 641 (12%)
Position 14 994	Manager 1 795 (12%)	Researcher 960 (6%)	Supervisor 661 (4%)	Office Staff 5 631 (38%)	Prod. Workers 5 947 (40%)
Age 15 507	Age -25 1 657 (11%)	Age 26-35 5 602 (36%)	Age 36-45 4 333 (28%)	Age 46-55 2 801 (18%)	Age 55+ 1 114 (7%)
Gender 15 471	Male 9 156 (59%)	Female 6 315 (41%)			

Note: *not all respondents have indicated all the demographic background variables **see table 4.4 for specification of other companies

DISCUSSION

This is a study where the focus is on employees’ perception of what their closest manager should do and the purpose is to compare and analyse these preferences across countries and to see if they are related to national cultural values. Earlier comparative research has often been based on a matched sample of respondents and in a few cases the sample has not only been matched on personal demographics such as profession, age and gender, but the respondents have also worked for the same company. In the case of the sample used in this study, two observations can be highlighted. The *first observation* is that Procordia in 1992-1993 was a young conglomerate that owned a diverse set of companies (e.g., pharmaceutical, biotech, matches and disposable lighters, tobacco, beverages and food companies) active in more than twenty countries. Most of the companies were acquired during the latter part of the 1980s and the early 1990s, some as late as between the two phases of the study. Consequently, Procordia is not like the “old” companies that have predominantly experienced organic growth and have remained active within one industry. The *second observation* is that this sample of respondents from different countries is diverse not only in terms of the companies that they work in, but also the type of department they work at as well

²⁹ To be noted is that 42% of the respondents work for Kabi Pharmacia and Pharmacia Biotech, which is the

as their work position, age, and gender. Hence, the employees are men and women who work with research, development, production, transport, marketing, sales, administration or finance. They are production workers, supervisors, staff, researchers and managers of all ages from under 25 to above 55 years old. Consequently, this is not a selective matched sample that only includes, (for example), 25 to 35 year-old male salesmen working for one company.

The question to discuss at this point is what the implications are for the research objectives in this dissertation which has a sample from more than one company and with more than one matched group of respondents. The diverse nature of the Procordia sample will first be discussed followed by the variety in respondent's personal demographics. In earlier research, company or corporate culture, has often been argued to have a strong influence on employees' attitudes. This has led to critical voices against studies conducted within one organisation. The argument is often phrased as a question whether it is national or corporate culture that has been mapped and measured. When the respondents work at different companies the criticism is the same, but phrased as if it is differences between corporate cultures or national cultures that have been identified in the research. Consequently, it is valuable to attempt to differentiate between national and corporate culture if this is possible. One method of doing this could be to first conduct the analysis within one company across countries, and then to conduct the same analysis in a hold-out sample of other companies to validate the findings from the first analysis. This method can be applied with the sample of respondents from the Procordia conglomerate. However, the question of whether the companies owned by Procordia have been "influenced" by some type of Procordia culture remains to be answered.

It is evident from the presentation of Procordia that several of the companies owned by Procordia at the time of the study had recently been acquired, or as in the case of *Swedish Match*, were acquired between the first and the second phase of the study. The question of how strong the corporate culture is for the companies in this particular sample is difficult to answer. Kabi Pharmacia was the result of a recent and difficult merger process, and the Kabi Pharmacia employees may not have developed a coherent set of company values at that early stage of the merger³⁰. Swedish Match has also to some extent grown by acquisitions³¹, but

result of the merger between Kabi AB and Pharmacia AB.

³⁰ More often the pre-merger cultural values are emphasised and occasionally strengthened during the first phases of the integration process (see e.g., Sales & Mirvis 1984?, Janson, 1994, and Lohrum, 1996).

³¹ See footnote 3 for details.

with few post-acquisition integration problems since the acquired companies had been allowed to retain their autonomy to a large extent. Nevertheless, Swedish Match was considered to have a “strong” corporate culture that also encompassed the acquired companies³². However, more importantly, it is highly improbable that the employees of Swedish Match had been influenced by the values held by Kabi Pharmacia employees when they filled out the questionnaire only a few months after they had been acquired. Hence, with this sample it is possible to compare the attitudes of the employees working for other Procordia owned companies, in particular the Swedish Match employees, with those of the Kabi Pharmacia employees. *In conclusion, the strength of the data collected in this study is that it is possible to conduct a main analysis using the Kabi-Pharmacia sample, and to carry out the analysis a second time in a hold-out sample of several different companies to examine if the results from the first analysis are replicated.*

The second issue is that it is often argued that the use of a selected matched sample, such as only male, salespeople of a certain age-group, working for one particular company results in a “cleaner” analysis of national similarities and differences, when comparing across countries³³. This argument is acknowledged. However, if a sample of respondents in the same age group is used, then it is difficult to know if that particular age group has certain preferences for leadership that could influence the findings of an analysis across countries. In other words, if age is found to be related to the respondents’ attitudes towards interpersonal leadership and only one age group is used, then this will have a confounding effect on the comparison across countries. On the other hand, if several respondents of varying age are used and age has not been found to be related to the respondents’ attitudes, then the findings are generalisable for a larger part of the population than if only one age group is used. The same argument is valid for the other demographic variables; company, department, position and gender. In conclusion, using a diverse, instead of a matched, sample of employees has two advantages. *First, it is possible to ascertain whether there are differences in employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership across departments, work positions, age groups and gender, and second, the sample will be representative for a larger group of people than when using a matched sample.*

³² Interviews with managers, managing directors and vice presidents at Bryant & May, Poppell B.V., Cricket-Feudor and Swedish Match head office indicated that there is a distinct and strong Swedish Match culture while large autonomy is given to the acquired companies (Johnson, 1995). Furthermore, as is pointed out by Östman (1994), the Swedish Match culture was seen as different from that of United Brands in Procordia.

³³ See the discussion in chapter 3. Research Methodology.

Consequently, there are primarily two implications for this study when using this sample of demographically diverse respondents working for an assortment of companies owned by a young conglomerate. First, it is possible to divide the sample into two sub-samples. The first sample consists of the employees working for Kabi-Pharmacia, and the hold-out sample includes employees working for the other Procordia-owned companies. The same analysis can be conducted with the hold-out sample to examine if the results from the main analysis are replicated. Second, it is possible to ascertain if there is a relationship between the background variables³⁴ and the respondents' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. If no such relationship is identified, it is possible to generalise the findings for a larger group of employees than when using a selective matched sample. However, if such a relationship is found, it will contribute to the current discussion of which background variables are related to employees' attitudes on managerial behaviour³⁵.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, the organisation of the companies owned by Procordia, when the study analysed in this dissertation was conducted in 1992 and 1993, is presented. This is followed by a brief historical exposé adding flavour to Procordia's complex growth and restructuring process. Tables of demographics that report the sample of respondents by company, department, position, age and gender for each country and for the total sample are presented. In the discussion two observations are highlighted. The first is that Procordia is a young conglomerate that owns a diverse group of companies. The second observation is that the sample consists of respondents from different companies, who work at different departments, at different work positions, and who are of different ages and gender.

The implications of this particular sample of employees working for companies owned by Procordia in 1992 and 1993 are that it is possible to strongly limit the methodological problems related to using employees from only one distinct company with a strong corporate culture when comparing across countries. This is done by first conducting the analysis within one company after which a hold-out sample of the other companies are used for a second analysis with the purpose of examining if the results from the first analysis

³⁴ Background variables include the company the respondents work for as well as department, position, age and gender.

are replicated. Furthermore, it is possible to ascertain whether employees' preferences for managerial behaviour varies across departments, work positions, age groups and gender. If employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership are found to vary across any of the background variables, then this is will be a contribution to contemporary research.

³⁵ See chapter 3 for further discussion

PART ONE

INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

Similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership in 18 countries.

CHAPTER 5

ORDERING AND SCORING: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES ACROSS COUNTRIES IN EMPLOYEES' PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

In this chapter, the purpose is to identify similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership (IPL) by examining the ordering and the scoring effect within each country. The ordering effect is examined for the four areas of interpersonal leadership within each country, while the scoring effect is analysed across countries. The chapter begins with a short description of how ordering and scoring effects can be used to distinguish between types of differences and similarities across countries. This is followed by a discussion of the ordering effect of the items operationalising each of the four areas: "participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation," followed by "influence and control," "positive and negative feedback," and "concern for individuals and teams". The scoring effect will be examined by analysis of variance (ANOVA) of each item, where not only the main effect of nationality, but also department, work position, age group and gender are taken into consideration. The chapter will conclude with an analysis of the hold-out sample to examine if the results from the analysis of the ordering effect and the scoring effect in the main analysis are replicated.

A INTRODUCTION TO EMPLOYEES' PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

The first objective of this dissertation is to identify similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries. This objective will be pursued in the current and the succeeding chapter by examining "the ordering effect", "the scoring effect", and "the patterning effect"¹. In this chapter, "the ordering effect" and "the scoring effect" will be examined in order to map similarities and differences across countries. A comparison of the response frequencies across countries shows whether there are

¹For an illustrative discussion of patterning and positioning effects, see Leung and Bond (1989).

similarities in the employees' *relative preferences for the items*, for example, that employees in all countries prefer their managers to use "recognition" (positive feedback) to a larger extent than "dissatisfaction" (negative feedback). The "scoring effect" indicates whether there are differences in the *absolute preferences for the items* across countries, for example, that employees in some countries prefer their manager to supervise their work in detail weekly, while in other countries the employees prefer this to be done yearly.

In the succeeding chapter the "patterning effect" will be explored. The patterning effect displays how *the items relate to each other* in terms of the employee's preferences, for example, if employees who prefer their managers to delegate responsibility to a large extent also prefer them to take their advice to a large extent. Hence, before analysing how the items within each area of interpersonal leadership relate to each other, if at all, the preferred order and the preferred scores of the items will be examined.

The order effect and the score effect can be combined into a two-by-two matrix (see figure 5.1) and used when describing similarities and differences across countries. It is possible that there are similarities in the *order* of preferred interpersonal leadership across countries, but that the items are preferred to a varying *score*. In other words, there are across-country differences in "degree", but not in "kind". An example of this would be that employees in all countries prefer that their managers should "follow-up" their work more than they should "supervise" their work, thus a difference in "kind" . However, in some countries the employees want to be supervised daily, in others monthly, and in other countries never; consequently, the preferences differ in "degree" across countries. The reversed situation with a difference in kind and not in degree, that is, in ordering effect but not in scoring effect, is also possible since it is the significant differences in scores across countries that are of interest. Four combinations are possible, either the ordering of items is different across countries but there are no significant score effects, or vice versa, or there is both a difference in kind and degree, or finally there are no differences at all, neither in kind nor in degree. These four combinations are visualised in figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1: Four types of order and score similarities and differences across countries

		score effect	
		variation across countries	no variation across countries
order effect	variation across countries	difference both in kind and in degree	difference in kind but not in degree
	no variation across countries	difference in degree but not in kind	neither difference in kind nor in degree

Similarities and differences in the ordering effect will first be examined in this chapter, followed by an analysis of the scoring effect. The chapter will be concluded with a discussion of these two effects and whether they are replicated in the hold-out sample, before proceeding to the next chapter and a discussion of the patterning effects.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN ORDERING EFFECT

In the questionnaire, the respondents were not asked to rank the 24 items operationalising interpersonal leadership. Instead, they were asked to indicate *to what extent* their immediate manager should carry out 19 different tasks, and *how often* they should carry out five tasks². The ordering effect is simply the order of the items in each country based on the magnitude of each item’s response frequency³. The response frequencies for each item are calculated by using the percentages of employees in each country who have answered that their immediate manager should do something to a larger extent (extent score 4 and 5) or often (daily or weekly on the time scale). These response frequencies are labelled “*intensity*” response frequencies since the manager should intensively in terms of extent or time carry out

² Four areas of “interpersonal leadership” were identified in the review of multi-country comparative studies (see Chapter 2). See Chapter 3 for further discussion on the formulation of the 24 items operationalising “interpersonal leadership”.

³ This will be referred to as “magnitude order” to differentiate it from the more common “rank order”, resulting from a research design with rank-ordering of items.

the items in question⁴. Each country's intensity response frequencies for the four areas of interpersonal leadership are then ordered according to their magnitude (see tables 5.1.1 to 5.1.4 in appendix 5.1). The item that is preferred by the highest percentage of employees in one country is given the order number one in that particular country. These magnitude order numbers are then used to calculate the area order sums for each item by adding its order number for all countries, divided by the number of countries. The range of order numbers is simply the lowest and the highest ordering any given item has for the countries in this study.

The presentation of employees' preferences regarding elements of interpersonal leadership is organised in the four areas: "participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation", "influence and control", "positive and negative feedback", and "individual and team concerns". Two tables are displayed for each area. The first table includes descriptives at the overall country level that are of interest when discussing the ordering of items in each country. Measures of central tendencies include the country means and the grand mean. *Country mean* refers to the average value of all respondent's scores from each country, while the *grand mean* refers to the mean that is calculated by adding all the country means together and dividing them by the number of countries. The grand mean serves as an indication of the average value across the countries that are included in this study, and cannot be seen as a "universal mean"⁵. The table also includes the minimum and maximum intensity response frequency, that is, smallest percentage and largest percentage of employees answering "to a large extent or often (daily or weekly), in any of the countries included in this study. In addition, the area order sum and range of order numbers, as described above, are presented in the table. The second table contains the order of items for each country in each area, and this ordering is based on the magnitude order of the response frequencies, as described above⁶ (see table 5.1.1 to 5.1.4 in appendix 5.1).

⁴The magnitude order could be measured by the country means, but in this chapter, response frequencies are used. The idea behind using response frequencies is to be able to include both the items measured on the extent scale and those measured on the time scale in the same comparison. However, the intensity response frequencies will not fully correspond to the means since the mean is influenced by the distribution of the response frequencies. In other words, 50% of the respondent may answer 4 or 5 for two different items, but for one of the items the other 50% of the respondents have answered 1, while for the other item they have answered 3. These two examples will generate very different means, but not different intensity response frequencies.

⁵Furthermore, the comparison across countries is relative, and not absolute, and the grand mean serves as a reference point for comparisons, and is used when standardising the country means to enable the comparisons of items with different scales which is carried out in the succeeding chapters.

⁶As mentioned earlier, these are the numbers that were used when calculating the area order sum included in the first table.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AND INTERPERSONAL PARTICIPATION

Participation in decision-making was operationalised by three items: “delegate”, “decision-making”, and “strategies”⁷, while two items “advice” and “initiative” were used to operationalise *interpersonal participation*⁸. All five items will be referred to as the “participation” items in the discussion below. Descriptives for the participation items are presented in table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Descriptives of “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation” at the country level

item	grand mean ¹	min country mean ¹	max country mean ¹	min country % intensive ²	max country % intensive	area order sum ³	range of order numbers ⁴
initiative	4.11	3.83	4.48	65%	88.9%	24	1-4
delegate	3.93	3.41	4.17	53.3%	83.3%	39	1-5
decision-making	3.87	3.50	4.21	50.9%	80.6%	53	1-4
advice	3.81	3.41	4.11	45.7%	80.5%	56	1-5
strategies	3.73	3.38	4.03	49.7%	80%	63	2-5

¹ the values in the table are all based on aggregated country values, e.g., “grand mean” is the mean of all country means added together and divided by the 16 countries included in this analysis, min mean=the country with the lowest mean, max mean=country with the highest mean.

² the “country % intensive” consists of the percentage of respondents in each country who indicated that something should be carried out to a larger extent (4 or 5 on the scale) or often (daily or weekly on the scale), i.e. indicating that they prefer that something is carried out “intensively”. The min country % for an item indicates the smallest country percentage and the max country % indicates the largest country percentage for the same item.

³ the area order sum is calculated by adding all countries magnitude order numbers for a particular item included in the area.

⁴ the range of order numbers is 1 to 5, since five items were used to operationalise this area.

Comparing the grand mean across the five items indicates the following ordering of items: “initiative” is followed by “delegate”, “decision-making”, “advice” and “strategies”. “Initiative” has the highest grand mean of 4.11 and the lowest grand mean is 3.73 for “strategies”. The minimum percentages vary between 46% and 65%, while the maximum vary between 80% and 89%. This does not necessarily have to imply that the order of items is different across countries but could simply be the case of variation in the absolute preferences for the items although they have a similar relative ordering across countries (i.e. a scoring effect instead of an ordering effect). However, the range of order numbers implies that the items are ordered differently within each country. In order to examine if the order of items is different in the 16 countries included in the Kabi-Pharmacia (see table 5.1.1 in appendix 5.1), sample table 5.2 has been compiled.

⁷The full phrasing of the items are: “to what extent should your immediate manager delegate responsibility to you”, “to what extent should your immediate manager share decision-making with you”, and “to what extent should your immediate managers discuss company strategies with you”.

⁸The full phrasing of the items are: “to what extent should your immediate manager take your advice” and “to what extent should your immediate manager appreciate your taking initiative”.

Table 5.2: Magnitude order of employees' preferences for participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation based on response frequencies

Country	First order ¹	Second order	Third order	Fourth order	Fifth order
Sweden	Initiative	Advice	Delegate	Decision-Making	Strategies
Norway	Initiative	Advice	Delegate	Decision-Making	Strategies
Denmark		Delegate / Initiative	Decision-Making	Strategies	Advice
Finland	Delegate	Initiative	Decision-Making	Strategies	Advice
Netherlands		Decision-Making / Delegate	Advice	Initiative	Strategies
Germany	Initiative	Advice / Decision-Making	Delegate	Delegate	Strategies
Austria	Initiative	Delegate	Advice	Strategies / Decision-Making	
Switzerland	Initiative	Decision-Making	Strategies	Delegate	Advice
Belgium	Initiative	Strategies / Delegate		Advice / Decision-Making	
France	Initiative	Advice	Strategies	Decision-Making	Delegate
Spain	Initiative	Delegate	Decision-Making	Strategies	Advice
Japan	Advice	Delegate	Decision-Making	Initiative	Strategies
United Kingdom	Initiative	Delegate	Strategies	Decision-Making	Advice
Australia	Delegate	Initiative	Strategies	Decision-Making	Advice
United States	Initiative	Delegate	Decision-Making	Strategies	Advice
Canada	Initiative	Advice	Decision-Making	Strategies	Delegate

¹This is the order of the five participation items according to their magnitude order (see tables 5.1.1 in appendix 5.1)

Studying the order of the participation item in each country presented in table 5.2 results in three observations regarding the ordering effect. First, in twelve of the 16 countries “initiative” is the participation item that is preferred by the largest percentage of the employees. *Employees in most countries included in this study want their manager to intensively appreciate their taking initiative.* Second, for the other four participation items there are almost as many variations in order as there are countries in the study. Third, in eleven of the 16 countries there are no systematic order differences between the participation in decision-making items, and interpersonal participation items across countries. In other words, one group of participation items was not preferred by a larger group of employees than another group of participation items. As can be seen in table 5.2, a differentiation between the two groups of participation items could only be observed in five countries (Sweden, Norway, Germany, France, and Canada). In these countries, the preference was for the two interpersonal participation items.

In earlier research the preference for participation in decision-making has been identified to vary with the type of decision to be made in such a way that more participation was espoused for short-term work-related decisions than for long-term decisions of a more strategic nature. This is only weakly echoed in table 5.2, where employees' preferences for discussing “strategies” is ordered last in only five of the countries, although it is among the two last-ordered items in ten of the 15 countries. Furthermore, in earlier studies when the respondents could choose between the different methods of participation in decision-making, joint decision-making or consultative decision-making was preferred or used by more

respondents than the delegation of responsibility method. In eleven of the countries studied in this dissertation the trend is reversed. A larger percentage of employees prefer their manager to “delegate” responsibility to a large extent than those who wish to share decision-making. It is important to note that in earlier research the choice of decision-making method was often based on specific descriptions of the decisions to be taken. It was not possible to include descriptions of decisions in the questionnaire used in this dissertation. Consequently, the results are not directly comparable with those in earlier research. However, the ordering effect in table 5.2 points towards a trend. Irrespective of the type of work or the type of decision that needs to be taken, *delegation of responsibility* is preferred by large groups of employees in many countries.

In sum, employees in many countries prefer “initiative” to be the participation item that is carried out to the largest extent. However, the ordering of the other participation items “delegate”, “advice”, “decision-making”, and “strategies” varies across the countries included in the study. It is possible that there is an increasing preference for delegation of responsibility as opposed to the findings of a preferred style of joint or consultative decision-making methods in earlier research. Furthermore, there are no systematic ordering differences between participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation except in five of the countries, where the interpersonal participation items were ordered the highest.

INFLUENCE AND CONTROL

Influence and control are operationalised by the following six items: “supervise”, “review”, “rules”, “influence”, “rewards”, and “followup”⁹. All six items are referred to as “control” items in the discussion below. Descriptives of the control items are presented in table 5.3 below.

⁹The full phrasing of the items are: “How often should your immediate manager supervise your job in detail”, “how often should your immediate manager review your achievements in comparison with your job objectives and expectations”, “to what extent should your immediate manager direct your department work by using rules and regulations”, “to what extent should your immediate manager influence your way of looking at your work”, “to what extent should your immediate manager offer you rewards to encourage work”, and “to what extent should our immediate manager follow-up your job performance”.

Table 5.3 Descriptives of “influence and control” at the country level

item	grand mean ¹	min country mean ¹	max country mean ¹	min country % intensive ²	max country % intensive ²	area order sum ³	range of order numbers ⁴
follow-up	3.89	3.58	4.27	54%	90.3%	20	1-3
influence	3.57	3.06	4.11	33.6%	71%	52	2-5
reward	3.48	2.95	4.21	41.5%	83.9%	34	1-4
rules	3.14	2.43	3.95	14.3%	64.9%	70	3-5
supervise (days)***	42.13	9.77	79.68	20.7%	64.2%	64	2-5
review (days)	23.20	13.95	51.79	9.4%	57.7%	94	5-6

¹ the values in the table are all based on aggregated country values, e.g., “grand mean” is the mean of all country means added together and divided by the 16 countries included in this analysis, min mean=the country with the lowest mean, max mean=country with the highest mean.

² the “country % intensive” consists of the percentage of respondents in each country who indicated that something should be carried out to a larger extent (4 or 5 on the scale) or often (daily or weekly on the scale), i.e. indicating that they prefer that something is carried out “intensively”. The min country % for an item indicates the smallest country percentage and the max country % indicates the largest country percentage for the same item.

³ the area order sum is calculated by adding all countries magnitude order numbers for a particular item included in the area.

⁴ the range of order numbers is 1 to 5, since five items were used to operationalise this area.

Comparing the area order sums in table 5.3 shows the following ordering of control items: follow-up, influence, reward, supervise, rules and review. Of the four items measured on the extent scale, “follow-up” has the highest grand mean of 3.89, and rules has the lowest with 3.14. The two items measured on the time scale have grand means of 42 times a year, and 23 times a year which is roughly equivalent to once a week and twice a month. The minimum intensity percentages vary between 9% and 54%, while the maximum percentages vary between 57% and 90%. There are larger differences for the control items regarding minimum and maximum intensity percentages than in the case of the participation items. However, in line with the reasoning above the ordering of items across the countries could still be the similar, but with a large scoring effect. The range of order numbers indicates that some items vary more in how much they are preferred by the employees in different countries than other items (see table 5.1.2 in appendix 5.1). The order of the items in each country can be examined in table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4 Magnitude order of employees' preferences for influence and control based on response frequencies

Country	First order ¹	Second order	Third order	Fourth order	Fifth order	Sixth order
Sweden	follow-up	reward	influence	rules	supervise	review
Norway	follow-up	influence	reward	rules	review	supervise
Denmark	follow-up	reward / influence	supervise	rules	review	supervise
Finland	reward	follow-up	influence	supervise	rules	review
Netherlands	follow-up	supervise	influence	reward	rules	review
Germany	reward	supervise	follow-up / influence	rules	review	review
Austria	follow-up	reward	rules	supervise	influence	review
Switzerland	reward	follow-up	influence	rules	supervise	review
Belgium	follow-up	reward	influence	supervise	rules	review
France	follow-up	reward	supervise	influence	rules	review
Spain	follow-up	supervise	rules	reward	review	influence
Japan	follow-up	reward	influence	rules	supervise	review
United Kingdom	follow-up	reward	influence	supervise	rules	review
Australia	follow-up	reward	influence	supervise	rules	review
United States	follow-up	reward	influence	rules	supervise	review
Canada	follow-up	reward	influence	rules	supervise	review

¹ This is the order of the six control items according to their magnitude order (see tables 5.1.2 in appendix 5.1)

In some of the earlier research, the focus has been on comparing the preferences for influence and control in countries that are characterised by high degrees of employee participation in decision-making with countries where participation is not carried out to a large extent. In other studies, the purpose has been to identify the employees' need for influence and control in comparison with other types of employee needs. In both types of studies, the results indicate that employees' do need and prefer managerial influence and control, for example, in the form of managers directing work, even if they work in highly participative organisations. However, there have been limited comparisons regarding which types of influence and control employees prefer.

A quick glance at table 5.4 reveals that the first ordered item among the control items in 13 out of 16 countries is "follow-up", while "reviewing" is ordered last among the control items in 14 out of 16 countries. Another observation is that there is a systematic differentiation between two groups of items in eleven of the 16 countries. One group includes "follow-up", "reward" and "influence" as the three first ordered items, although not necessarily in that order. The other group includes, in varying order, the control items "rules", "supervise" and "review". The distinction between the two groups of control items is not relevant for five countries (the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, France and Spain). In these countries "supervise" or "rules" are ordered among the first three items, while "reward" or "influence" are ordered among the latter three.

In sum, the results of the comparison of the ordering effect of the items operationalising influence and control have taken the findings from earlier research one step further. In earlier research, the employees' preference and need for influence and control had been identified but there was no comparison of the preferences for various forms of influence and control. In the discussion of the ordering effect above, it was found that in most countries there is a systematic differentiation between two groups of items with "followup", "influence", and "reward" as the first ordered, and "rules", "supervise", and "review" as the last ordered. This distinction between two groups was not valid in five countries, where "supervise" and "rules" were ordered among the first three items. Furthermore, employees prefer that the manager should *followup* to the largest extent of the control items, while conducting reviews should be the control item carried out least intensively. However, the order of the four other items "influence", "reward", "rules" and "supervise" varies within each country.

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FEEDBACK

Positive feedback is operationalised by three items: “effort”, “recognise” and “proud,” whereof the latter is measured on the time scale¹⁰. The *negative feedback* items include “dissatisfaction” and “reprimand”¹¹. All five items are referred to as “feedback” items in the discussion below. Descriptives for the feedback items are presented in table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Descriptives of “positive and negative feedback” at the country level

item	grand mean ¹	min country mean ¹	max country mean ¹	min country % intensive ²	max country % intensive ²	area order sum ³	range of order numbers ⁴
recognise	4.04	3.74	4.32	66.3%	89.4%	19	1-2
effort	3.93	3.55	4.21	60.3%	90%	27	1-2
reprimand	3.01	2.71	3.34	6.8%	50.9%	66	3-5
dissatisfaction	2.32	1.46	3.48	0%	50%	70	3-5
proud	57.12	26.82	94.60	25.9%	66.7%	55	3-5

¹ the values in the table are all based on aggregated country values, e.g., “grand mean” is the mean of all country means added together and divided by the 16 countries included in this analysis, min mean=the country with the lowest mean, max mean=country with the highest mean.

²the “country % intensive” consists of the percentage of respondents in each country who indicated that something should be carried out to a larger extent (4 or 5 on the scale) or often (daily or weekly on the scale), i.e. indicating that they prefer that something is carried out “intensively” The min country % for an item indicates the smallest country percentage and the max country % indicates the largest country percentage for the same item.

³the area order sum is calculated by adding all countries magnitude order numbers for a particular item included in the area.

⁴the range of order numbers is 1 to 5, since five items were used to operationalise this area.

Comparing the area order sums in table 5.5 indicates that the order of preference for feedback items is: “recognise”, “effort”, “proud”, “dissatisfaction”, and “reprimand”. Employees prefer positive feedback, in particular “recognise” with the highest grand mean of 4.04, while negative feedback, in particular dissatisfaction, is preferred to a lesser extent with its grand mean of 2.32. There are also large differences in the response frequencies. For “recognise” the lowest percentage is 66% and the highest is 89% of the employees, while “dissatisfaction” varies between 0% of the employees in one country to 50% in another country. The grand mean for “proud” is 57 times a year, which can be seen as equivalent to a little more than once a week, and this varies from 27 times a year to 95 times a year, that is, from more than twice a month to almost twice a week. The range of order numbers is not very large. Two of the three positive feedback items have received the first or second order number, while “proud”, together with the negative feedback items, is ordered among the three

¹⁰The full phrasing of the items are: “to what extent should your immediate manager praise your efforts (not only the outcome)”, “to what extent should your immediate manager recognise your good work”, and “how often should our immediate manager make you feel proud of your work”.

¹¹The full phrasing of the items are: “to what extent should your immediate manager raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction”, and “to what extent should your immediate manager formally reprimand poor performance”.

last items. To compare how similar the ordering of feedback items is in the countries included in the main analysis (see table 5.1.3 in appendix 5.1), table 5.6 has been compiled.

Table 5.6 Magnitude order of employees' preferences for positive and negative feedback based on response frequencies

Country	First order ¹	Second order	Third order	Fourth order	Fifth order
Sweden	recognise	effort	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Norway	effort	recognise	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Denmark	effort	recognise	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Finland	recognise	effort	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Netherlands	recognise	effort	dissatisfaction	proud	reprimand
Germany	recognise	effort	dissatisfaction	proud	reprimand
Austria	recognise	effort	dissatisfaction	proud	reprimand
Switzerland	recognise	effort	dissatisfaction	reprimand	proud
Belgium	recognise	effort	proud	dissatisfaction	reprimand
France	recognise	effort	reprimand	proud	dissatisfaction
Spain	recognise	effort	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Japan	effort	recognise	reprimand	proud / dissatisfaction	
United Kingdom		effort / recognise	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Australia	recognise	effort	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
United States	recognise	effort	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction
Canada		effort / recognise	proud	reprimand	dissatisfaction

¹This is the order of the five feedback items according to their magnitude order (see table 5.1.3 in appendix 5.1).

In table 5.6, it is apparent that in 13 of the 16 countries most employees consider that “recognise” is the feedback item that should be carried out intensively, while in eleven countries, showing “dissatisfaction” has the least employees supporting it. Furthermore, there is a clear differentiation between positive and negative feedback items in ten of the 16 countries. The exceptions are the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, and Japan. In these countries, larger groups of employees consider that the manager should show “dissatisfaction” or formally “reprimand” to a larger extent than making the employees feel proud of their work. This also explains why “proud” has the same range as the negative feedback items (and a much higher area order sum than the other positive feedback items). Consequently, “proud” is in fact ordered closer to the negative feedback items than the positive items according to the magnitude order of all the five items.

In earlier research, positive feedback and rewards had often been seen as more efficient than negative feedback and sanctions in motivating the employees to work. The underlying assumption seemed to have been that positive feedback was preferred to a much larger extent. This assumption seems to be validated by the findings in the study reported here, but not for all countries. There are countries where only a smaller percentage of the employees think that managers often should make their subordinates “proud” of their work. Instead, they want managers to show dissatisfaction or formally reprimand poor performance to a larger extent. Overall, there is a preference for more positive feedback than negative

feedback, when the positive feedback is related to recognising the effort or outcome of the work carried out. This does not hold for feedback in the form of strengthening the subordinates' confidence by making them feel proud.

In sum, "recognition" is the most preferred form of feedback in a majority of the countries, while "dissatisfaction" is the least preferred. There is an ordering differentiation between the two groups of positive and negative feedback items in all but five countries included in the study. In the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France and Japan, employees prefer their managers to show dissatisfaction rather than make them feel proud. This clarifies why "proud" is ordered closer to the negative items than the positive feedback items when taking the intensity response frequencies into account. The results lend some empirical support to the assumptions in earlier research that positive feedback is more preferred than negative feedback as long as the feedback is focused on the effort or the outcome of work and not on the confidence of the subordinates. However, the assumption might well be culturally biased.

INDIVIDUAL AND TEAM CONCERNS

Individual concerns are measured by the following five items: "you", "career", "information", "communication", and "personal"¹², whereof the latter two are measured on the time scale. The following three items are used to measure *team concern*: "team", "co-operation" and "department"¹³. The group of items measuring individual and team concern is referred to as "concern" items in the discussion below. Descriptives for the concern items are presented in table 5.7 below.

¹²The full phrasing of the items are: "to what extent should your immediate manager take an interest in your career", "to what extent should your immediate manager make you do your utmost", "to what extent should your immediate manager inform you about department/section plans and aims", "how often should your immediate manager and you communicate with each other, and "how often should your immediate manager take an interest in and talk about our personal life with you".

¹³The full phrasing of the items are: "to what extent should your immediate manager make you feel part of a team", "to what extent should your immediate manager encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers", and "to what extent should your immediate manager make the department perform its utmost".

Table 5.7 Descriptives of “individual and team concerns” at the country level

item	grand mean ¹	min country mean ¹	max country mean ¹	min country % intensive ²	max country % intensive ²	area order sum ³	range of order numbers ⁴
information	4.20	4.05	4.40	75%	93.3%	37	2-4
team	4.10	3.84	4.41	69.9%	87.8%	58	1-6
department	4.07	3.77	4.45	62%	90.6%	70	3-6
you	4.02	3.62	4.26	60.4%	83.9%	81	3-7
co-operation	3.93	3.77	4.40	60.7%	90.9%	83	3-7
career	3.90	3.39	4.40	53%	84.6%	91	2-7
communication	140.25	109.58	167.33	80%	97%	19	1 (2)
personal	36.27	10.25	68.25	9.4%	57.7%	128	8

¹ the values in the table are all based on aggregated country values, e.g., “grand mean” is the mean of all country means added together and divided by the 16 countries included in this analysis, min mean=the country with the lowest mean, max mean=country with the highest mean.

² the “country % intensive” consists of the percentage of respondents in each country who indicated that something should be carried out to a larger extent (4 or 5 on the scale) or often (daily or weekly on the scale), i.e. indicating that they prefer that something is carried out “intensively”. The min country % for an item indicates the smallest country percentage and the max country % indicates the largest country percentage for the same item.

³ the area order sum is calculated by adding all countries magnitude order numbers for a particular item included in the area.

⁴ the range of order numbers is 1 to 5, since five items were used to operationalise this area.

The area order sums for the concern items indicate that they are ordered as follows: “communication”, “information”, “team”, “department”, “you”, co-operation”, “career”, and “personal”. The item with the highest grand mean measured on the extent scale is “information” (4.20) while “Career” has the lowest grand mean (3.90). “Communication”, one of the two items measured on the time scale, has a grand mean of 140 times a year, which indicates that employees want to communicate with their immediate managers more than once every other day on average. The other item measured on the time scale, “personal,” has a grand mean of 36 times a year which is roughly equivalent to three times a month.

The variation across the minimum and maximum percentages is very large (the minimum varies between 9.4% and 80%, while the maximum varies between 58% and 97%). This finding is clarified when observing the range of order numbers. The range indicates that two items are ordered very similarly in most countries and that they account for the highest of the minimum percentage, and the lowest of the maximum percentage. The range of the other concern items implies that they are ordered differently across countries (see table 5.1.4 in appendix 5.1). To facilitate the comparison between countries, table 5.8 was compiled.

Table 5.8 Magnitude order of employees' preferences for individual concerns based on response frequencies

Country	First ¹	Second ¹	Third ¹	Fourth ¹	Fifth ¹	Sixth ¹	Seventh ¹	Eight ¹
Sweden	comm	info	dept	you	career	team	coop	pers
Norway	comm	info	dept	team	you	coop	career	pers
Denmark	comm		info / career		dept / team	coop	you	pers
Finland		comm / coop		info / dept	you	team	career	pers
Netherlands	comm	info	you	dept	team	coop	career	pers
Germany	comm	info	team	career	coop	dept	you	pers
Austria	comm	info	team	career	you	dept	coop	pers
Switzerland	team	comm	info	coop	career	you	dept	pers
Belgium	comm		info / team		coop	dept	career	you
France	comm	info		you / team	coop	dept	career	pers
Spain	comm	info	team	coop		dept / you	career	pers
Japan	comm	dept	info	team		you / coop	career	pers
United Kingdom	comm		info / team		career	dept / you	coop	pers
Australia	comm	team	you	info	career	dept	coop	pers
United States	comm	info		dept / team	you	coop	career	pers
Canada	comm	info	dept	coop	team	you	career	pers

¹This is the order of the eight concern items according to their magnitude order (see table 5.1.4 in appendix 5.1).

A few immediate observations can be made when examining table 5.8. In all countries but one, the preference of employees is that their immediate manager should communicate with them to a large extent. This is the most stable first-ordered item within any of the areas describing interpersonal leadership. "Inform" is the second-ordered concern item in all but four countries. "Personal" is the last-ordered item in this area for all countries, and it is the most stable last-ordered item overall. That managers should frequently take an interest in and talk about "personal" life with the subordinates is preferred by less than 50% in twelve of the 16 countries (the exceptions are Sweden, Spain, the United Kingdom and Australia).

In earlier research, there had been a somewhat limited discussion regarding team work, while the concern for individuals in general had received more attention. However, there had been very limited comparison, if any, between the two types of managerial concern¹⁴, since the comparison in earlier research more often than not dealt with managers' focus on task versus on individuals. In table 5.8, it is apparent that the ordering of the items, "department", "team", "co-operation", "career" and "you" varies across the countries in almost as many combinations as there are countries in the study. This is indicated by the range or order numbers mentioned above. Thus, it is not possible to identify any differentiation in the ordering of the items between those countries that operationalise concern for individuals and those that operationalise concern for teams.

¹⁴ There has been substantial research carried out regarding the role of individuals versus groups within cross-cultural management and psychology. Some of this research will be mentioned in Chapter 7, in the discussion of cultural frameworks.

In sum, in almost all countries “communication” and “information” are the two first-ordered items, and “personal” is the last-ordered concern item. The other four items vary in ordering across countries. Finally, it is not possible to differentiate in the ordering of items between the two groups of concern items, that is individual concerns versus team concerns.

SUMMARISING DISCUSSION OF THE ORDERING EFFECT

The ordering effect regarding four areas of interpersonal leadership has been examined. The areas are “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation” (participation), “influence and control” (control), “positive and negative feedback” (feedback), and “concern for individuals and teams” (concern). In penetrating the interesting question of the ordering of items within each area across the countries in the study, three types of observations were made.

The *first observation* is that in most countries the same item was ordered first for each area of interpersonal leadership, and in three of the four areas the same item was ordered last in most countries. The *first-ordered* items in the four areas included the following: that employees in a majority of the countries felt that their immediate manager should appreciate subordinates’ “initiative”; that managers should “follow-up” subordinates’ work; that managers should “recognise” subordinates’ good work; and that managers should “communicate” with subordinates frequently (daily or weekly). In addition, the idea that managers should “inform” employees about the department’s plans and aims was the second-ordered of the concern items in most countries. The *last-ordered* items in most countries were to that the immediate manager should “review” subordinates’ achievements in accordance with objectives and expectations; that managers should show “dissatisfaction”; and that managers should take an interest in and talk about “personal” life.

The *second observation* is that in two of the four areas it was possible to differentiate between two groups of items, although the ordering of items was not necessarily the same across countries within the two groups. In both the area of “control” and the area of “feedback,” a differentiation between two groups of items could be seen in eleven of the 16 countries. For the *control* items, there was an indication of systematic differentiation in the first-ordered group of “follow-up”, “influence”, “reward” on the one hand, and the last-ordered group of “rules”, “supervise” and “review”, on the other hand. However, in five countries (the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, France and Spain) the distinction between the two groups was not clear. A differentiation between two groups of items could also be

identified regarding the *feedback* items, where the positive feedback items were ordered before the negative feedback items. However, this was not the case in five countries (the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, and Japan), where employees preferred a negative feedback item - that their managers showed “dissatisfaction” - rather than the positive feedback item that managers should make subordinates “proud” of their work.

For the other two areas, “participation” and “concern”, there was limited, if any, systematic differentiation between groups of items. In the case of the participation items, there was a differentiation between two groups of items only in five countries (Sweden, Norway, Germany, France, and Canada) where the interpersonal participation items were ordered higher than the participation in decision-making items. Between the groups of items on *concern* for individuals and those on concern for teams, it was not possible to identify any systematic differentiation.

The *third observation* is that there was not one single area of interpersonal leadership where the ordering of all items was similar across countries. For two of the areas it was possible to differentiate between two groups of items, although the items were not similarly ordered within the groups across the countries in this study. Across many of the countries, the first-ordered and often the last-ordered items were the same. Nevertheless, the order of items was still not similar across countries. It should be emphasised that although the first-ordered and the last-ordered items of the four areas of interpersonal leadership were similar for many countries, they were not similar for all countries. The only exceptions were “communication” and “personal” which were ranked first and last in all countries in this study. Consequently, “communication” and “personal” were the only items that were similarly ordered in all countries in this sample, while all the other items varied in ordering effect across countries. Given this finding, the question to raise in this context is whether there is a scoring effect across countries for the items within the four areas of “interpersonal leadership.”

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN SCORING EFFECT

Two types of differences across countries are in focus in this chapter. The *ordering effect* has been described above, and the *scoring effect* will be examined below by conducting an analysis of variance (ANOVA). In the questionnaire, the employees have scored their preferences on an extent scale ranging from 1 to 5, and a time scale including five options:

daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, and never¹⁵. The question of interest here is whether the scores for the interpersonal leadership items vary significantly across countries. As discussed in the methodology chapter, it is also possible that there are differences across departments, work positions, age groups, and gender. Consequently, all five different background variables (nationality, department, position, age and gender) are entered together into one ANOVA for each interpersonal leadership item. The primary purpose with using an ANOVA is to identify which items vary across countries, but given the differing sample demographics it is imperative to control for the background variables in the analysis¹⁶. A second purpose is to examine if the interpersonal leadership items vary across other demographic variables than nationality.

THE ANOVA ANALYSES

In Chapter 3, it was mentioned that the main analysis in this dissertation is carried out using the data collected in Kabi-Pharmacia by using the long version of the questionnaire, while the data from the other Procordia-owned companies collected by using the short version of the questionnaire is used as a hold-out sample and analysed separately in a later section of this chapter. As mentioned earlier, the respondents working for Kabi Pharmacia were from 16 different countries. In some of the countries the samples of respondents were disproportionately larger than, in the other countries, in particular, the Swedish sample which constituted about 50% of the total Kabi Pharmacia (see table 4.4 in Chapter 4). To control for differences in country sample sizes, a random selection of 135 respondents was made for all countries with more than 135 respondents¹⁷. Furthermore, in seven of the countries there were less than 135 respondents and these countries were omitted from the *balanced sample*. The second sample was an *unbalanced* sample, which included both the balanced sample and the countries with the smaller sample sizes that had been omitted from the balanced sample (i.e. Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Austria, Switzerland, Australia, and Canada). Consequently, two sets of samples were used for the ANOVA analyses (see table 5.9 below).

¹⁵See Chapter 3 for a discussion of the scales used in the questionnaire.

¹⁶See Chapter 3 for a discussion for statistical comments, and Chapter 4 for a presentation of the sample demographics. (especially table 4.4).

¹⁷ The choice of the random selection of 135 respondents was based on the attempt to balance as large a number of respondents in each country with including as many countries as possible in the analysis.

Table 5.9: An overview of the samples used in the ANOVA analysis

Country	Kabi Pharmacia sample	the balanced sample*	the unbalanced sample
Australia	48	omitted	48
Austria	45	omitted	45
Belgium	72	omitted	72
Canada	39	omitted	39
Denmark	41	omitted	41
Finland	34	omitted	34
France	183	135	135
Germany	321	135	135
Japan	189	135	135
Netherlands	137	135	135
Norway	200	135	135
Spain	361	135	135
Sweden	2 362	135	135
Switzerland	39	omitted	39
United Kingdom	144	135	135
United States	358	135	135
n	16	9	16

*random selection

The ANOVAs presented in table 5.10 below were conducted using a *balanced* sample which included the following groups for each background variable¹⁸:

- **Nationality:** France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States (9 groups)¹⁹
- **Department:** Research & Development, Administration & Finance, Sales & Marketing, and Production & Transport (4 groups)²⁰
- **Position:** Manager, Researcher, Supervisor, Staff, Workers (5 groups)
- **Age:** less than 25, 25 to 35, 36-45, 45-55, and over 55 (5 groups)
- **Gender:** male and female (2 groups)

One ANOVA was conducted for each item of interpersonal leadership. All five background variables were entered simultaneously in order to examine their main effects on each interpersonal leadership variable used in this study. The results from the ANOVA analyses displayed in table 5.10 show that 23 of the 24 *interpersonal leadership items vary across the countries in the study at less than the 0.1% significance level* (except one item

¹⁸ In common terminology used when conducting ANOVAs the background variables are referred to as “factors” and the groups within each background variable are referred to as “levels”.

¹⁹ In the analysis of the unbalanced sample, the countries with the smaller sample sizes (i.e., Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Austria, Switzerland, Australia, and Canada) were re-entered into the analysis and this created 16 “groups” for the nationality “level” in the ANOVA.

²⁰ For a discussion of the questions and coding used to identify these groups, see Chapter 4: Research Methodology.

which was significant at the 1% level)²¹. Thus, the first research question in this dissertation, whether there are differences across countries in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership, can be affirmatively answered.

Table 5.10: 24 separate ANOVAs with the balanced sample²² combined into one table. One ANOVA for each interpersonal leadership item (F-values)

To what extent should your immediate manager... #How often should your immediate manager...	NAT	DEPT	POS	AGE	Gender
Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation					
..delegate responsibility to you	6.20**	3.54	9.06**	1.04	1.21
..share decision-making with you	6.34**	3.14	5.49**	.91	5.26
..discuss company strategies with you	7.76**	14.45**	6.01**	1.07	8.68**
..take advice from you	13.86**	4.40*	.91	.42	18.37**
..appreciate you taking the initiative	5.05**	6.85**	1.36*	.46	.01
Influence and control					
..followup your job performance	5.82**	4.90*	.78	.24	1.30
..influence your way of looking at your work	8.65**	4.93*	.33	.56	2.92
..offer you rewards to encourage work	3.94**	8.74**	1.82	.82	1.23
..direct your department's work by using rules and regulations	28.56**	1.99	4.22*	2.58	77
#.supervise your job in detail	35.79**	.85	24.94**	.56	.30
#.review your achievements in comparison with your objectives and expectations	16.92**	.94	7.18**	.12	1.83
Positive and Negative Feedback					
..recognise your good work	4.51**	4.44**	1.04	.43	.15
..praise your efforts (not only the outcome)	7.03**	6.78**	1.88	2.54	2.38
#.make you feel proud of your work	19.67**	.67	2.81	.91	.84
..formally reprimand poor performance	4.21**	2.76	2.17	.45	7.86*
..raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction	34.99**	3.24	2.00	1.30	21.79**
Individual and Team Concerns					
..make your department perform its utmost	9.76**	6.03**	2.32	.24	.69
..try to make you feel part of a team	4.26**	5.33*	2.19	1.30	.56
..encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers	2.56*	5.38*	1.37	.53	.19
..inform you about the department/section plans and aims	1.82	1.40	3.51*	3.08	.07
..take an interest in your career	10.01**	6.93**	3.23	1.48	2.75
#..and you communicate with each other	4.21**	6.67**	.98	1.32	.86
..make you do your utmost	6.24**	3.78	.56	.62	.05
#.take an interest in and talk about your personal life with you	38.13**	1.54	3.17	1.63	.04

Note: * p<.01, **p<.001

NAT=nationality, DEPT=department, POS=position

The results in table 5.10 also indicate that employees' preferences regarding some of the elements of interpersonal leadership also varied across departments, work position, or gender in addition to the significant differences across countries. This is an important point, since *there are no elements of interpersonal leadership*, with the exception of preferences for

²¹ The question of to what extent the immediate manager should "inform about the department/section's plans and aims" was the only question that did not vary significantly across countries.

²²The analysis using the unbalanced sample generated similar findings to those presented in the table. Only two differences were identified. The first was that department had a significant main effect on "follow-up job performance" in the country unbalanced design, and the second was that position did not have a significant main effect on "appreciate taking initiative" in the unbalanced country analysis. As a conservative measure the results from the balanced country design were chosen and are presented in this chapter.

information”, that vary across any of the background variables **without also varying across countries** as was often hypothesised in earlier research.

In table 5.10 it is evident that there were three items that only varied by the respondents’ nationality. Nine of the interpersonal leadership items did not only vary across nationalities, but also across departments. Five of the interpersonal leadership items varied both across the respondent’s nationality and work position. Two items varied across both nationality and gender. No interpersonal leadership items differed across the five age groups. Finally, there were three items that varied across more than two background variables. The first differed across nationality, department, and gender, the second across nationality, department, and position, and the third across nationality, department, position, and gender (see table 5.11 below).

Table 5.11: The demographic variables with a main effect on the four areas of interpersonal leadership

<i>nationality</i>	<i>nationality and department</i>	<i>nationality and position</i>	<i>nationality and gender</i>	<i>combinations of background variables</i>
..make you do your utmost	..follow-up your job-performance	..delegate responsibility to you	...raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction	..take advice from you (nationality, department and gender)
..take an interest in and talk about your personal life	..influence your way of looking at work	..share decision-making with you	..formally reprimand poor performance	..appreciate you taking the initiative (nationality, department and position)
...make you feel proud of your work	..offer you rewards to encourage work	..direct the department’s work by using rules and regulations		..discuss company strategies with you (nationality, department, position and gender)
	..recognise your good work	..supervise your job in detail		
	..praise your efforts (not only the outcome)	..review your achievements in comparison with your objectives and expectations		
	..make your department perform its utmost			
	..try to make you feel part of a team			
	..encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers			
	..take an interest in your career			
	..your immediate manager and you communicate with each other			

DISCUSSION OF SCORING EFFECT

The first objective in this dissertation is to identify similarities and differences in interpersonal leadership across the countries in this study. The results from the ANOVA analyses presented above clearly indicate that all items, but one, were found to vary significantly across the countries in this study. Three of these items varied only across employee nationality, and not across any of the other background variables. These three items focused on to what extent managers should make employees do their utmost, how often managers should take an interest in and talk about employees' personal lives, and finally how often managers should make employees' feel proud of their work. These three items are all involve both making the employees do their utmost and two forms of interacting with the employees . The interaction is both work-related and personal.

The majority of the items varied not only by nationality, but also by some of the other background variables included in the analysis. It has increasingly been argued both by practitioners and researchers that there are differences in employees' preferences related to their profession. In addition, functional cultures, that is, departments, have been identified as strong sub-cultures within organisations. Thus, it has often been hypothesised in earlier research that there are differences in attitudes, values, as well as behaviour on a wide variety of topics between employees working for different departments²³. Some of these hypotheses have been supported by empirical evidence, for example, it has been shown that employees in different departments have different preferences and attitudes, in particular regarding incentives and rewards, but also regarding issues related to control mechanisms.

The results from the ANOVA presented above support earlier hypotheses and findings in that there were significant differences across departments (and nationality) regarding rewards or positive feedback ("recognise", and "effort"), incentives ("rewards"), and control mechanism ("influence" and "follow-up") (see tables 5.2.5 and 5.2.6. in appendix 5.2). There were also some additional issues not raised to any larger extent in earlier research which also varied significantly across departments. They related to employees' preference for managerial concern for teams ("department", "team," and "co-operation") and managerial concern for individuals ("career," and "communication"). *Thus, earlier hypotheses regarding differences across countries are supported by the distinction that there are differences across countries*

²³ A recent example is given in a study of international innovation projects where the lack of a common "language" between functions resulted in more problems across function than across countries (Ridderstråle, 1996).

as well as across departments, which is not the reasoning advanced in the bulk of the cross-functional research.

A closer look at the scores of the departments (see table 5.2.7 in appendix 5.2) reveals that sales and marketing departments scored higher than the other departments on all of the above items, except for “communication” where they scored lower than the other departments²⁴. The degree of preference of the employees in the other departments varied across the items. Furthermore, “strategies”, “advice”, and “initiative” were also found to vary across departments as well as some of the other background variables. These three items are more discussion-oriented items, where employees want their managers to look upon them as sources of advice, initiative, and as discussion partners for strategies, rather than sharing the decision-making control with employees as in the case of “delegation” and “decision-making”. The latter two items vary across both nationality and positions, as could be expected from earlier research, and the findings will be discussed below. That the three discussion-oriented participation items vary across departments is perhaps related to the nature of the departments’ work. Two important dimensions characterising department work could be the degree of flexibility and the need for creativity. High levels of these dimensions tend to characterise the sales and marketing as well as the research and development departments to a higher extent than production, transport, administration and finance departments. Tables 5.2.8 in appendix 5.2 indicate that employees in sales and marketing as well as research and development departments feel that their managers should appreciate their initiative, take their advice, and discuss strategies with them, to a larger extent than employees in other departments.

In earlier research, as discussed in Chapter 2, preferences regarding interpersonal leadership in particular for participation as well as influence and control were found to vary according to hierarchical level or work position. The results from the ANOVA indicates the same pattern in this study. The items that vary by position (as well as by nationality) are four items operationalising participation, that is, “delegate”, “decision-making”, “initiative”, and “strategies”, as well as three items operationalising control, that is, “rules”, “supervise”, and

“review”. A closer look at how five work positions score on the above-mentioned items reveals that “directing”, “supervision”, and “review” should be carried out to a large extent by the immediate manager according to production workers. A little less is preferred by supervisors, followed by office staff, researchers and managers in descending order of preference (see table 5.2.10 in appendix 5.2). For the items measuring participation, results related to positions are almost the reverse in that the group of managers prefer this to be carried out to a larger extent and production worker prefer this the least. The work positions in between however vary for each item (see tables 5.2.9 in appendix 5.2) . *Consequently, there are differences across work positions in employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership, in addition to the differences across countries for the same elements of interpersonal leadership.*

In earlier research, female managers have been compared to male managers, but there seems to be limited research on male and female employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership. Women managers have been found in the earlier studies to be more person-oriented than their male colleagues, and this raises the question if female employees prefer their managers to show more concern than male employees for individuals and to encourage more participation. In the results from the ANOVA presented in Table 5.10 and 5.11, it is indicated that only four items differ significantly between men and women. The first two are the negative feedback items (“dissatisfaction” and “reprimand”), and the second two participation items (“advice” and “strategies”). The latter two seem to imply support for earlier research findings and hypotheses. However, a closer look at the scores reveals that women prefer that their immediate manager should take their advice and discuss strategies with them *to a lesser extent* than the male respondents, which is contrary to the discussion in earlier research (see table 5.2.12 in appendix 5.2). Men also prefer negative feedback to be carried out to a larger extent than the women do (see table 5.2.11 in appendix 5.2). *Thus, in addition to across-country differences in employees preferences for negative feedback, and participation in decision-making there are also differences across gender in the preferences regarding these elements of interpersonal leadership.*

²⁴ It is possible that this reflects the nature of the sales and marketing department’s work in that the employees need feedback, and rewards, but do not want to spend much time on communicating with the manger on a daily basis. In other words they are independent in the carrying out of work, but are dependent upon the feedback, rewards and other sources of incentives. The situation for the production workers is quite the opposite in that they prefer that managers in general spend more time on almost daily communication. There is, however, not the

In sum, the analysis of the scoring effect has resulted in the following five observations. First, the most important observation is that *all items but one, vary significantly across the 16 countries included in the main analysis*. Second, as could be expected from earlier research on interpersonal leadership, issues related to control and participation vary across the hierarchical level or work position of the employees. Third, issues related to incentives and control mechanisms (influence and control items), and rewards (positive feedback items), vary across departments as suggested in earlier research. In addition, discussion-oriented participation items as well as concern for teams and concern for individuals also vary across departments. Fourth, perhaps in contrast with earlier hypothesised expectations, women prefer less involvement in some forms of participation (“strategies” and “advice”) than men. Furthermore, women prefer significantly less negative feedback than men. Fifth, the items that vary only by nationality focus on the interaction between managers and employees. Interaction is concentrated on the individual from three different perspectives, that is, making the employees work, making the employees proud of their work, and being personal with the employees.

Finally, the first research question if there are differences in employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries has been affirmatively answered. In addition, differences across departments, work positions and gender have received some attention in the discussion. The question to pursue in the next section is whether the identified ordering effects and scoring effects in the main analysis are replicated in the hold-out analysis.

THE HOLD-OUT SAMPLE

The hold-out sample includes employees working in 13 of the countries included in the main analysis, but for different companies than Kabi Pharmacia (see Chapter 4 for a description). Employees from other companies in two additional countries, Brazil and the Philippines, were also included in the hold-out sample. The data in the hold-out sample was collected by using a short version of the questionnaire. The shortened questionnaire included all five items measured on the time scale and six items measured on the extent scale²⁵.

same need to give feedback or follow up activities to the extent that these activities are desired by the sales people.

²⁵ See Chapter 3 for a discussion of the two different versions of the questionnaire.

ORDERING EFFECT IN THE HOLD-OUT SAMPLE

The short version of the questionnaire was used in the companies included in the hold-out sample. Consequently, in the analysis of the hold-out sample six items are used to operationalise the concern items, two items for the “participation” and “control” areas each, while there is only one item for the feedback area²⁶. The examination of the ordering of items within each area is carried out in the same way as the main analysis (see appendix 5.3 for tables 5.3.1 to 5.3.4 compiled for the analysis of the hold-out sample) with the purpose of casting some light on the generalisability of the main analysis findings.

The *first observation* from the *main analysis* is that for all four areas of interpersonal leadership the same item was first-ordered in most countries, and in most countries also the last ordered item was the same for three of the four areas. In *the hold-out sample* four of these seven items are included and can be examined. The observation is *replicated* for both the first ordered items, that is, “initiative” (participation), and “communication” (concern)²⁷, and for the two last ordered, that is, “review” (control), and “personal” (concern)²⁸. “Inform” was identified as the second-ordered concern in most countries in the main analysis, but this was not the case in the hold-out sample²⁹.

The *second observation* in the main analysis is that it was possible to differentiate between two groups of items for two areas: control and feedback, but not for the other two areas - participation and concern. Concern is the only area with enough items in the hold-out questionnaire to explore if there is a division between two groups of items across countries. It was not possible to differentiate between the items operationalising concern for individuals and concern for teams in the *main analysis* and this finding was *replicated* in the analysis of the *hold-out sample*.

²⁶Concern is operationalised by “communication”, “you”, “inform”, “department”, “co-operation”, and “personal”. Participation is operationalised by “initiative” and “delegate”, the control area by “supervise” and “review”, and feedback by “proud” (see Chapter 3 for a discussion of the long and short versions of the questionnaire).

²⁷In the hold-out sample, “initiative” was ordered first in 14 of the 15 countries, including the additional countries, and it had been ordered first in twelve of the 16 countries in the main analysis. In the main analysis, “communication” was ordered first in 15 of the 16 countries, while in the hold-out sample “communication” is ordered first in all countries including the additional two countries.

²⁸“Personal” was ordered last of the concern items in all the countries included in the main analysis. This was also the case for all the countries in the hold-out analysis. In the main analysis, “review” was ordered last in 14 of 16 countries, in the hold-out sample it is ordered last in 13 of the 15 countries including the two new countries.

²⁹“Inform” was ordered second in twelve of 16 countries in the main analysis, but only in six of the 15 countries in the hold-out sample (including one new country).

The *third result* from the *main analysis* is that there was no single area where the ordering of items was similar across countries. In the *hold-out sample* this result *holds* for the concern area which is the only area where it is possible to examine if the order is different across countries.

In conclusion, the three findings regarding the ordering effect in the main analysis could also be observed when the hold-out sample was examined (to the extent it was possible to perform the analysis given the limited number of items included in the hold-out sample). The hold-out sample included employees working for other companies than Kabi-Pharmacia in the same countries used in the main analysis plus an additional two countries. It was possible to identify that in most countries employees in the hold-out sample also had ordered “communication” and “initiative” first, and “personal” and “review” last in each respective area. However, “inform” that was ordered second among the concern items by the Kabi-Pharmacia personnel in almost all countries, was only ordered second in half the countries in the hold-out sample. Furthermore, as earlier mentioned, the Kabi-Pharmacia personnel did not order the concern items similarly across countries, neither did the employees working for the other companies in the hold-out sample. Furthermore, none of the samples of employees differentiated between concern for the individual and concern for the team in the ordering of items. In addition all the discussed observations are valid for the two new countries included in the hold-out sample, Brazil and the Philippines.

In sum, *the ordering of most items varies across countries in both the main analysis and the hold-out sample analysis*. The only exceptions are “communication” and “personal” which are ordered similarly by hold-out sample employees in all countries. The next question to pursue in the analysis of the hold-out sample is whether there are significant differences in the scoring effect in the hold-out sample, that is. employees’ preferences across countries in terms of to which extent, or at which frequency, the managers should carry out different aspects of interpersonal leadership.

SCORING EFFECT IN THE HOLD-OUT SAMPLE

The scoring effect is analysed in the hold-out sample using an ANOVA along the same lines as for the main analysis. Two different samples are used (see table 5.4.1 in appendix 5.4). The first sample is a *balanced design* where all country samples include 135 respondents. The countries with less than 135 respondents are omitted and for countries with more than 135 respondents the number of respondents has been decreased to 135 respondents

through a random selection process. The second sample is an *unbalanced* sample which also includes the countries with less than 135 respondents.

The results from the eleven ANOVAs are presented in table 5.4.2 in appendix 5.4, and the results from the ANOVAs with the hold-out sample are similar to those conducted in the main analysis. All eleven items in the hold-out analysis were found to vary significantly across countries including “inform” that was the only item in the main analysis that did not vary significantly across countries. Six items varied significantly only across nationality (see tables 5.4.3 to 5.4.6 in appendix 5.4), two items varied across nationality and position (see tables 5.4.8 and 5.4.9 in appendix 5.4), while three items varied across nationality, department and position (see table 5.4.7 in appendix 5.4 in addition to the earlier mentioned tables) . No items varied significantly across gender or age groups. Important to note is that the items that varied across gender in the main analysis were not included in the short version of the questionnaire used in the hold-out analysis.

Included among the six items that varied only by nationality were the three items that varied only by nationality in the main analysis, that is, “proud”, “personal”, and “you”. The other three items were “department”, “co-operation” and “inform”. The two first-mentioned items varied by nationality and department in the main analysis and “inform” was the only item in the main analysis that did not vary significantly across countries in the study.

“Communication” and “initiative” varied significantly across departments in both the main analysis and the hold-out analysis. However, in the hold-out analysis “supervision” was found to vary not only across nationality and position, but also across departments which was not the case in the main analysis. “Delegate” and “initiative” as well as “supervise” and “review” varied across position in both the main analysis and the hold-out analysis. In addition, “communication” also varied across positions, which was not the case in the main analysis.

The first and most important observation from the analysis of the scoring effect in the hold-out sample is that the results are very similar to those from the ANOVAs in the main analysis. However, one discrepancy between the ANOVAs in the main analysis and those using the hold-out sample stands out. The difference in scoring effect between the main and the hold-out sample is that “inform” varied by country in the hold-out sample, but not in the main analysis. Furthermore, in the analysis of the ordering effect with the hold-out sample “inform” was found to vary more in ordering effect than it did in the main analysis where it was ordered second after “communication” in most countries. This deviation between the two

samples raises the question of whether it was unique for Kabi-Pharmacia that employees preferred their manager to inform them to a high extent, and that their preferences did not vary across countries. Alternatively, something related to the other companies in the hold-out sample could have resulted in significant differences in the preferences for information. It is possible that the turbulence after the merger between Kabi-Vitrum and Pharmacia, with the on-going re-organisation³⁰ led to a large need for information that exists in similar strength from one country to another. In the hold-out sample, some of the companies such as Swedish Match had only recently been acquired by Procordia, while others were acquired some years back and very limited changes in the internal organisation of these acquisitions have been carried out. Consequently, it is possible that there are differences across countries in the preferences for information as suggested by the hold-out sample, although the particular situation that Kabi-Pharmacia was facing at the time of the data collection increased the need for information in the whole organisation in such a way that no significant differences across countries were evident.

In sum, the employees in other companies than Kabi-Pharmacia in 13 countries as well as an additional two countries were found in large to have similar ordering and scoring effects as the Kabi-Pharmacia personnel. One discrepancy that affected both the ordering effect and the scoring effect was that the employees' preference for information differed in the two samples. The question to pursue in the concluding discussion of this chapter is how the ordering effect and the scoring effect can be used to distinguish similarities and differences in employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership across the countries in the study presented in this dissertation.

CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

The first objective in this dissertation is to identify similarities and differences across countries in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. This objective is pursued in this and the succeeding chapter. In this chapter, the ordering effect and the scoring effect have been examined in order to identify similarities and differences. Only two types of similarities have been identified. The first similarity across countries was detected when studying the ordering effect. This was identified for both "communication" and "personal". "Communication" was first-ordered, while "personal" was last-ordered of the items

³⁰ The merger and the re-organisation are briefly described in Chapter 4 in the presentation of the Conglomerate.

operationalising concern for individuals and teams in all the countries in both the main analysis and the hold-out analysis³¹. However, both these two items differed significantly across countries when it comes to scoring effects. Thus, “communication” and “personal” can be identified as differing across countries *in degree, but not in kind* (see figure 5.2 below).

The second similarity was detected when analysing the scoring effect, and was identified for “inform”. There were significant differences across countries in employees’ preference for information from their immediate manager in the main sample. The ordering effect for “inform” was similar in many, but not all countries. Consequently, “inform” differed across countries *in kind, but not in degree* (see figure 5.2 below). However, this result was not replicated in the hold-out analysis where “inform” was found to vary significantly across countries. One possible explanation for this discrepancy could be employees’ increased need for information within Kabi-Pharmacia in all countries due to the recent merger between Kabi-Vitrum and Pharmacia as well as a considerable re-organisation process within Kabi-Pharmacia at the time of the survey. Although there were newly acquired companies within the hold-out sample, these were not subjected to such a reorganisation process. “Inform” is placed within parenthesis in figure 5.2 to indicate the possibility that it should perhaps not be placed in that particular cell in the figure.

The ordering effect as well as the scoring effect indicated that there were differences in employees’ preferences for all four areas of interpersonal leadership, with the exception of the items mentioned above. Thus, “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation”, “influence and control”, “positive and negative feedback” as well as “concern for individuals and teams” all *differ both in kind and degree* (see figure 5.2 below).

³¹ First-ordered means that this was the item that the largest percentage of employees considered that the manager should carry out often (daily or weekly) or to a large extent.

Figure 5.2. Order and score similarities and differences across countries for four areas of interpersonal leadership

		score effect	
		variation across countries	no variation across countries
order effect	variation across countries	<i>difference both in kind and in degree</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participation items • control items • feedback items • concern items¹ 	<i>difference in kind not in degree²</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (inform)
	no variation across countries	<i>difference in degree not in kind³</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • communication • personal 	<i>difference neither in kind nor in degree</i>

¹Two items are omitted from the concern items and included in cell below.
²“Inform” was ordered similarly in most countries in the Kabi-Pharmacia sample, but only in about half the countries in the hold-out sample. This item did not significantly differentiate across countries in the main analysis but it did in the hold-out analysis. That is why the item is placed within parenthesis. It is classified as difference in kind but not degree, although there is probably a difference in both kind and degree.
³These items were ordered first or last in the areas of “concern for teams and individuals” by all of the countries in both the main analysis and the analysis with the hold-out sample.

In sum, employees working for Kabi-Pharmacia have different preferences for interpersonal leadership in terms of “participation”, “control”, “feedback” and “concern” across countries. These differences across countries are replicated in the hold-out sample with employees from other companies than Kabi-Pharmacia, in the same countries as well as from companies in an additional two countries. There are differences in interpersonal leadership across countries both in kind and in degree. In earlier research the differences have often been in degree but not in kind, although the results are most often not discussed in this terminology.

Some similarities in employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership have also been identified in this chapter. In all the 18 countries in this study, employees irrespective of where they work feel that their immediate managers should communicate with them frequently while managers should less frequently take an interest in the employees’ personal lives. However, the preferred frequency varied significantly across countries. In

other words, these are items that vary in degree, but not in order. Furthermore, it was possible to identify groups of countries where there was an ordering effect between groups of items although the order of the items varied within each group. This was the case with the feedback items where the positive feedback items were higher ordered than the negative feedback items in ten of the countries. In eleven of the countries the influence items (“follow-up”, “reward”, and “influence”) were higher ordered than the control items (“rules”, “supervise”, and “review”), although the items within each group were ordered differently across countries.

Finally, given that most of the items used to operationalise interpersonal leadership vary both in kind and degree across the countries in this study, the next question to pursue is whether there are similar patterning effects between these items. In other words, whether the items within each of the four areas of interpersonal leadership, that is, “participation”, “control”, “feedback”, and “concern” have similar correlation patterns from one country to another. If it is possible to identify such similar patterning effects across countries, those items can be added together into constructs and be evaluated in terms of internal consistency. Constructs that are found to be reliable in each country can be used when comparing employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries. Consequently, the purpose of the next chapter is to identify comparable constructs of interpersonal leadership by examining the patterning and the scoring effect of employees’ preferences regarding aspects of interpersonal leadership.

CHAPTER 6

PATTERNING AND SCORING:

IDENTIFYING COMPARABLE CONSTRUCTS OF EMPLOYEES' PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

In this chapter, the purpose is to identify reliable constructs of interpersonal leadership (IPL) that can be used for across-country comparisons. The patterning effect of the items used to measure interpersonal leadership will be examined within each country. The scoring effect will be analysed regarding constructs of items identified in the patterning analysis. Before this within-country analysis is presented, the patterning effect and the scoring effect will be used to differentiate between the concepts "etic", "universal", "nometric" and "common".

The patterning effect for each of the four areas of IPL will be examined separately within each country. This entails studying the correlation patterns for the items used to operationalise "participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation", "influence and control", "positive and negative feedback", as well as "concern for individuals and teams". After similar patterning effects across countries have been identified, the items will be added together into a construct and the internal consistency will be measured by calculating Cronbach's alpha. The scoring effect will be analysed for all constructs which are identified as reliable in the countries studied. The chapter will finish with a similar analysis of the hold-out sample in an attempt to see if the results from the main analysis are replicated.

COMPARABLE ISSUES ACROSS COUNTRIES AND THE CONCEPTS OF UNIVERSAL, ETIC AND EMIC

The patterning effect displays how *the items relate to each other*¹ in terms of employees' preferences, for example, do employees who prefer their managers to delegate responsibility to a large extent also prefer their managers to a large extent to take their advice? The purpose is to examine (by using correlation analysis) if items pattern similarly across countries. If items are identified as interrelated in patterns, they will be combined into

constructs of IPL and tested for internal consistency by using Cronbach's alpha². The notion of identifying such constructs with similar patterning effect in the studied countries raises the question of what can be seen as comparable across countries.

Researchers who discuss how cultural dimensions can be identified and compared across countries use the concepts of "etic" versus "emic" to distinguish between common and specific issues in cultures³ (see e.g., Hofstede 1980/1984, Leung & Bond, 1989, and Triandis, 1994). *In this dissertation, the attempt is not to identify dimensions of culture, but to identify constructs of interpersonal leadership that are comparable across countries.* However, distinguishing between emic, etic and universal is equally applicable in the attempts to identify comparable constructs of interpersonal leadership as when attempting to identify cultural dimensions. Etic refers to an element that exists in all countries and can be compared across countries. Those elements that are specific to a certain country and cannot be found in other countries are defined as emic. Triandis exemplifies this by saying that size, weight and price are "etics" of fruit, and fruit can be compared in terms of these three properties. However, the flavour of an orange and an apple are "emics" of each type of fruit. They cannot be compared except by saying that oranges do not have the taste of apples⁴. Triandis continues his discussion by stating that etics are comparable across countries, while emics are not, but that both are important for understanding cultures. According to him and many others emics are culture specific concepts that are not comparable, while etic elements are universal cultural concepts that are comparable across countries. There are two problems with this common practice of equating "etic" and "universal".

The first problem is that such a comparison only takes simple concepts and not complex constructs into account, and the second problem is that it does not take into account that etic elements can vary significantly when being compared. In the example above, both price and weight can be seen as two simple concepts, but if they relate to each other in such a way that the price is high and the weight is low for all types of exotic fruit, then there is a pattern effect between the two simple concepts. Both items can be used to create a complex

¹For an illustrative discussion of patterning and positioning effects, see Leung and Bond (1989).

²For a discussion on the use of Cronbach alphas for measuring internal consistency, see Chapter 3.

³According to Triandis (1994), the word "etic" derives from phonetics which deal with sounds that occur in all languages, while phonemes deal with sounds that are specific to one language. The two terms "etic" and "emic" coined by the linguist Pike (1967), who used etics for universal cultural elements and emics for culture-specific unique elements. For a discussion of the "etic" and "emic" as scientific methods, see Chapter 3.

construct of a price-weight ratio which is illustrative for comparing different types of exotic fruits with each other. The price-weight ratio can vary across exotic fruits so that it is larger for some of the exotic fruits than for others, that is, there is a significant scoring effect.

Consequently, complex constructs can be compared across countries both in terms of the patterning effect and the scoring effect, that is, how items relate to each other and the absolute differences in the score of the items across countries. Thus, if the items intended to operationalise a construct have the same patterning effect in all countries, and the construct is identified as internally consistent in each country, this would be an etic construct that is comparable across countries. Triandis and others would refer to this as an etic *universal* construct. However, the construct could still vary in terms of scoring effect from one country to another, and if it does vary significantly across countries, then it is hard to argue that it is a “universal” construct, although it is comparable across countries. To bring some order into these concepts, both the patterning and the scoring effect are taken into account in this dissertation to differentiate between etic and universal. The patterning effect is combined with the scoring effect into a two-by-two matrix (see figure 6.1 below).

If it is *not possible to identify comparable constructs* in all countries, this could indicate that there is something of an “emic” nature involved. However, if the issues are comparable across countries, it would make them etic rather than emic, according to the original definition of the concepts. This is another source of confusion since it is possible that a number of etic issues cannot be combined into etic constructs since they do not have the same patterning effect in all countries, that is, the correlations between items vary across countries. For example, it is possible that employees in all countries consider that their immediate manager should communicate with them daily, while in some countries this is only related to frequent supervision, in other countries this is only related to talking about personal matters, while in some other countries communicating daily is related to none of the above mentioned items. This would mean that it is not possible to identify an *etic construct* using these items, but it is still possible to compare the frequency scores of each *etic concept* across cultures. Thus, to differentiate between these etic constructs and etic concepts it becomes necessary to introduce a new label “nometric”. Nometric alludes to “nomothetic” which was defined by Windelband (1894) as the style of scientific inquiry used in natural sciences in

⁴ Hofstede (1984) also refers to the common saying that apples and oranges cannot be compared when exemplifying emic. Regarding etics he exemplifies with many dimensions such as colour, durability and weights that are comparable. He emphasises that the selection of such comparable aspects has to be based on some a priori theory of what the important dimensions to compare are.

which one seeks to establish “Gesetze”, general laws as opposed to the “ideographic” styles used in the social sciences to identify “Gestalten”, representations of unique configurations of events, conditions or developments. According to Lammers (1977), the first approach involves identifying variables that relate to each other in a certain law-like way⁵. Nomothetic is often defined as corresponding to etic, although etic is often referred to as a simple concept rather than a complex construct where variables relate to each other. Hence, in this dissertation, “etic” will be used for simple concepts that vary significantly across countries, while “nometric” will be used for complex constructs of etic concepts that pattern in a similar way across all countries and that vary significantly across countries.

If the patterning effect is similar across countries, *comparable constructs* can be identified as described above. If these comparable constructs do not vary significantly across countries, then they can be seen as a “universal” phenomenon. It is also possible that there are items that do not vary across countries and they cannot be used to create comparable constructs because they differ in patterning effects across countries. To differentiate this from “universal” necessitates the introduction of one more new label, “common”. Hence, “common” refers to concepts that do not vary across countries analogous to “universal”, but these concepts have different patterning effects and cannot be used to create complex constructs. Consequently, a differentiation between etic and universal as well as complex constructs and simple concepts is done in this dissertation by combining the patterning and the ordering effect into “nometric”, “universal”, “etic” and “common” as is visualised in figure 6.1 below:

Figure 6.1: Four types of pattern and score similarities and differences across countries

		score effect	
		variation across countries	no variation across countries
pattern effect	variation across countries	Etic not comparable construct across-country differences	Common not comparable construct no across-country differences
	no variation across countries	Nometric comparable construct across-country differences	Universal comparable construct no across-country differences

⁵ This discussion is presented by Hofstede (1984), see Chapter 3, for further discussion of idiographic methods versus nomothetic methods.

In sum, the following definitions are used in this dissertation. “Nometric” refers to a patterning effect that exists in all countries in this study, and makes the creation of a reliable construct possible by adding up item scores. The value of the nometric complex construct varies significantly from one country to another. The term “etic” is used for the comparable simple concepts which also vary significantly across countries, but which cannot be combined into complex constructs.

To avoid confusion between “nometric” and “universal,” the latter is only used to denote a construct that is based on the same patterning effects in all countries, but does not vary in scores across countries. Another newly introduced label is “common” which is used for comparable simple concepts that analogous to “universal” do not vary across countries. Consequently, the patterning effect and the scoring effect will be used in this chapter to identify nometric reliable constructs of interpersonal leadership.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES ACROSS COUNTRIES IN PATTERNING EFFECT

The patterning effect is examined by conducting correlation analysis within each country of the items for each of the four areas of IPL. The internal consistency of each area is measured by using Cronbach’s alpha⁶. It is necessary to point out that the items operationalising each area were not chosen to measure one aspect of each area; instead, their purpose was to capture different aspects of each area⁷. The *participation* items were chosen to measure both “participation in decision-making” and “interpersonal participation”. These two types of participation did not correlate with each other in earlier multi-country comparative studies of interpersonal leadership⁸. The *control* items attempt to capture different aspects of “influence and control” related to directing work. The more traditional authoritarian form of management can be seen as characterised by aspects such as guidance through rules and supervision, where rewards are seen as a helpful device to encourage work. In contemporary research a management style guided by norms and influence is often discussed. MBO-type of reviews are conducted with employees who are internally motivated by their desire to achieve. The area of influence and control, especially the authoritarian issues, was identified

⁶The satisfactory level of the reliability was originally considered by Nunally (1967) to be an alpha of at least 0.5. Nunally (1978) later revised this and suggested that an alpha of 0.7 was more appropriate for basic research. Carmines and Zeller (1978) argued that for widely used scales the alpha should not be below 0.8 (for further discussion of measures of internal consistency, see Chapter 3:

⁷See Chapter 3 for a discussion on the identification and formulation of items.

⁸See Chapter 2 on earlier research for multi-country comparative studies of interpersonal leadership.

as an area that has largely been ignored in contemporary research, although it has been found to strongly differ across countries. The *feedback* items included both positive and negative feedback issues as a modern version of the earlier research on rewards and sanctions. Furthermore, the increased focus on individuals as valuable human resources coupled with an increased belief in team-work led to the identification of *concern* items operationalising both the concern for the individual and the concern for the team.

The presentation of the four areas of interpersonal leadership will start below with “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation”. This will be followed by, in a somewhat different order than earlier used in this dissertation, “concern for individuals and teams”, “positive and negative feedback”, and finally “influence and control”⁹.

Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation

The participation items correlated positively with each other in the 16 countries included in the main sample of this study (see appendix 6.1). Consequently, there was no differentiation in patterning effects between the items operationalising participation in decision-making and those measuring interpersonal participation. This, together with the earlier observation that there were no ordering effects between the two groups of participation items in most countries, suggests that in countries where employees consider that their manager should espouse participation in decision-making, the employees also consider that they should be appreciated for taking initiatives and giving advice. Correspondingly, in countries where the employees want to participate less in decision-making, they also feel that they should be less exposed to interpersonal participation.

In earlier research, discussed in Chapter 2, it became apparent that when the distinction between the two types of participation was made the types of participation were not correlated across countries. In other words, while employees preferred that the manager solicited their ideas and suggestions, they did not necessarily want to participate in decision-making to a larger extent. This pattern is not replicated in this dissertation. There could be a number of reasons for this result such as the selection of sample, research design and other methodological considerations. It is also possible that this is due to a change in preferences over the past 20 years since the earlier studies. A suspicion was raised in some of the studies

⁹ The constructs will be dealt with before single items.

in the 1960s and 1970s that a socially desirable answer for managers was to advocate participative practices since this had been promoted both in training programmes and popular press. In the late 1970s it was shown that leadership style, together with national institutional legislation and practices, was the strongest predictor of employees' preferences for participation. Studies undertaken during the 1980's indicated that employees wanted increased participation in decision-making. In a replication study carried out in the early 1990s, the national legislation was shown to have changed and to have increased the de jure participation environment in countries in Europe. This latter result implies that there could have been changes in employees' preferred degree of participation over the years since national legislation was one of the two predictors of attitudes towards participation. In addition, concepts such as "management by objectives (MBO)", "delegation", and "the self-managing employee" involve participation in various forms. These concepts have been increasingly advocated in education, media, as well as in research. Consequently, it is highly probable that the inter-correlations between participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation found in this dissertation reflect people's changing preferences for participative managerial practices over time. In countries employees who earlier only preferred managers to appreciate their suggestions and initiative, now also want to participate in decision-making.

The participation area includes five items which are found to have a similar patterning effect in the 16 countries in this study. Thus, they can be added together into a construct. In order to measure the internal consistency of the construct, Cronbach alphas were calculated for the construct within each country (see table 6.2.1 in appendix 6.2). The alphas were found to be more than satisfactory. In ten countries they were higher than 0.80, while they were higher than 0.70 in six countries. The items included in this construct are that the manager should "delegate" responsibility to the employees, should share "decision-making" with the employees, should discuss company "strategies" with employees, should appreciate the employees' "initiatives", and should take "advice" from the employees.

The items are phrased as operationalising participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation in terms of what the employees' immediate manager should do according to the employees. They can also be seen as reflecting the employees' perception of their own role in relation to that of their manager. If employees score high on this construct, it could be an indication that they think that their managers should see them as a capable resource that should be developed and drawn upon. It seems as if the employees in this case would prefer

that their managers had a “theory Y” view on human nature and behaved accordingly. Stewart (1991) discusses how the management of people seems to be moving towards “enabling and empowering” individuals. It is possible that this is what is captured by this construct. Empowerment is carried out by giving the employees a possibility of influencing strategic and decision-making processes. In order for this to work, employees also need to be “enabled”, which is done by supporting their development by appreciating their initiatives and taking their advice. Consequently, if employees score high on the construct, they think that they have more to offer their managers than simply being implementers of pre-formulated decisions. On the other hand, employees who score low on this construct seem to think that it is the manager’s job to make decisions while they carry out the work without participating in the decision-making, without contributing with advice or taking initiatives of their own. The construct is labelled “*empowering*” although “enabling” is included in the interpretation of the construct.

In sum, no patterning differences between the items measuring participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation could be identified. *The patterning effect for all five items was similar in all countries, and they could be joined into an internally consistent construct that is labelled “empowering”*. “Empowering” was identified as an internally consistent measure in all the countries included in the study.

Concern for Individuals and Teams

In the early multi-country comparative research there was only limited, if any, interest in the concern for the employees, in their careers, needs, hopes and lives in general. However, these issues have been in focus in a multitude of single-country studies in terms of task-orientation versus relation-orientation (and similar concepts) since the early 1950s. Co-ordination of employees’ work into teams and the encouragement of co-operation are topics that were included already in the earlier multi-country studies, albeit the results often resided in the shadows of the main analysis of the studies. The interest in the topic of concern for individuals and teams has increased in recent multi-country studies. However, the patterning effect between the concern for individuals and teams has not been explored to any larger extent in the earlier multi-country comparative research on interpersonal leadership¹⁰. Here the focus is on whether the items operationalising concern for individuals and concern for teams relate to each other in some specific pattern, for example, that employees who prefer

¹⁰To be emphasised is that the role of individuals and groups is intensively debated and researched within cross-cultural management and cross-cultural psychology and this is briefly discussed in Chapter 7.

managers to display concern for individuals place the same emphasis on the managerial concern for teams.

The pattern effect for both the concern for individuals and the concern for teams in each country are examined in this study (see appendix 6.1). The examination of the correlation patterns in each country for the eight concern items indicates that there is no difference in the patterning effect between the group of items operationalising concern for individuals and the group of items operationalising concern for teams. Six of the items “you”, “career”, “department”, “team”, “co-operation” and “inform”¹¹ were found to correlate with each other in all countries. The two items measured on a time scale “communication” and “personal” did not correlate with the other six “concern” items.

In the study presented in this dissertation, the concern for individuals and teams included eight items of which six were found to have similar patterning effect across countries. The six items were added together to form a construct. The construct shows high internal consistency in all countries in this study (see table 6.2.1 in appendix 6.2). The Cronbach alphas were higher than 0.80 in twelve countries, and they were above 0.75 in four countries. The following items are included in the construct: the manager should make the employees do their utmost, should make the department perform its utmost, should try to make the employees feel as part of a team, should encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers, should take an interest in the careers of the employees, and should inform the employees about the department/section’s plans and aims. These items were formulated to operationalise employees’ preferences for their managers’ concern for individuals and teams, but given that the items correlate they can also be interpreted as employees’ perception of the manager’s role in terms of making both the employees and the department perform well. In order to ensure that the utmost is carried out by the department in general, and the subordinates in particular, the manager should (if this role is preferred by employees) encourage co-operation, create a team spirit, and keep the employees informed. Taking an interest in the careers of employees is important both for allocation of human resources in terms of “best person for the job”, and as a step towards encouraging the employees to do their utmost. These types of behaviour will prevent losses in synergy, efficiency and effectiveness that could occur due to isolated and uninformed individuals, who work in a non-coordinated manner. An interpretation of this construct suggests that concern for individuals and teams is coupled with an overall

¹¹The only exceptions are correlations between “communication” and “inform” in Finland, and between “personal” and “co-operation” as well as “personal” and “team” in Austria.

managerial responsibility for performance. Thus, it is possible that the employees view the manager as a coach whose task is to get every member of the team to perform their best. At the same time it is the role of the coach to elicit excellent performance from the whole team. The coach makes all the players feel as a vital part of the team and encourages them to co-operate in order to make the team perform its utmost (which is done by keeping the players informed as well as taking an interest in the development of their performance and careers). Consequently, this construct is labelled “*coaching*”. If employees score high on this factor, they prefer their manager to act as a coach, and if they score low, then they prefer a lower level of coaching.

In sum, no patterning differences between six of the items measuring concern for individuals and concern for teams could be identified. *Thus, six of the items had similar correlation patterns in all countries, and were added together into a construct. The construct is labelled “coaching”, and was identified as an internally consistent measure in all the countries in the study.* The two items measuring employees’ preferences regarding the frequency of “communication” with their manager and how often their manager should take an interest in their “personal” lives are not included in “coaching”, and will be further discussed later in this chapter.

Positive and Negative Feedback

In earlier research, the study of positive and negative feedback has often been based on an assumption that positive feedback and rewards are both more preferred and more effective than negative feedback and sanctions. In the preceding chapter, the ordering effect was discussed and it was observed that the positive feedback items were higher ordered than the negative feedback items in all but six countries¹². However, the patterning effect between positive and negative feedback has not been explored to any larger extent. In this study, the question is whether employees’ preferences regarding positive and negative feedback are in any way related to each other, for example, is it possible that employees want both positive and negative feedback to a large extent and not only positive feedback?

¹²The countries which did not order all positive feedback items higher than the negative feedback items were: the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, and Japan. In these countries “dissatisfaction” was ordered higher than “proud”.

The patterning of all the feedback items in this study was found to vary across countries (see appendix 6.1), and there was no consistent correlation pattern between the two groups of feedback items in the countries included in this study¹³.

Examining the positive feedback items showed that only in four countries did all three positive feedback items correlate significantly with each other¹⁴, while two of the positive feedback items, "recognise" and "effort," correlated significantly and strongly with each other in all the countries. These two positive items, that displayed the same correlation patterns in all countries, were added together and the internal consistency was calculated for the construct in each country (see table 6.2.1 in appendix 6.2). The Cronbach alphas were above 0.70 in all but three countries¹⁵.

The patterning effect for the two negative feedback items "reprimand" and "dissatisfaction" was also examined, and in ten countries, they correlated significantly with each other¹⁶. In an attempt to create a construct for negative feedback, the two items were added together and the Cronbach alphas were calculated. However, the alpha was above 0.70¹⁷ in only three countries. Hence, as is seen in table 6.2.1 in appendix 6.2, the alphas for the two negative feedback items varied between 0.32 and 0.77. This implies that a construct based on the two negative items is not internally consistent in all the countries of the study, although the two items had the same patterning effect in most of the countries.

In sum, *it is not possible to identify a construct consisting of items measuring both negative and positive feedback since the patterning effects are not similar for these items in all studied countries.* It was only possible to identify an internally consistent construct consisting of two of the three positive feedback items. The negative items did not have satisfactory alphas in all countries, although they had similar patterning effects in most countries.

¹³ In six countries there was a positive correlation between "reprimand" and both "recognise" and "effort," and in three other countries there was a positive correlation between "dissatisfaction" and "effort." The first mentioned six countries are: France, Spain, Japan, the United Kingdom, Sweden, and Germany. The latter mentioned three countries are: Denmark, Belgium and the Netherlands.

¹⁴ The countries are Sweden, the Netherlands, Germany and Austria.

¹⁵ The countries with alphas below 0.70 are Belgium, France and Canada.

¹⁶ The countries in which the two negative items did not correlate with each other are: Norway, Spain, the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada.

¹⁷ The three countries with a Cronbach alpha of more than 0.70 for the negative feedback items are: Finland, Austria and Japan.

Influence and Control

The items measuring the area of influence and control were chosen to measure different aspects of the directing of work that had been studied in earlier research in terms of authority or influence¹⁸. One type can be seen as representing the more traditional authoritarian form of management characterised by guidance through rules and supervision, and where rewards were seen as a necessary means to encourage work. The other type is the often discussed contemporary management style guided by norms and influence, where MBO-type of reviews are conducted with employees who are internally motivated by their desire to achieve. In contemporary research it is advocated that new organisational forms demand a more influence-oriented type of management, and that this will, by necessity, replace the authoritarian type of management (Hedlund, 1986). This type of reasoning implies that the two “types” of directing work do not co-exist, but instead represent one end each of a continuum. It is also possible that these are two separate constructs, if they can be combined into reliable constructs.

The patterning effects of the six control items vary across the countries in this study (see appendix 6.1). The items, related to authoritarian type of directing, did not correlate with each other in any of the countries, nor did the influence, oriented items. Thus, it is not possible to create separate constructs nor a continuum of the items as mentioned above. In the preceding chapter there was a differentiation between the first-ordered items “follow-up”, “influence” and “reward”, and the last-ordered items “rules”, “supervise”, and “review” in eleven of 16 countries. In an attempt to see if there also could be similarities in patterns within these two groups, the correlations were examined. In the group of first-ordering items there were similarities in patterns, but the Cronbach alpha was only higher than 0.70 in two countries (see appendix 6.2). For the last-ordered items there was a similar correlation pattern in only five countries in the study. Thus, it was not possible to create constructs based on the first- respectively last-ordered items (see table 6.2.1 in appendix 2).

In a third attempt to distinguish similar patterns, the point was to examine if there were groups of countries with similar patterns since it was not possible to identify similar patterns in all countries. This proved difficult since there were many different possible combinations. Nevertheless, the following two patterns could be identified: in five countries

¹⁸For a discussion of the choice and formulation of items see Chapter 3.

the items “rules”, “influence” and “reward” had similar patterns¹⁹, and in eleven countries the two items “review” and “supervise” correlated significantly²⁰. However, none of these patterns generated constructs that were internally consistent. It is not possible to create a construct of items operationalising the directing of work given the difficulties in identifying common patterning effects across countries. This means that the separate items operationalising the influence and control area can be used to compare the directing of work across countries, but no reliable construct of items can be created.

Summarising the Discussion of the Patterning Effect

The patterning effect was examined for the four areas of interpersonal leadership and this resulted in two comparable constructs, empowering and coaching. *Empowering* was, as mentioned earlier, derived from the items operationalising the area *participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation*. The items included to what extent the immediate manager should carry out the following: delegate responsibility, share decision-making, discuss strategies with the employees as well as taking subordinates’ advice and appreciating their initiative. The pattern of interrelationship between the five items was similar in all countries in this study, and the construct was internally consistent in all countries (see table

Table 6.1: Internal consistency measures within-countries of the patterning effects for each area of interpersonal leadership (Cronbach alphas)

country	empowering	coaching
Australia	.83	.83
Austria	.81	.87
Belgium	.69	.79
Canada	.86	.89
Denmark	.74	.86
Finland	.91	.75
France	.77	.79
Germany	.84	.83
Japan	.84	.85
Netherlands	.80	.86
Norway	.76	.75
Spain	.85	.86
Sweden	.77	.81
Switzerland	.84	.84
United Kingdom	.78	.84
United States	.80	.84

6.1). *Coaching* was, as mentioned earlier, derived from the items included in the area of *concern for individuals and teams*. Six of eight items had similar patterns within the countries in this study, and when added together the items were internally consistent in all countries (see table 6.1)²¹.

This construct was created by adding the following items together: to what extent the immediate manager should try to

¹⁹ The countries are Sweden, the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland and Japan

²⁰ The five countries without significant correlations were Norway, Denmark, Switzerland, Belgium and Canada.

²¹ The two omitted items were communication in general and personal communication.

make the employees feel part of a team, encourage co-operation between employees, take an interest in employees' careers, making employees do their utmost, informing about the department's plans and aims as well as making the department perform its utmost.

For the area of *positive and negative feedback* items it was not possible to identify a reliable construct. The correlation patterns varied across the countries. Only two of the feedback items had similar pattern effects and satisfactory alphas in all countries. Although the negative feedback items displayed similar patterns in most of the countries, the two added together did not create an internally consistent construct in all countries. Thus, it was not possible to create any reliable constructs.

The items operationalising the *influence and control* area varied in patterning effect across countries. Attempts were made to identify groups of items or groups of countries with similar patterns, but no type of patterning with internally consistent measures could be identified. Thus, it was not possible to create a construct for directing work by using the items operationalising the area of influence and control items since the items varied in patterning effect from one country to another.

The next question to approach in this chapter is whether *the two constructs, empowering and coaching, vary significantly across the countries in this study*. In the preceding chapter the individual items were found to vary significantly across countries, and consequently it is probable, but not certain, that the constructs will also vary significantly across the countries in this study.

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES ACROSS COUNTRIES IN SCORING EFFECT

The scoring effect of the two constructs, empowering and coaching, is analysed in a similar way as in Chapter 5 with an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and using the same model²². Hence, the model used in the ANOVA is formulated to evaluate the main effects of country, department, work position, age groups and gender, which all are entered simultaneously. The results of the ANOVAs carried out with empowering and coaching respectively are displayed in table 6.2 below. Empowering was found to vary significantly across countries, departments and work positions, while coaching varied across country and department (see table 6.2 below). None of the constructs varied significantly across gender or age groups.

²² See Chapter 3 for a discussion.

Table 6.2: Two separate ANOVAs one for each construct (F-values)

Variable	Empowering	Coaching
country	3.94***	3.83***
department	8.22***	7.77***
position	6.52***	1.72
gender	6.43	0.15
age	1.34	0.59

***<1% significance level

whether these constructs are also internally consistent for the different departments and positions. As mentioned in Chapter 3, some of the earlier studies on leadership were conducted with first- and second-level supervisors and/or factory workers as respondents. The results could perhaps be seen as identifying supervisory behaviour rather than IPL.

Table 6.3: Cronbach's alpha for the two constructs of interpersonal leadership within each work position.

work position	empowering	coaching	N
managers	0.79	0.79	435
researchers	0.76	0.79	245
supervisors	0.80	0.84	94
salaried staff	0.80	0.85	1214
factory workers	0.81	0.82	482

Table 6.4: Cronbach's alpha for the two constructs of interpersonal leadership within each department

department	empowering	coaching	N
research & development	0.75	0.79	362
sales & marketing	0.81	0.81	824
administration & finance	0.81	0.85	292
production & transport	0.78	0.79	616

The constructs capturing aspects of interpersonal leadership were thus found not only to vary significantly across countries, but also across some of the other background variables such as departments and positions. This raises the question of

The respondents in the sample in the current study worked in different departments and at different levels of the organisation. In tables 6.3 and 6.4 Cronbach alphas are indicated for the two constructs separately for each work position and department. It is apparent that both constructs are internally consistent for all five work positions, as well as the four departments.

In sum, the two constructs “empowering” and “coaching” were identified as two reliable constructs that varied significantly across countries²³. The question to raise in this context is whether these two constructs can be identified as having similar pattern effects and reliable measures of internal consistency *in the hold-out sample*. Furthermore, whether such constructs

²³ In Chapter 5 the results from the ANOVAs of the items operationalising “influence and control”, i.e., “influence”, “rewards”, “rules”, “supervise” and “review” were presented. All items varied significantly across countries. In addition, the items measuring positive feedback and “communication”, “proud” and “personal”, as well as negative feedback, i.e., “dissatisfaction” and “reprimand” were also found in the ANOVAs in the preceding chapter to vary significantly across countries.

can be identified in the hold-out sample, the second question is if these constructs also vary significantly across countries, in other words, if they have a scoring effect.

HOLD-OUT SAMPLE ANALYSIS

The hold-out sample includes employees working in thirteen of the countries included in the main analysis, but for different companies than Kabi-Pharmacia. Employees from other companies in two additional countries, Brazil and the Philippines, are also included in the hold-out sample. The data for the hold-out sample was collected by using a short version of the questionnaire. The shortened questionnaire included all five items measured on the time scale as well as six items measured on the extent scale²⁴.

The Patterning Effect in the Hold-out Sample

The patterning effect was examined for participation and concern in the hold-out sample. The two items “delegate” and “initiative” used to measure “*empowering*” correlate significantly in all the countries in the hold-out sample (appendix 6.4). This includes both the countries in which the main analysis was carried out and the two additional countries. The Cronbach alphas were calculated and as could be expected, when only two instead of the original five items were included in the calculations, the alphas were lower than in the main analysis²⁵. The alphas were, however, above 0.60 in all, but five countries (see table 6.5.1 in appendix 6.5).

For the concern area all the countries including the two additional countries had similar patterning effects as in the main analysis. In other words, the items “co-operation”, “department”, “you” and “information” all correlated with each other, but not with “communication” and “personal”. Consequently, the four items measured on the extent scale were added together to create the “*coaching*” construct, and Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for each country. The alphas were more than satisfactory in all countries since they were above 0.80 in all, but two of the countries in which they were higher than 0.70 (see table 6.5.1 in appendix 6.5).

In the short version of the questionnaire there is only one question from the area of positive and negative feedback - making the employees proud of their work. There are the

²⁴ See Chapter 3, for a discussion of the two different versions of the questionnaire.

²⁵ In addition, “delegate” was the participation item with the largest variance which reduces the alpha of the construct.

two questions from the influence and control area. These two items, supervise and review, also exhibit a similar lack of reliable alphas within country as was the case in the main sample.

The Scoring Effect in the Hold-out Sample

The scoring effect for the two constructs, empowering and coaching, was also evaluated by conducting ANOVAs using the same model as in the main analysis (for the results from the hold-out analysis see table 6.5.2 in appendix 6.5). Empowering was found to vary significantly by country, department and position, while coaching varied by country and position. Consequently, both constructs also varied by country in the hold-out analysis. The constructs were also found to vary by work position and department, and Cronbach alphas were calculated for each work position and each department (see tables 6.5.3 and 6.5.4 in appendix 6.5). The alphas for empowering were again lower than in the main analysis for both departments and positions, but were above 0.60 for all departments and all positions. The alphas for coaching were more than satisfactory when four of the original six items were added together. The alphas were above 0.80 for all positions, except for one where it was higher than 0.70, and for all departments the alphas were above 0.80, except for one where it was higher than 0.70.

In sum, employees working in the same country but for other companies in other industries than Kabi Pharmacia display similar patterning effects regarding “participation in decision-making and interpersonal participation” and “concern for individuals and teams” as the Kabi Pharmacia employees. Thus, it was possible to validate the two internally consistent constructs, empowering and coaching, although the number of items included in the survey of the hold-out sample were less than in the questionnaire used in the main analysis. Furthermore, in the hold-out analysis just as in the main analysis it was not possible to create an internally consistent construct with the two items “supervising” and “review”.

CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to attempt to identify comparable constructs of interpersonal leadership by examining the patterning effect. The two-by-two matrix presented at the beginning of this chapter was created by using the patterning effect and the scoring effect as dimensions. The matrix makes it possible to differentiate between etic and nometic elements as well as between common and universal elements of interpersonal leadership.

Nometric Constructs and Etic Concepts

The comparable constructs of interpersonal leadership were identified by examining the patterning effect *within countries*. Another way of studying the patterning effect is to conduct a factor analysis *across countries* at the individual level²⁶. Factor analyses have been conducted and the factor solutions are presented and discussed in appendix 6.3. The results from the analysis and discussion are as follows: The factor analysis across countries conducted at the individual level generated four factors (see appendix 6.3). The first was comparable to the “empowering” construct, and the second was similar to the “coaching” construct. The third factor included all the items measured on a time scale and the fourth combined the negative feedback items together with an item from the influence and control area²⁷. The discussion of the factor solution resulted in two suggestions. The *first suggestion* was to re-examine the control items together with the negative feedback items in an attempt to identify comparable constructs. The *second suggestion* was to examine the items measured on a time scale in more detail since they loaded into the same factor in the factor analysis. Regarding the *first suggestion*, the control and negative feedback items were not found to have any comparable within-country patterns. Consequently, the items could not be added into constructs. An examination of the *second suggestion* indicated that the items measured on the time scale did not display similar correlation patterns in all countries and could not be added into reliable constructs. This was not surprising since the items covered different areas of interpersonal leadership.

In conclusion, the results from factor analysis validates the two nometric comparable constructs, empowering and coaching, identified in the pattern effect analysis in this chapter (see figure 6.2). For the two areas “positive and negative feedback” and “influence and control” it was not possible to identify satisfactory nometric constructs. All of the items included in these two areas varied significantly across countries. Consequently, these are “etic” items. However, *it is decided that the items that are not included in the reliable constructs and nor in the hold-out survey will not be further analysed in this dissertation*. Thus, only the following five etic items will be further analysed and discussed in this

²⁶ See Chapter 3 for a thorough discussion of the intricacies of conducting a factor analysis at the individual level in order to capture patterning effects between items, as well as a discussion of the choice between conducting a factor analysis at the individual or at the country level.

²⁷ In the first factor analysis the item from the influence and control area was “directing with rules and regulation”. In a second factor analysis, after omitting the items measured on a time scale, two additional items from the influence and control area (rewards and influence) loaded together with the negative feedback items.

dissertation: “communication”, “personal”, “proud,” “supervise” and “review” (see figure 6.2). The pattern and score similarities and differences in elements of interpersonal leadership across countries are summarised in figure 6.2 below.

Figure 6.2: Pattern and score similarities and differences across countries for four areas of interpersonal leadership

		score effect	
		variation across countries	no variation across countries
pattern effect	variation across countries	<p><i>etic</i> not comparable construct across-country differences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “supervision” • “review” • “communication” • “proud” • “personal” 	<p><i>Common</i> not comparable construct no across-country differences</p>
	no variation across countries	<p><i>nometic</i> comparable construct across-country differences</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “empowering” • “coaching” 	<p><i>universal</i> comparable construct no across-country differences</p>

In the two-by-two matrix the results from the analysis conducted in this chapters are summarised. Two constructs, that are internally consistent within countries, and five etic elements of IPL have been identified. *These seven elements of interpersonal leadership can be used for across-country comparisons.* This raises the question of what the preferences for each element of IPL are across the countries included in this study.

The Elements of Interpersonal Leadership

At this point in this chapter seven elements of IPL have been identified and found to vary across countries. The elements of interpersonal leadership include empowering, coaching, supervising, reviewing, communicating in general, personal communication and making the employees proud of the work that they have accomplished. The immediate question is what the average scores are for each country and how these scores are calculated.

The results from the ANOVA discussed in this chapter indicated that there were differences in employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership not only across

countries, but also across departments, work position and gender for some of the elements of IPL. Consequently, to prevent country means from being influenced by differences in sample demographics the country scores have been adjusted²⁸ (see table 6.7). The adjusted country scores were standardised to facilitate comparison since the items have been measured on two different scales and the two constructs were created by adding together an unequal amount of items.

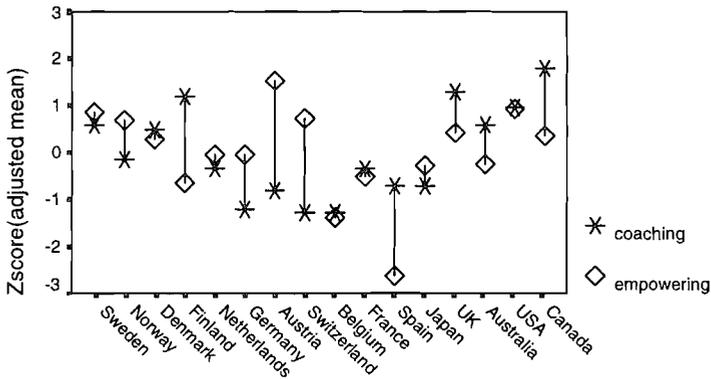
²⁸ See chapter 3 for a description of the adjustment procedure.

Table 6.7 Standardised adjusted country values for seven elements of interpersonal leadership

Empowering		Coaching		Supervise the employees' work in detail		Review employees' achievements in comparison with job objectives and expectations		Communicate with the employee		Take an interest in and talk about employees' personal lives		Make employees proud of their work	
Austria	1.54	Canada	1.80	Spain	2.01	Spain	2.54	Norway	1.51	Spain	1.86	Spain	2.17
USA	.93	UK	1.28	Austria	1.07	Austria	1.82	Australia	1.51	Australia	1.63	USA	1.59
Sweden	.87	Finland	1.20	Japan	.96	Norway	.82	USA	1.38	Finland	.94	Canada	1.41
Switzerland	.73	USA	.97	Germany	.85	Germany	.37	Austria	.95	UK	.94	Austria	.70
Norway	.67	Sweden	.60	Belgium	.36	Canada	.18	Sweden	.34	Sweden	.76	Belgium	.12
UK	.43	Australia	.60	Netherlands	.25	Switzerland	.00	Spain	.21	Netherlands	.42	Switzerland	.06
Canada	.34	Denmark	.47	Switzerland	.19	Belgium	.00	UK	.21	Austria	-.04	Netherlands	.00
Denmark	.30	Norway	-.15	Australia	.13	Japan	.00	Canada	-.03	USA	-.04	Denmark	-.24
Netherlands	-.04	France	-.35	France	.08	Finland	-.45	Denmark	-.10	Denmark	-.33	Australia	-.35
Germany	-.04	Netherlands	-.37	Canada	-.03	UK	-.54	Netherlands	-.10	Norway	-.38	UK	-.42
Australia	-.26	Japan	-.71	USA	-.09	USA	-.63	Japan	-.34	Switzerland	-.44	Norway	-.47
Japan	-.29	Spain	-.72	UK	-.36	Sweden	-.72	France	-.53	Canada	-.73	Sweden	-.59
France	-.53	Austria	-.81	Denmark	-1.03	Denmark	-.72	Belgium	-.72	Japan	-.96	Finland	-.59
Finland	-.65	Germany	-1.21	Finland	-1.08	France	-.72	Germany	-.96	Germany	-1.07	France	-.82
Belgium	-1.38	Switzerland	-1.29	Sweden	-1.58	Netherlands	-.90	Switzerland	-1.51	Belgium	-1.07	Germany	-1.29
Spain	-2.62	Belgium	-1.30	Norway	-1.74	Australia	-1.08	Finland	-1.82	France	-1.48	Japan	-1.29

In graph 6.3 below, the adjusted standardised country scores for the two **nometic** constructs, empowering and coaching, are displayed.

Graph 6.3: Employees' preferences regarding empowering and coaching

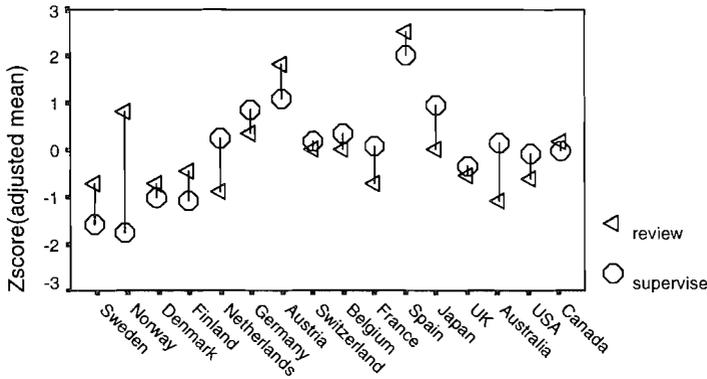


Note: "empowering" and "coaching" are two constructs created by adding items together

The “*etic*” elements of interpersonal leadership include two items operationalising influence and control. The two items are as follows: “how often the immediate manager should supervise the employees’ work in detail”, and “how often the manager should review the employees’ achievements in comparison with job objectives and expectations”. These items varied significantly across countries, but were not internally consistent within the countries included in this study. Consequently, the two items could not be added into a construct of directing work: instead, they are presented and analysed separately throughout this dissertation, although for simplicity they will referred to as “*directing*” items.

In graph 6.4 below, the standardised adjusted country means for both “supervising” and “review” are displayed.

Graph 6.4: Employees' preferences regarding "directing"

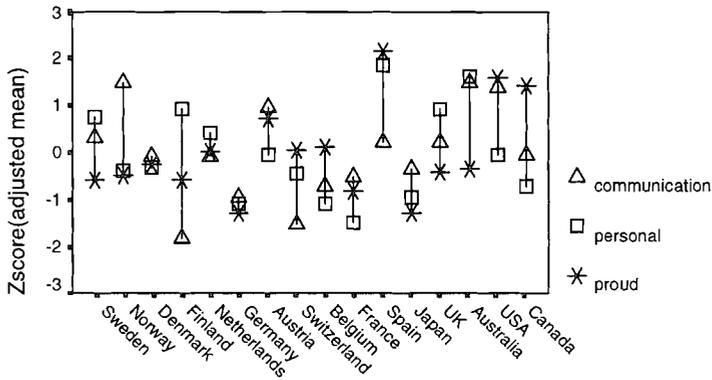


Note: supervision and review are two different forms of "directing"

The other three “etic” elements of IPL also varied significantly across countries, but were not included in any construct. Two of the items: “how often the immediate manager and the employee should communicate with each other”, and “how often the immediate manager should take an interest in and discuss the employee’s personal life with them” were the two items in the area of “concern for individuals and teams”, that were omitted when creating the coaching construct. The third item, “how often should the immediate manager make the employees proud of their work” was included in the positive and negative feedback area. These items will be presented and analysed individually throughout the dissertation. However, for practical reasons all three items will be referred to as *communicating* items, although the third item operationalises positive feedback.

In graph 6.5 below, the standardised adjusted country means for employees' preferences regarding "communication", "personal" and "proud" are displayed.

Graph 6.5: Employees' preferences regarding "communicating"



Note: "communication", "personal", and "proud" are only grouped as "communicating"

In conclusion, there are two main research questions underlying this dissertation. The first is to identify similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries, and this has been examined in the current and the preceding chapter. Differences in employees' preferences regarding empowering, coaching as well as different types of directing and communicating were shown in three graphs.

The second research question is whether the differences in interpersonal leadership across countries are related to differences in cultural dimensions and values. This will be explored in the second part of the dissertation. In addition, the country means presented in the graphs above seem to suggest that it is possible to identify groups of countries where employees have similar preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. This question will be pursued in chapter 9 after analysing the relationship between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences for IPL. In the succeeding chapter, cultural dimensions measured in earlier research are presented and discussed with the purpose of identifying which of them can be used as independent variables in the analysis of the relationship, if any, between national culture and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership.

PART TWO

INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP AND NATIONAL CULTURE

The relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions.

CHAPTER 7

THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: EARLIER RESEARCH ON CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

In this chapter, frameworks of cultural dimensions¹ in earlier research will be examined, but first some controversial issues in the study of culture will be discussed. The first difficult issue is defining cultures, followed by identifying the boundaries of culture as an analytical unit, the changeable stability of cultures, and finally, the difficulties of identifying categories or dimensions that are comparable from one culture to another. These issues are briefly discussed and how they are viewed in the study presented in this dissertation will also be discussed. In the bulk of this chapter, attention will be given to five frameworks of cultural dimensions with the purpose of identifying cultural dimensions that can be used as independent variables in this dissertation. Most of the researchers who have measured cultural dimensions have also hypothesised how the cultural dimensions are related to management and organisation. These hypotheses will be used as the basis for formulating predictions of the relationship between cultural dimensions, identified and measured in earlier research, and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership (IPL). *To be observed is that the first section on "controversial issues" serves as a background for later sections that are focused on identifying cultural dimensions that can be used as independent variables in the analysis presented in this dissertation.*

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES IN THE STUDY OF CULTURE

In the study of culture four controversial issues are continuously debated. These issues are the definition of culture, the boundaries of cultural groups, the permanence of cultures, and the identification of comparable categories or dimensions. These four issues will be

¹ "Cultural dimensions" will in this dissertation consistently refer to the "dimensions" in each of five frameworks, although Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck called their equivalent "value orientations", Parsons and Shils refer to them as "pattern variables," and Laurent refers to them as "systems".

briefly discussed below and the related basic assumptions for the analysis in this dissertation will also be presented.

Definition of Culture

"In its *most general sense*, culture refers to a people's way of life" (Ronen, 1986:17, emphasis added). A problem in the study of comparative management from a cultural perspective is that the concept of culture is complex and difficult to define clearly². According to a review done by Ajiferuke in 1970, only two of twenty-two studies of comparative management presented any kind of definition of culture. The others omitted to define culture and probably hoped, as Ajiferuke and Boddewyn expressed it, that it would become clear to the reader while reading through the text. More than ten years later, as pointed out by Negandhi (1983) that there is a tendency in the research to attempt to encompass as wide a diversity of phenomena as possible, or to use culture as a residual factor by treating it as a "black box"³. Neither approach contributes to increased clarity and applicability for research. In fact, Ajiferuke and Boddewyn (1970:154) suggest that "culture is one of those terms that defy a single all-purpose definition and there are almost as many meanings of culture as people using the term." To give another indication of the difficulties in formulating a generally accepted clear and distinctive definition, Forss (1987) emphasises that researchers are influenced by their own culture when trying to formulate a definition of culture. This can be seen in the way the definitions of culture vary in what is included in the definition and how it is formulated. Some definitions are pragmatic, others metaphoric, while in some cultures the emphasis is on thorough and explicit definitions. Forss (1987:13) emphasises that already in 1951 the

² Culturally-held values are often seen as influencing people's attitudes and beliefs. The question that emerges from such a definition is where "culture" comes from, or what influences and shapes culture. This is one of those eternal questions probably impossible to fully answer. Some of the most frequently cited variables that are seen as influencing culture are religion, language, geographical location and climate. History is a special type of variable, and Tingsten suggested at the beginning of this century that history is not created by people's values and behaviour in a certain culture, but he sees people's values and behaviour as a result of what has happened historically in that culture. This is perhaps a case of the classical question of the hen or the egg being created first. Other variables such as the level of industrialisation, economic and political systems have been seen as both influencing culture and being influenced by culture. Some variables such as geographic location and climate (in the general sense) most often remain constant, while others, such as the level of industrialisation and other economic factors tend to vary over time. A possible interpretation is that culture changes as a result of other changes, but this need not be the case. It could be that change in culture influences other changes in, e.g. institutions or economic development. Although it is interesting to ponder upon the question on how "it all began" and "how it all works," this it is not part of this dissertation; instead, some of the basic assumptions underlying the analysis in this dissertation will be presented.

³This was observed in the review of multi-country comparative studies of touching topics of related to interpersonal leadership in Chapter 2.

anthropologist Kluckhohn presented 250 definitions of culture, and more have been added to that list during the last forty-odd years.

One of the most frequently used definitions of culture in the field of comparative management is the one formulated by Hofstede (1980/1984). He defines culture as “the collective mental programming of the people in an environment”⁴ Hofstede's definition can be regarded as a “modern” definition, born in the computer era, viewing individuals as “hardware” possible to program using “software” consisting of culture. It is a concise and short definition with an air of straightforward simplicity, clearly implying that the contents of such common programs are environmentally determined. The disadvantage with this type of definition is that it is difficult to operationalise, since it does not distinguish between values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour. Neither does it differentiate between what culture is and what it is supposed to influence⁵. The problems of formulating a definition of culture that enables operationalisation and prediction is, according to Ronen, one of the largest obstacles for theory development in the field of comparative and cross-cultural management⁶.

In the difficult endeavour of describing the complex nature of “culture,” metaphors such as icebergs and onions have been used to symbolise that there is more to “culture” than what meets the eye at first glance (see e.g., Forss 1987, Ronen 1986, Trompenaars, 1993; Hofstede 1991, and Gerholm, 1994). Following earlier researcher's illustrative use of *layers*, but with a different meaning, an attempt will be made to *clarify the perception of culture underlying the study presented in this dissertation*.

Culture in this dissertation is viewed as a core of values and beliefs surrounded in a metaphorical sense by layers of norms, attitudes, behaviour, artefacts⁷ and systems⁸. The core

⁴He identifies three different levels: the universal level (which is shared by almost all humans), the collective level (which is shared by some, but not all, e.g., a nation or a group), and finally the individual level (which is truly unique for each individual).

⁵Hofstede would answer this question by arguing that the mental programming consists of the four dimensions of work related values that he has identified, and that they have an impact on all strata of human thinking and acting. However, his definition also mirrors his work method, i.e. to use questions on people's values about management and organisation as reflective factors of cultural dimensions which are then said to influence people's attitudes to management and organisations.

⁶It is possible to argue that comparative management and cross-cultural management are not exactly the same 'fields' of research. For a typology of cultural research, see Adler (1983).

⁷Gerholm (1994) describes how the notion of culture has developed within ethnology in Sweden. In the 1940s it was the “sharedness of objects” that was in focus when culture was seen as material things from the pre-industrial societies. Thus, as Gerholm emphasises, culture was concrete and observable. This changed in the 1960s when a distinction was made between “culture” and “cultural products”, and culture moved into the consciousness of people and became difficult to observe.

is implicit and the layers become more explicit and observable the further away from the core of values they are. Two important points have to be emphasised. The first is that in this perception of culture the layers of norms, attitudes, behaviour, artefacts and systems are *not* viewed as culture, but are seen as related to cultural values and beliefs. The second point, as a consequence of the first point, is that all norms, attitudes, behaviour, artefacts and systems do *not* necessarily have to be related to cultural values and beliefs.

The concept of culture is often bound up with the concept of values. *In anthropological literature, different cultures are viewed as reflecting different value systems.* Values can be distinguished from beliefs, although the two terms are often used interchangeably. In Fishbein's "theory of attitude" (1963), for example, he asserts that a person's attitude toward any object is a function of his or her beliefs about that object. Whereas an attitude or even a belief may change when the individual receives new information, values are relatively resistant to change. Thus, values can be seen as intervening between beliefs and attitudes, for example, a *belief* that Paris is the culinary capital of the world may lead to a favourable *attitude* to Paris by someone who *values* food.

Norms are defined as "standard or pattern or type or customary behaviour" by Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1984). *In institutional theory*⁹ *norms are advocated as an alternative logic to rationality* (see e.g., Meyer and Rowen, 1977¹⁰). Take for example the small airport in the town of Turku in Finland. The arrival hall is so small that the passengers can easily cross the room in ten seconds. Hanging from the ceiling in this small hall is a big sign saying "meeting point". Many airports are very large with several buildings and often several halls and it is difficult for people to meet each other. Consequently, meeting signs are placed for the convenience of the passengers. Advocates of institutional theory would argue

⁸ "Systems" refers to political, economic, educational and other systems implemented in countries. Some researchers, e.g. Gerholm (1994), use the term "structures" but the label "systems" will be used consistently in this dissertation.

⁹ According to Scott (1992), Peter Berger is one of the founders of contemporary institutional theory. One of the key statements was presented in Berger and Luckmann where it is argued that social reality is a human construction, created in social interaction. According to Scott (1992) ethnomethodologists also stress similar interaction processes, but emphasise a *shared conception of social reality*. The notion of a *shared* perception is very similar to some of the definitions used within anthropology and ethnology. The definition of culture used in this dissertation is somewhat similar to the ethnomethodologists in that it emphasises that culture is values and beliefs shared by a group of people.

¹⁰ Scott emphasises that among the most influential work of institutional theory in the setting of organisations is that of Meyer and Rowen (1977). They explain how institutionalised rules and patterns take the form of "rationalised myths". Since the myths are widely held beliefs that cannot be objectively tested, they are true because they are believed. These myths are seen as "rational" because they govern the procedures necessary to accomplish a given end. These myths are products of the state, professional groups and public opinion, and are influential within organisations as well as powerful in the shaping of organisational forms.

that the meeting point sign in the small airport was not placed there as a result of rational reasoning, but as a result of a norm saying that airports should have meeting place signs. For a group of buildings to be defined as an “airport”, there are a number of attributes that these buildings have to possess and among these is the “meeting point” sign. Thus, norms and rationale are seen as competing “logics” when attempting to understand attitudes, behaviours, artefacts, systems and other phenomena in societies. Norms can be related to cultural values and beliefs, but this does not necessarily have to be the case. *Some norms can derive from opinions formulated by international organisations or other professional groups that transcend cultural boundaries and suddenly, there is a need in all countries regardless of cultural values and beliefs to abide by a certain norm* (Meyer 1996?). However, it is also possible that the “layer” of norms is related to cultural values and beliefs. A simple but perhaps illustrative example is the following. If there is a value in a culture that human life is precious, and with that an accompanying belief that it is wrong to kill people, then there is a strong negative attitude towards people who have committed murder. In such a culture, there will be a legal system with laws against homicide which is based on the values and beliefs that it is wrong to take somebody’s life. In this example the layers of attitudes, norms, behaviour and systems interact with the core cultural values and beliefs.

Gerholm, an ethnologist, argues that when the culture concept is used in what she refers to as outside the “cultural sciences”¹¹, it is often seen as a *passive* and *monocausal* concept. She introduces Ohnuki-Tierney (1990) who also questions why some systems, for example, the economic system, are dominant in a society, while culture is seen as a passive reflection of the dominant system. The important point to make in this context is that culture is not seen as passive in this dissertation; instead, it is seen as interacting with other systems such as the economic or political system in a country. In addition, culture is not seen as a monocausal reflection of other systems, but it is seen as both influencing and being influenced by other systems. According to Gerholm, this view of culture is in line with Ohnuki-Tierney’s (1990) reasoning that different systems and culture “influence each other in a spiral of transformation”. One implication of this reasoning is that any relationship between values, beliefs, attitudes, norms, and behaviour in any given culture can be seen as a snapshot in time. The pertinent question to raise is *how long* such a snapshot is representative of a particular culture. In other words, are those spirals of transformation slow and need several generations for recursive

¹¹ Gerholm refers to Arnstberg (1993) in this discussion.

influence and transformation, or is this a fast process carried out within one generation or less? The stability of cultures is a question that will be approached in the next section of this chapter, but first, a few words on the definition of culture used in this dissertation.

Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), two anthropologists, attempted to make culture operational by specifying both *what it is*: “**a shared set of commonly-held general beliefs and values**”, and *what it influences*: “**people’s perceptions, preferences, and behaviour**”. This is the definition of culture that is used in this dissertation. The first part of the definition captures the cultural dimensions that will be examined in this chapter with the purpose of identifying the independent variables to be used in the analysis of determinants of perceptions regarding “interpersonal leadership.” The second part of the definition refers to the dependent variables in this dissertation, that is people’s preferences regarding interpersonal leadership, which have been discussed in the two preceding chapters. This definition corresponds to the discussion above in that the values and beliefs constitute the core of culture with layers of perceptions, preferences, behaviours that could be (but do not have to be) influenced by the cultural core. However, as mentioned earlier, it is not possible to talk about an infinite non-recursive causality between “commonly-held general beliefs and values, and people’s perceptions, preferences and behaviour” as implied by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s definition. Such a relationship may exist in the short run, and the controversial issue of culture’s stability will be approached in the next section of this chapter.

The Changeable Stability of Converging Cultures

Over time the core of cultural values and beliefs are *influencing and being influenced* by layers of norms, attitudes, behaviour, artefacts and systems to a varying degree. This suggests a recursive influence which would result in changes in cultures. A controversial issue is whether cultures change or if they remain stable over time. Hannerz discusses how different forms of “flows” result in changes in cultures through the spreading of ideas and beliefs, while Hofstede (1980) assumes that cultural values are stable over longer periods of time and that they change very slowly¹². Perhaps it is more fruitful to ask what changes

¹² Hofstede (1991) argues that the various replications of his work which support the countries’ relative scores for each of his cultural dimensions are a support for his argument that cultures change slowly, if at all. It should be pointed out that Hofstede uses data from both a 1960s and a 1970s survey to compute his four dimensions describing cultural values. Consequently, he does not compare data from two different points in time, which implies that his assumption of culture’s stability is based on his reasoning and not on empirical evidence.

slowly in a culture and what changes more rapidly, instead of discussing the speed of change for a whole culture. It seems plausible that some values or beliefs change very slowly, if at all, but it also seems probable that other values or beliefs change at a higher speed, in particular with the increased exchange between different cultures¹³.

Since the 1950s there has been a continuous debate on whether cultures are converging, that is, changing to become more similar. Some researchers argue that such convergence would ultimately result in all cultures forming one international work culture, whilst others disagree and stress continued differences. Webber (1969:83) is an early example of belief in persisting cultural differences:

"For a long time at least, cultural factors will exert a strong and differentiating influence on managerial philosophy and practice: less on technological and production decisions, less on the relations of man and job, less on the firm's relationship to its customers and society: but more on *the methods of motivation, patterns of communication*¹⁴ and *styles of management*." (emphasis added)

Pointing to a similar view, Aiken & Bacharach (1979) suggest that culture can be said to continue to influence organisational members' behaviour. Child (1981) emphasises that the crucial issue is not whether culture has an impact on work related values, but which values are influenced by culture, and in what way they are influenced. He analyses a number of cross-cultural studies, where he finds few cultural differences in macro-level variables like organisational structure and technology. However, in the studies of micro-variables, that is, *people's behaviour in work-settings*, Child observes significant differences between various cultural groups. Thus, when a distinction is made between different issues, it seems as if there is some indication that people's attitudes and behaviour, that is, micro organisational behaviour, change

However, as is pointed out by Hofstede (1996), replications of his study including Hoppe's (1990) 19 country study support the original country rankings based on Hofstede's IBM data

¹³ When discussing Hofstede's findings on Sweden as being dominated by 'feminine work values', Forss, Hawk & Hedlund conclude: "Words such as physical strength, assertiveness, manliness etc. fit the history of Swedish industrialisation better than caring, nurturing and being passive. Perhaps the idea of relatively equal, and strong, men united in battle under a commander who is only *primus inter pares* has been wrongly taken as a sign of submissive leadership style" (Forss, Hawk and Hedlund, 1984, p.37).

¹⁴In 1959, the anthropologist Hall, proposed a number of 'dimensions' which have an influence on companies' foreign activities. He referred to them as the 'silent languages' of overseas business. The idea behind this was that the way things are done or perceived is a form of communication, e.g. to arrive 30 minutes late is perfectly polite in one culture, while it would send a 'silent' message of disrespect in another country. 'Time' and 'space' were found to be two important variables, which also have been identified by other anthropologists. However, Hall discusses a larger number of variations of these dimensions, e.g. monochronic vs. polychronic time, than other researchers. Hall's most influential contribution is the concepts of low versus high context communication, and he has continued his research on understanding cultural differences, and how they have an impact on communication between different cultures (1966, 1976, 1983, 1987 and 1990). His research is largely qualitative

at a slower pace than macro organisational behaviour. This could imply that values and beliefs related to people's attitudes and behaviour at work change slowly or that there is a time lag between changes in the values and beliefs, and changes in attitudes and behaviour. For example, it is possible that when the top management, inspired by contemporary management ideals, try to implement self-managing teams, there will be groups of employees who find it difficult to accept and adjust to these new "managerial forms" if the ideas do not correspond to their values and beliefs.

In addressing the question of culture's stability, Smith (1996) points to several different multi-country studies reporting similar country rankings of the cultural dimension "individualism" (Hofstede, 1980; Yang, 1988, Smith and Peterson, 1994). The relative relationships between country scores are similar, although different measurement instruments and different scales have been used. In his discussion, Smith raises the important question for future research whether earlier identified cultural dimensions can continue to tap variation between nations, given the increasing ethnic diversity within countries.

The fact that people's work behaviour seems to continue to retain its cultural identity can be explained by that "culture is in the making, but history is still engraved in our bodies" as expressed by Sjögren (1992:113). She emphasises how the past is ever present and limits the ways in which people think and act. Berger & Luckman (1981:154) describe how a child is socialised into a society, with the values, attitudes, habits, and norms of behaviour¹⁵. The "content" in such a socialisation process is the result of historical processes within a particular society at a particular time. Furthermore, values acquired in childhood are never completely lost. Instead, there is a "constant remodelling of the past in accordance with the present," according to Sjögren. Perhaps there is also a remodelling of the future based on the present as the earlier discussed spirals of transformation would suggest.

and has been conducted in a number of different countries. The implications of Hall's findings are what types of misunderstandings can occur when communicating across cultures.

¹⁵ Hofstede (1991) differentiates between three places of socialisation: "family", "school" and "workplace" where both values and practices are acquired. He discusses how the family is the main place of socialisation at the national level of culture, the school is the main form at the occupational level of culture, and the workplace at the organisational level of culture. The main thrust of his argument is that national cultural differences are mostly differences in values, while organisational cultural differences mostly vary in practices. Hofstede (1994:7) defines practices as symbols, heroes, and rituals which are visible to the outside observer although their cultural meaning is invisible. He defines *symbols* as "words, gestures, pictures or objects that carry a particular meaning which is only recognised by those who share the culture". *Heroes* are people dead or alive, real or imaginary, that serve as role models for behaviour, while *rituals* are collective activities that are socially essential, often for their own sake rather than fulfilling some rational purpose.

Culture's erstwhile stability versus the convergence of cultures is a continued source of debate and both viewpoints are strongly advocated by groups of researchers. There is empirical evidence that some cultural values and beliefs, in particular those related to work behaviour and attitudes change relatively slowly, suggesting that "snapshots" of culture can be representative. *In other words, it seems possible to use cultural values that were measured in the 1960s and 1970s as well as those that are recently measured, as independent variables in the current study.*

National Culture - A Boundary Problem?

The view of culture on which this dissertation is based emphasises "a *shared* set of commonly-held general beliefs and values...". One implication of this definition is that any group of people who *share* some values and beliefs that have an influence on attitudes and behaviour can be seen as sharing a "culture". However, the focus of this dissertation is on the groups of people who share a "national culture". Attempts to identify the boundaries of national culture have been made by anthropologists, ethnologists, psychologists, sociologists, as well as researchers within organisational behaviour and management. It is generally agreed that culture both bridges national boundaries, and divides countries into culturally homogeneous groups. However, since it is awkward to work with these partly unmapped and unofficial cultural areas, the term "national culture" is most often used with reference to the general characteristics of a population within a certain country's border. This is most often done even if equating culture with a country is one of the most frequently discussed methodological problems in cross-cultural research (see e.g., Haire, Ghiselli & Porter, (1966), Hofstede (1980), Sekaran (1983), Ronen (1986), Adler, Doktor & Redding (1986), and Nasif, Aldaeaj, Ebrahim & Thibodeaux (1991)).

A common suggestion is to label studies which aim to compare behaviour from one country to another "cross-national" instead of cross-cultural. It is also possible to argue that even if countries are heterogeneous in terms of consisting of many "cultural groups" (e.g. based on ethnicity, religion, or language¹⁶), they still have a number of institutional factors, such as law, education system, economic and political system in common that bind them together¹⁷. As

¹⁶ It has been argued that in particular ethnic identity, religion, and language are carriers of cultural values and beliefs.

¹⁷That this binding together in some cases seems to have been only an 'artificial arrangement' that individual cultural groups wish to abandon as soon as opportunity arises is a painful reality that can be witnessed today.

earlier mentioned, these systems could have been influenced by cultural values when created, but that does not necessarily have to be the case. In other words, “national cultures” is used as a label for cultures of countries. Hannerz (1992), an anthropologist, discusses how a state can be seen as one of four “flows” that has an influence on culture, and consequently on people’s values and beliefs¹⁸. He argues that it is in the interest of states, especially if the countries are culturally diverse, to influence and shape its citizens’ values and beliefs for the country to become more culturally homogenous.

The use of countries as proxies for cultures or “national cultures” has received both criticism and support by researchers. The measurements of cultural dimensions and value orientations by both social scientists and psychologists that will be discussed in this chapter have been carried out with the *country as the unit of analysis*. One objective of this dissertation is to examine if differences in preferred interpersonal leadership across countries are related to national culture. Consequently, studies that have measured cultural dimensions at the country level can be used as independent variables in this dissertation when analysing the question if differences in employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries are related to across-country differences in culture and values. The next controversial problem to approach is the question if whether is possible to identify comparable categories or cultural dimensions.

Searching for Comparable Categories and Cultural Dimensions

In this chapter, shared values and beliefs are defined as “culture”. A controversial issue is whether it is possible to compare cultures, and if it is possible to identify comparable categories or dimensions across cultures. Researchers who, after conducting literature reviews or empirical studies, claim that they have identified universal variables by which it is possible to compare cultures have compiled numerous lists of variables or values. An example is the 70 “cultural universals” recorded in every culture known to history and ethnography at that time, according to Murdock (1945). He presented the list with the intention of identifying the common denominators of cultures.

¹⁸The other three flows are: forms of life, markets and movements. “Forms of life” represents how people are influenced by people around them, the general idea being that the majority of people today do not live in isolated areas, but influence each other not only locally but also through travelling to places outside home. In the “market form”, culture is produced and disseminated for profit, e.g. the “Coca-Cola”-colonisation of the world. Hannerz’ fourth form is the “movements” around the world which work on affecting public opinion regarding certain issues, e.g. the environment or human rights.

The following issues were included in the list:

age-grading, athletic sports, bodily adornment, calendar, cleanliness training, community organising, cooking, co-operative labour, decorative art, divination, division of labour, dream interpretation, education, eschatology, ethics, etiquette, faith healing, family feasting, fire making, folklore, funeral rites, games, figures, food taboos, inheritance rules, joking, kin groups, kinship nomenclature, language, law, luck superstitions, magic, marriages, mealtimes, medicines, obstetrics, penal sanctions, personal names, population policy, postnatal care, pregnancy usages, property rights, propitiation of supernatural beings, puberty customs, religious rituals, residence rules, sexual restrictions, soul concepts, status differentiation, surgery, tool making, trade, visiting, weaving, and weather control.

This list contains issues that vary from one culture to another in how they are viewed or how they are carried out. How they are viewed and how they are carried out are often based on values and beliefs indicating what is right versus wrong, good versus bad, moral versus immoral, clean versus unclean and so forth. In 1953, Kluckhohn argued that there should be “universal categories of culture,” and these categories should be empirically verifiable and comparable as independent value orientations. One point to stress in this context is that the term “universal” does not mean that the category is perceived in a similar way in all countries. Instead, it means that the category is recognised in all countries, that is “etic” or “nometric”, according to the definitions presented in the preceding chapter. “Etic” and “nometric” have been defined as an issue or a construct, that exists in all countries and which is comparable across countries (i.e., what Kluckhohn referred to as “universal” above)¹⁹. Thus, in this chapter the focus is on examining “etic” and “nometric” cultural constructs that have been identified in earlier research as comparable across countries.

Social scientists and psychologists (see e.g., Parsons and Shils, 1951; Inkeles & LeVinson, 1954; and Rokeach 1968, 1973) have attempted to identify comparable dimensions and value orientations. However, within anthropology there are very few general frameworks of culture. The reason for their absence in this discipline is that although anthropological research is based on thorough empirical fieldwork, the findings are most often not structured in frameworks or defined as “dimensions” (the work of Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck in 1961 is one of the

¹⁹ On the other hand, “universal” and “common” are in this dissertation defined as a nometric construct and an etic issue respectively that are perceived in a similar way across countries (i.e. does not vary significantly across countries). Finally, “emic” is defined as having unique patterning effects for a particular context or country that is not comparable across countries or cultures.

exceptions²⁰). The main reason is most probably that anthropologists tend to view culture as a whole, consisting not of dimensions but of “fragments” that shape a different cultural mosaic for each cultural group. In other words, most anthropologist’s research is “emic” and consequently not comparable across countries.

Researchers within cross-cultural and comparative management who have studied how management, organisational behaviour and business vary from one country to another have turned to anthropological and psychological research for theories and frameworks to be able to explain the variation that they found across countries. A few researchers have decided to measure earlier theoretically derived frameworks of cultural dimensions in a large number of countries to be able to carry out quantitative analysis of differences and similarities across countries (see e.g., Trompenaars, 1993, and Maznevski, 1994). Other researchers have decided to empirically derive “new frameworks” of cultural dimensions from cross-national quantitative studies (see e.g., Hofstede 1980/1984, and Laurent 1983). Concurrently, psychologists and social scientists have been working cross-nationally with the development of theories and measurement of values (see e.g., Schwartz, 1994).

The identification of comparable cultural dimensions across countries has not been spared from severe criticism, in particular from anthropologists. However, it is argued by the researchers mentioned above and others that it is possible to both identify comparable issues, and to compare them across countries²¹. The usefulness of culture as an explanatory variable depends on how the culture concept is “unpacked” as expressed by Schwartz (1994)²². He quotes Clark (1987:461) and argues that it is best to view “culture as a complex, multi-dimensional structure rather than as a simple categorical variable” and to order cultures along interpretable dimensions that can be used to explain differences between cultures in attitudes and behaviour patterns. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961, p 10) express their arguments in the form of the three assumptions that their theory was based on (emphasis added):

- 1) "there is a limited number of common human problems for which all people at all times must find solutions"
- 2) "while there is a variability in solutions of all the problems, it is neither limitless nor random, but is definitely variable within a range of possible solutions"
- 3) "all alternatives of all solutions are present in all societies at all times, but are differentially preferred".

²⁰ Another exception is the work of Edward Hall (1959 and 1960).

²¹ Triandis emphasises the importance of using “etics” for comparing across countries, and “emics” within a culture to understand it, and stresses the importance of both concepts.

²² He refers to Rohner (1984) and Whiting (1976) in his discussion.

The assumptions on which researchers, who identify cultural and value frameworks, most often base their work are underlined in the three assumptions presented above. The important point is that researchers aim at identifying comparable constructs across countries. The country scores for these constructs are often calculated from responses to items collected in large surveys. The researchers argue that the full range of scores for the cultural and value dimensions exists in all countries, but varies across countries when it comes to people's preferences. In some cases, the endpoints of the scale of each construct reflect a cultural orientation, for example, a high score is denoted as "individualism" and a low score as "collectivism" in Hofstede's work. In other studies, each dimension is measured separately, as in the case of Maznevski's (1994) measurement of the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck framework, where it is possible for a country to score high on both "individualism" and "collectivism". In addition, researchers often emphasise that it is not the absolute score for each country that is important, but the *relative positions of the countries*.

The question to raise is whether measurable, comparable dimensions describing culture are related to employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. This question will be discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

IS NATIONAL CULTURE RELATED TO INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP?

A large body of research within comparative management and cross-cultural management has primarily focused on discussing and formulating hypotheses on how national culture could influence organisations and management. The hypotheses have, however, largely remained untested, often supported only by anecdotal evidence. In general, researchers who have studied management and leadership in different countries have assumed cultural influence but not verified it, while researchers who have measured cultural dimensions have hypothesised how they will influence management and organisation but not tested their hypotheses.

One of the few examples of an attempt to test the influence of culture is the research by Kelley and Worthley (1981) who studied culture's influence on managerial attitudes. The findings from the Kelly and Worthley study clearly indicated that culture does have an influence on managerial attitudes. They tested Farmer and Richman's (1965) model against Negandi and Prasad (1971) model. Their study supported the Farmer and Richman model,

which considers culture as an important variable influencing managerial effectiveness²³. The study was designed to compare Japanese, Caucasian-Americans, and Japanese-Americans working in financial institutes. As predicted, the Japanese-Americans were not close to Caucasian-Americans but in between or closer to the Japanese in their responses²⁴.

A small group of researchers like Hofstede²⁵ (1980/1984), Laurent²⁶ (1983), Trompenaars (1993), Maznevski (1994), and Schwartz (1994) have attempted to quantitatively measure *cultural dimensions in a large number of countries*²⁷. Hofstede based his work on data from 40 countries which have later been increased to about 50 countries. Schwartz has hitherto gathered data for 41 cultural groups in 38 nations. Trompenaars has data-bases including around 50 countries. Bond has data from 22 countries (and the 23rd, China, was added later). Maznevski has hitherto measured the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck value orientations for ten nationalities, and Laurent has data from ten countries.

The frameworks of cultural dimensions will be presented and discussed below starting with the theoretically derived frameworks followed by the empirical frameworks. The items used to measure the cultural dimensions will be discussed after the presentations of the frameworks. The above-mentioned researchers (with the exception of Schwartz) have also discussed how the cultural dimensions they have measured influence organisation and management, but they have not empirically tested these hypotheses²⁸. The researchers' own hypotheses of how the cultural dimensions relate to any area of interpersonal leadership will be used in the following discussion. This will result in a choice of cultural dimensions from

²³ The Negandi and Prasad model, which was not supported by the results, assumes that managerial philosophy has a larger influence on managerial behaviour than culture.

²⁴ In 1987, Kelly, Whatley and Worthley attempted to study the influence of culture on a sample of Japanese, Chinese and Mexican managers, their ethnic-American counterparts and Anglo-Americans. Again, the results indicated that persistent cultural characteristics was present in their managerial attitudes.

²⁵ The instrument Hofstede used to collect his data was not originally designed to measure cultural dimensions or value orientations but was an internal questionnaire used at IBM to measure work-related values. However, he has based his reasoning of the interpretations of the factors as cultural dimensions and has corroborated his work by comparing it with a vast amount of studies on culture.

²⁶ Laurent did not attempt to measure cultural dimensions or value orientations but the implicit beliefs that guide the notion of management. Since it is a study of beliefs and not of managerial practices, it was decided that it should be included in the discussion in this chapter.

²⁷ The emphasis is on research with the purpose of measuring *cultural and value dimensions*. There is only a limited number of studies where scores for cultural and value dimensions have been calculated for a larger group of countries. Currently, one large on-going multi-country project (GLOBE) attempts to measure both national and cultural values as a part of their study. This is an important and much awaited contribution to cross-cultural management research (forthcoming 1997).

²⁸ Regarding the multi-country comparative studies, discussed in Chapter 2, the researchers had measured "interpersonal leadership" across countries. The differences they identified across countries were assumed to be related to cultural differences, but they did not test or analyse these assumptions.

earlier research, which will be used as independent variables in the analysis in this dissertation.

This chapter will be concluded with a presentation of the hypothesised relationships between the independent variables of cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership.

Theoretically Derived Frameworks of Culture and Values

Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski's work based on Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework of value orientations

Before describing how Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework of value-orientations has been re-examined, re-measured and re-applied by Lane, DiStefano, and Maznevski, their framework will first be briefly introduced.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's theory of value-orientations

In 1951, the anthropologist F. Kluckhohn presented a theory of value orientations²⁹ which was further refined and empirically tested by a research team in 1959³⁰. The theory identified five "problems", that is, cultural dimensions, that were considered as the most crucial to all human groups (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:11). For each "problem", three possible "solutions" were identified (apart from "human nature" which had an additional categorisation with two groups of solutions). The five "problems" (cultural dimensions and the "solutions") were expressed as follows:

- 1) What is the character of innate human nature? (human nature orientation)
Range of variation: 'evil', 'neutral or mixture of good and evil', and 'good'.
In addition each group can vary by 'mutable' or 'immutable'.
- 2) What is the relation of man to nature (and the supernatural)? (man-nature orientation)
Range of variation: 'subjugation-to-nature', 'harmony-with-nature', and 'mastery-over nature'.
- 3) What is the temporal focus of human life? (time orientation)
Range of variation: 'past', 'present', and 'future'.
- 4) What is the modality of human activity? (activity orientation)
Range of variation: 'being', 'being-in-becoming', and 'doing'.
- 5) What is the modality of man's relationship to other men? (relational orientation)
Range of variation: 'linearity', 'collaterality', and 'individualism'.

²⁹Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) emphasised that a value-orientation theory, that includes not only dominant but also variant values, would lead to a fuller understanding of value variation in cultures and sub-cultures. Furthermore, they argued that societal and cultural systems are not the same systems, and that there is an unresolved confusion as to what the cultural system is and what the societal system is (the authors point out that the use of the term 'socio-cultural' does not imply the integration of the two concepts). They stressed that further research was needed to cast some light on this confusion.

³⁰ The research team consisted of F. Kluckhohn, F. Strodtbeck, J. Roberts, K. Romney, C. Kluckhohn and H. Scarr.

A sixth common human problem was identified as man's conception of "space" and his place in it, but according to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, this issue was not yet enough developed to be included in the theory at that time.

An instrument with 22 items was created by the research team for testing the ordering of the alternative ways of handling each value-orientation. Each item described a life situation that was believed to be common in most societies, and alternatives for handling the situation were outlined in detail³⁰. The test was performed in the Rimrock area in the United States which housed five different communities: Spanish-American, Mormon, Texan, Zuni and Navaho³¹. The findings included the identification of both dominant values, and the rank ordering of two variant values in each society. Predictions, based on earlier anthropological research, were made by the research team for four of the five communities. Only in a few cases did the outcome differ from the predictions (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework re-visited

Lane and DiStefano (1988/1992) discussed and exemplified how Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value-orientation framework could be applied in order to achieve a better understanding of how general managerial activities vary across countries. They had simplified some of the terminology used by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, and included the sixth dimension of "space" that Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck decided to omit at the time of their study. Lane and DiStefano exemplified their discussion of how the framework could be applied with anecdotal experience from a variety of companies' activities in different countries. In the early 1990s a project to measure Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's framework in different countries was launched³².

An instrument consisting of 76 items was constructed and tested. Maznevski (1994) measured the following four dimensions (the orientations are mentioned within parenthesis): ***relation to nature*** (subjugational, mastery, and harmony), ***human nature*** (good versus evil,

³⁰The items were read orally by the researcher to the respondent as many times as was necessary, but no explanations of the alternatives were given. Any comments or questions from the respondent were recorded by the researcher for further analysis (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). The respondent could order the alternatives or give equal weight to the alternatives.

³¹ A sample of 20 to 25 adults in each community was selected, with an approximately even number of men and woman in each group. This number was decided upon since there were no more than around 20 adults in the Spanish-American community. The respondents were selected randomly apart from the Spanish-American case where the total population constituted the sample.

³² See Maznevski, Nason, and DiStefano, 1993.

changeable versus non-changeable), *activity* (doing, being, and thinking³³), and *relationships* (individual, collective, and hierarchical)³⁴. Each orientation, except two, “good versus evil” and “changeable versus unchangeable”, was measured as a separate dimension with different items³⁵. Hitherto, the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck cultural value dimensions have been measured by Maznevski for ten nationalities: Australia, Canada, China, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States. The research project continues to include more countries in the database.

Lane, DiStefano, and Maznevski’s (1997) discussion of what the four dimensions measure and how they relate to management and organisational behaviour will briefly be presented below (see Table 7.1)³⁶. People’s *relation to nature* reflects how people in a society relate to both the natural and the supernatural world around them, and it can be seen as people’s belief of control over external situations. The first alternative way of handling external situations is “subjugation to nature” which reflects whether the respondents perceive that control is in something external such as in the hands of God, of Allah, or perhaps supernatural forces. The second alternative is “harmony with nature” which can metaphorically be described as sailing by using the winds and the waves to their full potential, but never trying to fight them. The third alternative, “mastery of nature,” reflects a conquering mode where people believe that they have control. They believe that they cannot only influence external situations but de facto master them.

The “relation to nature” is primarily hypothesised by Lane *et al* to influence managerial activities such as budgeting and goal setting. The relationship between the relation to nature and managerial practices could be described as follows, according to Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (1997): when subjugation-to-nature values are present, the goals set in organisations are vague (if they are set at all) while in a harmony-with-nature culture, goal setting would be made with all the appropriate contingencies (e.g., environmental concerns) taken into

³³ This orientation of “relation to human nature” was originally labelled “thinking” by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, and it was re-labelled by Maznevski (1994) to “thinking”. “Thinking” will henceforth be used when discussing this orientation.

³⁴ Maznevski attempted to measure the time orientation, but had difficulties in achieving internally consistent measures that were separate entities and decided to omit these from the final version of her questionnaire.

³⁵ If the score is low on the good versus evil dimension, it depicts a belief in human nature as evil, while a high score indicates a belief that human nature is good. In the case of the other variables, they indicate a high or low score on the particular variable that they measure. For example, a high score on the individualistic dimension means that individualistic values are espoused, but a low value on the individualistic dimension means that individualistic values are espoused to a lesser extent (and does not mean that collective values are preferred). The measurement of collective values was done using the collective dimension.

consideration. Finally, in a master-over-nature type of culture, goal-setting will be both specific and ambitious. Thus, according to Lane et al, people's relation to nature will primarily influence organisational systems.

The belief about basic *human nature* reflects one's belief about the character of the human species as expressed by Lane, DiStefano & Maznevski, (1997). The question posed in relation to this dimension is whether people believe that the fundamental nature of human beings is good or evil. Another related question is whether people are changeable or if human nature is unchangeable in that it cannot change from bad to good and vice versa. Lane et al discuss how the belief about human nature influences the management style, control systems and organisational climate. They emphasise how in a society with a dominant "evil" orientation (or "theory x" view of human nature), managers are expected to be autocratic and to practice close supervision and control, while in a society with a dominant "good" orientation (or "theory y" view of human nature) the managers tend to practice participative management. Lane et al argue that the organisational climate is congruent with the management style and control system and that all three are based on the basic values regarding the nature of human nature. Consequently, this dimension of human nature has the two sets of variations: the good and evil dichotomy, and a changeable versus unchangeable dichotomy, and it is hypothesised by Lane et al to influence management and organisation.

The "*activity*" dimension refers to the desirable state of activity and it is represented by three different variations: doing, being, and thinking. The "doing" alternative reflects values that work is enjoyable, that a demanding manager is preferred and that there is a willingness to put in extra effort both within and outside work hours. The "being" alternative, on the other hand, is measured by items including doing only what is necessary at work to have time for family, friends, travelling and other such non work-oriented activities. The "thinking" alternative represents a balance between body and soul, that is characterised by thinking and rational logic. Lane et al explain that this dimension influences how people approach work and leisure, and they suggest that people's view of activity will influence reward systems. The approach to activity is also expected to influence the choice of decision criteria, output concerns and measurement systems. The "being" alternative is expected to result in emotional decision criteria, feelings-based reward and measurement systems and limited concern for output, while the "doing" alternative is expected to lead to pragmatic decision-criteria, results-based rewards

³⁶For a discussion of the influence on organisation and management of the cultural dimensions not measured by

and measurement systems, and a compulsive output concern. The “thinking” alternative is expected to result in rational decision-criteria, logic-based rewards systems and balanced output objectives. Thus, people’s values about “activity” are expected to influence not only organisational systems, but also management.

The “*relationship*” dimension is concerned with what responsibility one has for others. “Individualism” is about taking care of oneself, while “collectivism” is espoused in group-oriented societies where the loyalty is towards the extended family or group (e.g., tribe). The third variation of this dimension is hierarchy, and Lane *et al* explain that hierarchical societies are characterised by groups that are nested in a hierarchical order (e.g., aristocracy and caste systems) and that these nestings are stable over time³⁷. Values about relationships are hypothesised by Lane *et al* to have a strong impact on managers’ basis for authority and decision-making procedures. It is also argued that people’s perception of the differentiation between levels in the organisation is influenced by this dimension, where the hierarchical form is the most rigid in that it emphasises the vertical differentiation in organisations. In hierarchical relationships, communication and influence patterns are authority based, teamwork is formalised, and reward systems are status based. Furthermore, where hierarchical values prevail it is difficult to use matrix structures which disrupt the order by introducing two bosses. Group-oriented values lead to horizontal differentiation and a focus on within-group communication and influence patterns, with routine-based team work and group-based reward systems. Finally, in organisations which are based on individualistic values, the organisational structure tends to be flexible and informal, and thus the communication and influence patterns are open and multiple and it is possible to cross organisational lines whenever necessary. The reward system in this case is individually based, while team work is voluntary and often informal, according to Lane *et al*. Thus, the relationship dimension is hypothesised by Lane *et al* to influence organisational issues as well as managerial issues.

Maznevski, see Lane & DiStefano, 1988/1992, and Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (1997).

³⁷ In Kluckhohn’s original measurement of these dimensions it was of interest who the decision-maker was: the individuals themselves, a group or the boss, an elder or someone else with higher hierarchical status.

TABLE 7:1 Maznevski's Measurement of the Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck Framework

DIMENSIONS (range of variation)			Hypothesised IMPLICATIONS for management and organisational behaviour ¹
ITEMS Maznevski used to measure each orientation of the dimensions presented in the columns below.			
RELATION TO NATURE (subjugation, harmony, mastery)			
<p><i>Subjugation</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. people should not try to change the paths that their lives are destined to take 2. Most things are determined by forces we cannot control. 3. Whatever is going to happen will happen, no matter what actions people take. 4. We have little influence on the outcome of events in our lives 5. It's best to leave problem situations alone to see if they work out on their own. 6. One's success is mostly the matter of good fortune 7. It's better to be lucky than to be smart 	<p><i>Harmony</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All living things are equal and deserve the same care and consideration 2. It is our responsibility to conserve the balance of elements in our environments 3. When considering the design of a new building, harmonising with the environment surrounding the proposed building is an important consideration 4. Many of the world's problems occur because of our attempts to control the natural forces in the world. 5. The most effective businesses are those which work in harmony with their environment 6. It's important to achieve harmony and balance in all aspects of life. 7. It's important to achieve balance among divisions and units within the organisation. 	<p><i>Mastery</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. We can have a significant effect on the events in our lives. 2. Given enough time and resources, people can do almost anything. 3. With enough knowledge and resources, any poor-performing business can be turned around. 4. Good performance comes from taking control of one's business. 5. It's important to try to prevent problems you may encounter in your life. 6. A good manager should take control of problem situations and resolve them quickly. 7. Human should try to control nature whenever possible. 	<p>- <i>goal setting</i> (subjugation is related to vague goal setting, harmony is related to contingent goal setting, and mastery is related to specific goal setting)</p> <p>- <i>budget systems</i> (subjugation is related to futile attitude towards budget systems, harmony is related to a real assumption regarding budget systems, and mastery is related to a pragmatic attitude towards budget system)</p>
BASIC HUMAN NATURE (good versus evil, changeable versus unchangeable)			
<p><i>Good/Evil</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If supervisors don't always check when workers come and go, workers will probably lie about how many hours they work. 2. In general, you can trust workers with keys to the building they work in. 3. You should be suspicious of everybody. 4. If employees' do not submit receipts for their expenses, they are likely to lie about how much they spent. 5. You can't trust anyone without proof. 6. Some amount of corruption is inevitable in any organisation. 	<p><i>Changeable/Unchangeable</i> measured by</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anyone's basic nature can change. 2. In general, bad people cannot change their ways. 3. It's possible for people whose basic nature is bad to change and become good. 4. If someone is essentially a good person now, she or he will likely always be good. 5. It's possible for people whose basic nature is good to change and become bad. 		<p>- <i>control system</i> (evil is related to a tight control system, good is related to a loose control system)</p> <p>- <i>management style</i> (evil is related to an autocratic management style with close supervision, good is related to a "laissez faire" or participative management style)</p>

ACTIVITY (doing, thinking, being)			
<p><i>Being</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. One should work to live, not live to work. 2. People should take the time to enjoy all aspects of life, even if it means not getting work done. 3. You shouldn't worry about working when you don't feel like it. 4. It is important to do what you want, when you want it. 5. Quality of life is more important than financial accomplishment. 6. It is best to live for the moment. 7. If you do not like your working environment you should quit your job. 	<p><i>Thinking</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is important to think things carefully through before acting on them. 2. All business decisions should be analysed from every possible angle before they're implemented. 3. People should always think carefully before they act. 4. Even if it takes more time, business decisions should always be made based on analysis, not intuition. 5. The outcomes of a business decision can be predicted accurately by a logical analysis of that decision. 6. A logical argument is as persuasive as visible evidence that something will work. 7. It is always better to stop and plan than to act quickly. 8. No matter what the situation, it is always worth the extra time it takes to develop a comprehensive plan. 	<p><i>Doing</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is human nature to place more importance on work than on other activities. 2. Effective managers use spare time to get things done. 3. Accomplishing a great deal of work is more rewarding than spending time in leisure. 4. It is important to get work done before relaxing. 5. Once you set a goal, it's important to work towards it until it is achieved. 6. Sitting around doing nothing is a waste of time. 7. People who work hard are the ones who make society function. 8. Hard work is always commendable. 9. People who work very hard deserve a great deal of respect. 10. One should live to work, not work to live. 	<p>- <i>decision criteria</i> (being is related to emotional criteria, thinking is related to rational criteria, doing is related to pragmatic criteria) - <i>reward systems</i> (being is related to a reward system based on feelings, thinking is related to a reward system based on logic, and doing is related to a reward system based on results) - <i>measurement systems</i> (being is related to vague and intuitive measurement systems, thinking is related to qualitative and complex measurement systems, and doing is related to simple and operational measurement systems)</p>
RELATIONSHIPS (hierarchical, collective, individual)			
<p><i>Hierarchical</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A hierarchy of authority is the best organisation. 2. People at higher levels in the organisation have a responsibility to make important decisions for people below them. 3. Employees should be rewarded based on their level in the organisation. 4. The highest-ranking manager in a team should take the lead. 5. People at lower levels in organisations should carry out the requests of people at the higher levels without question. 6. Organisations should have separate facilities, such as eating areas for higher-level managers. 7. People at the lower levels in the organisation should not have much power in organisations. 	<p><i>Collective</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The performance of one's work-group or unit is more important than one's own individual performance. 2. Society works best when people willingly make sacrifices for the good of everyone. 3. Good team members subordinate their own goals and thoughts to those of the team. 4. An employees' rewards should be based mainly on the work-group or unit's performance. 5. Every person has a responsibility for all others in his or her work-group or unit. 6. It is important not to stand out too much. 7. Every person or team should be responsible for the performance of everyone else on the team. 8. One's responsibility for family member should go beyond one's parents and children. 	<p><i>Individual</i> measured by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. People tend to think of themselves first before they think of others. 2. It's natural to put your own interests ahead of others. 3. Society works best when each person serves his or her own interests. 4. Adults should strive to be independent from their parents. 5. An employees' rewards should be based mainly on his or her own performance. 6. We should try to avoid depending on others. 7. Ultimately, you are accountable only to yourself. 	<p>- <i>organisational structure</i> (hierarchical is related to vertical differentiation in organisational structure, collective is related to the horizontal and, individual is related to the flexible and informal organisational structure) - <i>communication and influence patterns</i> (hierarchical is related to authority-based patterns, collective is related to within-group based patterns, and individual is related to multiple and open) - <i>teamwork</i> (hierarchical is related to regulated and formal teamwork, collective is related to normative and routine, and individual is related to voluntary and informal)</p>

The implications of the cultural dimensions on management and organisations were hypothesised by Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (1997)

In sum, the hypothesised relationships between cultural dimensions, and management and organisation discussed by Lane *et al* (1997) include the following which are of interest when examining the relationship between cultural dimensions and interpersonal leadership. The beliefs about “basic human nature” are seen as influencing management styles, degree of supervision and control systems. Beliefs about “relationships” are hypothesised to influence communication and influence patterns as well as forms of teamwork. The additional two dimensions touch upon topics less directly related to interpersonal leadership as it is studied in this dissertation. “Activity” is hypothesised to influence motivation and reward systems, while “relation to nature” is expected to influence organisational systems, such as goal setting and budget systems. Thus, four cultural dimensions are hypothesised by Lane *et al* as having an influence on organisation and management, of which “basic human nature” and “relationships” are suggested to be most relevant in the analysis of interpersonal leadership.

Trompenaars’ work with Parsons and Shils’ dimensions

Before presenting how Trompenaars has operationalised cultural dimensions and defined their potential influence on organisation and management, Parsons and Shils’ theory of action will be briefly introduced,

Parsons and Shils’ theory of action

In 1951, the social scientists Parsons and Shils presented their “General Theory of Action” which consisted of three parts; theory of personality, theory of culture, and theory of social systems. These three parts are interrelated to some extent, and Parsons (1951) emphasised that it is not possible to speak of a social system without speaking of institutionalisation of cultural patterns³⁸. It was the systems of interaction differentiated at the cultural level that were of interest to Parsons. He emphasised that these have a commonly understood system of cultural symbols. Culture defined by Parsons is as follows: 1) culture is *transmitted* and it constitutes a heritage or social tradition, 2) it is *learned*, that is, it is not a part of people’s generic constitution, and 3) it is *shared*. Thus, culture is on the one hand the product and on the other hand a determinant, of the systems of human social interaction (Parsons, 1951:15). This view on

³⁸ Parsons (1951) argues that social systems are not the result of personalities as is often argued by psychologists, nor are social systems embodiments of cultural patterns as is often claimed within anthropology. Parsons (1951:540) emphasises, drawing upon the work of Durkheim, that the fundamental relationship between “need-dispositions of

culture is very similar to that discussed earlier in this chapter. In Parsons and Shil's world all human action is seen as determined by five dimensions, which are referred to as "pattern variables". These dimensions are seen as bi-polar with two categories formed for each dimension (Parsons 1951:67):

- 1) The Gratification-Discipline Dilemma
Affectivity versus Affectivity Neutral
- 2) The Private versus Collective Interest Dilemma
Self-orientation versus Collectivity-orientation
- 3) The Choice Between Types of Value-Orientation Standard
Universalism versus Particularism
- 4) The Choice between "Modalities" of the Social Object
Ascription versus Achievement
- 5) The Definition of Scope of Interest in the Object
Specificity versus Diffuseness

Parsons and Shils' framework re-visited

Trompenaars (1993) has studied the effect of culture on management and he emphasises that the cultural dimensions he presents are the result of 15 years of academic and field research. The research he refers to derives from the approximately 900 cross-cultural training "programmes" which he has given in 18 countries. Apart from the training programmes, he has collected data from 30 companies active in 50 countries. In his database of 15, 000 people, 75% of the participants belong to management, while 25% can be labelled "administrative staff."

Trompenaars presents seven dimensions, which he divides into three main groups, whereof the first is labelled "relationships with people". This group includes Parsons and Shils' five dimensions, the labels of which Trompenaars has simplified as follows: "universalism versus particularism", "individualism versus collectivism", "neutral versus emotional", "specific versus diffuse", and "achievement versus ascription". Trompenaars' second main group is "attitudes to time". The third group is "attitudes to the environment" (i.e. relationship to nature)³⁹, where Trompenaars uses Rotter's (1966) measurements of "internally controlled" and "externally controlled" which are, according to him, comparable to Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's "mastery over nature" and "subjugation of nature". Some "technical aspects of Trompenaars' data bank" are described by Peter B. Smith in Trompenaars' book (1993). Six of Trompenaars'

personality, role-expectations of the social system, and internalised-institutionalised value-patterns of culture is the fundamental nodal point of the *organization* of systems of action."

³⁹ He mentions how Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck identified differing solutions to relationships with people, time and nature, and emphasises that he has also distinguished seven dimensions of culture based on these issues in his research. Trompenaars does not use the same "time orientation" as Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, but refers to the

seven dimensions are constructed from a series of items collected through questionnaires⁴⁰. Unfortunately, only a selection of the items used to measure the dimensions is presented by Trompenaars. A decision was taken to use the items which he himself used as representative for the dimension when giving seminars or teaching in cross-cultural management. The items are presented in Table 7.2 below. Trompenaars discusses the implications of each cultural dimension for conducting international business as well as for managing and being managed. The latter group of hypotheses is of interest in this chapter and is also included in Table 7.2⁴¹.

Five of the dimensions Trompenaars has measured are discussed below. One of the dimensions omitted in this discussion is “relation to time”, since this dimension was operationalised by having the respondents draw circles symbolising the past, present and future (and consequently would be unsuitable to use as an independent variable). The other dimension omitted here is “affective versus neutral,” since the dependent variables in this dissertation do not measure preferences for communication styles or forms of non-verbal communication.

“Universalism versus particularism,” according to Trompenaars, captures how people’s behaviour is judged by others. There are two alternative types of judgement: at one extreme is the obligation to adhere to standards which are universally agreed upon within a culture, and at the other extreme are judgements based on the exceptional nature of the present situation or of the people involved. The universalist orientation is rule-based, and rules are followed with no exceptions made. In particularist-oriented cultures, focus is on relationships between the people involved before deciding if rules should be followed or broken. The universalist versus particularist dimension is expected to influence structures and policies, where in a universalist value-based organisation there is an adherence to rules and formalised structures as well as consistent and uniform procedures. In the particularist value-based organisation, informal networks are built, and there is a preference for taking relationships and each particular situation into account when making decisions. Thus, according to Trompenaars, “universalism versus particularism” will influence attitudes towards rules, formalisation, and other forms of rule-based activities within the organisation.

work of Hall. However, he prefers to use the terms “sequential” versus “synchronous” instead of Hall’s terms “monochronic” and “polychronic”.

⁴⁰ The first instrument consisted of 79 items, but it was found to be too time consuming for the respondents to fill out the questionnaire, and a 57 item questionnaire was later put to use. Cronbach alphas are presented for six dimensions (excluding “time” since it is not measured by items, but by a ‘circle test’ (see Trompenaars, 1993:113). The Cronbach alphas were improved after some of the changes in connection with the revised questionnaire.

⁴¹ For further discussion, see Trompenaars, 1993.

“Collectivism versus individualism” is explained by Trompenaars in following the definition presented by Parsons and Shils (1951), where “individualism” is described as a prime orientation to one’s own goals and “collectivism” as a prime orientation to common goals and objectives. Trompenaars also refers to Tönnies who differentiated between “Gemeinschaft” and “Gesellschaft”, where the former is the family-based intimate social context in which a person is not sharply differentiated, and the latter is a context featuring individual tasks and separate responsibilities. The orientation towards one self or towards a collective group will influence a number of managerial issues according to Trompenaars. He exemplifies how the form and speed of decision-making will vary. In collectivist-oriented cultures, decision-making is a slow process which aims at consensus, while in the individualistic type of societies the process is faster and involves less people. Motivation is an area where individual incentive and bonus schemes are thought to be used in individualistic cultures. In collective cultures, where the individuals do not want to stand out, and they abhor favouritism, these types of systems would probably not be perceived as motivating since it is the group that has performed well together. Thus, individualism versus collectivism is hypothesised by Trompenaars to influence both attitudes towards decision-making and feedback.

The *“diffuse versus specific”* dimension is defined by Trompenaars as follows: people can engage in specific areas of life separately, or diffusely in multiple areas of life at the same time. He exemplifies this with how in specific-oriented cultures, managers are managers and act accordingly *only at work*, and not in other strands of life, for example, in the local sports club. In diffuse-oriented cultures, the director is the director on all occasions and is expected to be treated as such both inside and outside the organisation. This dimension is discussed in terms of how the division between private and work life is viewed in various cultures, and how this view has consequences for the role of the manager. However, in his discussion of the implications for managing and being managed, Trompenaars stresses that in a country characterised by specific-values the need for clarity and detail in instructions increases, whereas in diffuse cultures instructions should tend to be more ambiguous and vague so that employees can exercise their own judgement. Furthermore, in a specific-oriented culture, management is about “realisation of objectives and standards with rewards attached”, while in a diffuse-oriented culture, “management is a continuously improving process by which quality improves”. Although Trompenaars has used a scenario focusing on the role of the manager to measure degree of specific versus diffuse, he argues that the influence of this cultural dimension is on the role of management in terms of using specific instructions and objectives with a more outcome-

oriented perspective, as opposed to the use of diffuse instructions and having a more process-oriented perspective.

The “*achievement versus ascription*” dimension deals with the basis for the attribution of status. In some societies status is based on achievement, while in others it is based on ascribed characteristics such as age, class, gender, and education. Status is consequently based on “*what you do*” in achievement-oriented cultures, while in ascription-oriented cultures status is based on “*who you are*”. Trompenaars points out that achieved and ascribed status can be interwoven, for example, when a person with ascribed status “rises to the occasion” and achieves in order to live up to the ascribed status. An important point when discussing the influence of this value-orientation on management is that a manager’s position within an ascriptive-oriented culture is inter-related with both the superiors and the subordinates in a strict and well observed rank ordering. Consequently, no changes in status will occur at one level without repercussions at the other levels. Trompenaars emphasises that the important influence of this cultural dimension on management is that in an achievement-oriented culture, a manager is respected for knowledge and skills instead of seniority. Furthermore, managers in achievement-oriented cultures can use management by objectives (MBO) techniques and their decisions are challenged on functional grounds, while in ascriptive-oriented culture decisions are challenged only by people with higher authority, and MBO techniques are less effective and difficult to apply. Thus, the “achievement-ascription” dimension is expected by Trompenaars to have an influence on managing, in particular the use of employee-involving management techniques such as management by objectives.

Finally, Trompenaars has measured the “*relation to nature*,” which he defines as follows: either people attempt to control nature by imposing their will on it, or people believe that they are a part of nature and adapt to it. He labels the former values to be “inner-directed” and the latter to be “outer-directed”. These labels are, as mentioned earlier, based on the work by Rotter, who argues that people have either an internal or an external locus of control. Trompenaars mentions that the internal locus of control often leads to dominating attitudes, focus on own department and organisation, the use of management techniques such as MBO, clear objectives, and linking goals to rewards. An external locus of control emphasises flexibility, compromise, harmony, responsiveness, with a focus on the “others”, that is, customers, partners, environment, etc. Thus, it seems as if Trompenaars is suggesting that also the relation to nature has also an influence on management and organisation.

Table 7.2: Trompenaars' measurements of Parsons and Shiels' framework including Trompenaars' measurement of Rotter's "relation to nature"

DIMENSIONS (range of variation)	ITEM/S used to measure the dimensions	hypothesised IMPLICATIONS for managers and being managed
<p>UNIVERSALISM VS PARTICULARISM (rules vs. relationships)</p>	<p>"You are riding in a car driven by a close friend. He hits a pedestrian. You know he was going at least 35 miles per hour in an area of the city where the maximum speed is 20 mph. There are no witnesses. His lawyer says that if you testify under oath that he was only driving 20 mph it may save him from serious consequences. What right has your friend to expect that you protect him?</p> <p>1a. My friend has a definite right to expect me to testify to the lower figure. 1b. He has some right as a friend to expect me to testify to the lower figure. 1c. He has no right as friend to expect me testify to the lower figure.</p> <p>What do you think you would do in view of the obligations of a sworn witness and the obligation to your friend?</p> <p>1d. Testify that he was going 20 miles per hour. 1e. Not testify that he was not going 20 miles per hour.</p> <p>The country scores are based on the percentage of respondents in each country who opt for a "universalist" answer (percentage based on answers 1c or 1b+1e)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - uniform procedures vs. informal networks - institute formal ways vs. informal approach to change - fairness by treating all cases the same vs. treating on special merits
<p>COLLECTIVISM VS INDIVIDUALISM (the group vs. the individual)</p>	<p>Two people were discussing ways in which individuals could improve quality of life.</p> <p>A. One said: "It is obvious that if individuals have as much freedom as possible and the maximum opportunity to develop themselves, the quality of their life will improve as a result"</p> <p>B. The other said: "If individuals are continuously taking care of their fellow human beings the quality of life will improve for everyone, even if it obstructs individual freedom and individual development"</p> <p>Which of the two ways of reasoning do you think is usually the best A or B? (country scores are based on the percentages opting for answer A which is seen as representing "individualism").</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual incentives vs.-group cohesiveness and moral - freedom for individual initiative vs. goals for all to meet
<p>DIFFUSE VS SPECIFIC (the range of involvement)</p>	<p>A boss asks a subordinate to help him paint his house. The subordinate, who does not feel like doing it, discusses the situation with a colleague.</p> <p>A. The colleague argues: "You don't have to paint if you don't feel like it. He is your boss at work. Outside he has little authority."</p> <p>B. The subordinate argues: " Despite the fact that I don't feel like it, I will paint it. He is my boss and you can't ignore that outside work either."</p> <p>The country scores are based on the percentage of respondents in each country who refuse to paint the house (percentage indicate degree of specific orientation)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - private and business are separated vs. not separated - clear, precise and detailed instructions vs. ambiguous and vague
<p>ACHIEVEMENT VS ASCRIPTION (how status is accorded)</p>	<p>A The most important thing in life is to act and to think in the ways that best suit the way you really are, even if you do not get things done.</p> <p>The country scores are based on the percentages of respondents in each country who disagree with this statement (percentage indicate the degree of achievement-orientation)</p> <p>B. The respect a person gets is highly dependent on their family background.</p> <p>The country scores are based on the percentages of respondents in each country who disagree with this statement (percentage indicates the degree of achievement-orientation)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - respect for managers based on skill vs. seniority - MBO is effective vs. not effective - decisions challenged on technical ground vs. by higher authority
<p>RELATION TO NATURE (internally controlled vs. externally controlled)</p>	<p>A. What happens to me is my own doing.</p> <p>B. Sometimes I feel that I do not have enough control over the directions my life is taking.</p> <p>The country scores are based on the percentages of respondents in each country who chose alternative A (percentages indicate the degree of internally controlled).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - individual objectives vs. congruence among various people's goals - goals linked to rewards vs. facilitate work - MBO vs. management by external demands

In sum, Trompenaars has hypothesised how the cultural dimensions that he has measured are related to management and organisation. The following hypotheses in particular should be relevant for interpersonal leadership. Trompenaars argues that the three cultural dimensions “collectivism versus individualism”, “achievement versus ascription” and “relation to nature” are expected to influence management of subordinates in terms of motivation, decision-making and MBO practices. The dimension “diffuse versus specific” is believed to influence the use of specific instructions and outcome versus process-oriented management, while “universalist versus particularist” is hypothesised to influence the level of adherence to uniform procedures and standardised practices as opposed to making particularistic exceptions.

Schwartz’ seven cultural dimensions of values with inspiration from Rokeach

*The Rokeach Legacy*⁴²

First, a few words on the Rokeach legacy where Schwartz had his points of departure when he developed the seven cultural dimensions of values (Smith & Schwartz, 1995). According to Smith and Schwartz (1995), Rokeach provided an operational definition of values and designed a research instrument that operationalised values as guiding principles in life, and this proved to be a new starting point for substantial research by him and others on values. Rokeach (1968) proposed that values have to do with modes of conduct and end-states of existence, and when a person “has” a value this means that the person has a belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is preferable to the alternative modes or end-states. He continues to explain that once a value has been internalised in a person, it consciously or unconsciously becomes a standard and a criterion for action that is used for justifying one’s own actions and those of others, for comparing one self with others, or for morally judging one self and others. Rokeach mentions that this definition of values is compatible to that used by Kluckhohn (1951). The difference between preferable modes of conduct and preferable end-states is familiar in the philosophical literature on values; it refers to values as means (instrumental values) and values as ends (terminal values)⁴³. The fact that

⁴² The title “the Rokeach legacy” is borrowed from Smith and Schwartz’ chapter on “Values” (1995) in the Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology, edited by Kagitcibasi and Segall.

⁴³ An *instrumental* value takes the form of being something that is personally or socially *preferable* in all situations with respect to all objects (e.g., I believe that *honesty* is preferable in all situations), while a *terminal*

two separate value systems can be constructed, one for terminal values and one for instrumental values (each with a rank-ordered structure along a continuum of importance), was the starting point for Rokeach's construction of a research instrument. The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) included two lists of 18 values that the respondent ranked according to their personal importance. The ranking procedure has been criticised (Zavalloni, 1980, Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987, and Smith and Schwartz, 1995), but the instrument has been widely used both within and outside the United States (see Feather, 1975, for a summary and a review of studies using RVS).

Rokeach (1968) believed that although a large variance in individual value systems due to personality is to be expected, the variations will still be restricted to a small number of dimensions by culture, institutional and social factors. Attempts were made by Rokeach and others to identify dimensions of values and to determine whether they were cross-culturally stable, but without much success until, the work of Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990). Smith and Schwartz (1995) applied a different theory of content and structure of the value systems, and a different analytic approach which resulted in an identification of seven value dimensions that were found to be valid within each country in the study. These findings were the starting point for Schwartz' development of a new theory of values.

Schwartz' seven cultural dimensions of values

Schwartz postulates that the crucial aspect distinguishing between values is not the differentiation between instrumental and terminal values used by Rokeach. Instead, the important factor is the type of *motivational goals* the values express (Smith and Schwartz, 1995). Schwartz draws upon values identified in earlier research, but also on religious and philosophical writings from many cultures. Values were later grouped into value types for example power, achievement, tradition, and security. A theory was also developed from the dynamic relations between these value types, yielding a pattern of conflicting and competing values.

Based on his theory and the preliminary support it had received, Schwartz (1994) developed an instrument that included 56 core values, whereof 45 had cross-culturally consistent meanings. The respondents were asked to rate each value on a scale of how

value is personally and socially *worth striving for* (e.g., I believe that a *world at peace* is worth striving for) (Rokeach, 1968).

important it was “as a guiding principle in my life”⁴⁴. Schwartz collected data in 86 samples that included 41 cultural groups in 38 nations during the period of 1988-1992⁴⁵. Schwartz analysed the data by conducting a Guttman-Lingoes smallest space analysis (SSA), using the country mean importance ratings for each value. A two-dimensional solution of the SSA generated seven “regions” or dimensions of values. Schwartz explains that he based his choice of these seven regions on 1) fit with a priori hypotheses, 2) meaningfulness and interpretability of each region, and 3) replication of the regions when analysing subsets of the samples separately.

Schwartz worked with two types of culture-level dimensions types: “autonomy” versus “conservatism” to measure the individual’s autonomy vs. embeddedness in groups, and “hierarchy and mastery” versus “harmony and egalitarian commitment” to measure the pursuit of individual goals as opposed to those of a group⁴⁶. The seven cultural dimensions are defined by Schwartz as expressed below:

“*Conservatism*” constitutes those values that are important in societies often labelled as “collectivist”, according to Schwartz. In these societies the view of the person as an autonomous entity lacks significance and people find a meaning only as a part of the collectivity of interdependent and mutually obliged people. Furthermore, there is a preference for preservation of and fitting into the social and material environment. This is emphasised by values that stress the maintenance of status quo, security, conformity and tradition. Opposite to “conservatism” are the two “autonomy” aspects that are important in societies that view people as autonomous and entitled to pursue their own interests in life.

“*Intellectual Autonomy*”, has an intellectual emphasis on self-direction, while “*Affective Autonomy*” stresses stimulation and hedonism, according to Schwartz. Both dimensions view the person as an autonomous entity and the dimensions correlate negatively with “conservatism”. Intellectual autonomy is characterised by values such as being curious,

⁴⁴ In the survey, the respondents were asked to rate each value “as a guiding principle in my life” by using a nine-point scale where “-1” was defined as “opposed to my values”, “0” was defined as “not important” and “7” was defined as “of supreme importance”.

⁴⁵ The samples included between 150 to 300 respondents. Four samples had fewer than this number of respondents, and eleven samples had more. In some of the samples, the respondents were school-teachers, in some they were university students, and in a smaller number of samples the respondents were adults with varying occupations.

⁴⁶ Schwartz argued that it is important to distinguish between two issues that often are confounded in the analysis of individualism and collectivism. The first of the two issues is the conception of the individual as autonomous versus embedded or related in groups, and the second issue is the pursuit of own goals as opposed to those of the group.

broad-minded and creative, while affective autonomy is related to pleasure, enjoying life, and leading an exciting and varied life.

“Hierarchy” emphasises the legitimacy of hierarchical roles and a preference for hierarchical treatment of people and resources. There is also an acceptance of the legitimacy of pursuing selfish individual interests. However, the dimension is closer to “conservatism” than to the two autonomy values. The values characterising hierarchy include authority, being influential, wanting social power, desiring wealth and being humble. Hierarchy is positioned “close” to “mastery” in the SSA solution. **“Mastery”** stresses active mastery over the social environment through active efforts to modify the surroundings and get ahead of other people, as Schwartz expresses it. The “mastery” dimension together with the autonomy dimensions all assume the legitimacy of individuals pursuing their own interests. The dimension is characterised by values such as being ambitious, successful, capable, independent, choosing one’s own goals and being daring.

“Egalitarian Commitment” involves a preference for equal treatment of people and resources as well as transcending one’s own self-interest. This, according to Schwartz, leads to values that focus on promoting the welfare of other people in societies, where this is not being taken care of within closely-knit groups of people (as is the case in what is often referred to as collectively-oriented societies). He emphasises that emotional attachments and caring are important in all societies. They merely take on different forms from one society to another. The values characterising this dimension include: being helpful, striving for social justice, equality and a world at peace (see table 7.3 for more examples of values). **“Harmony”** involves a preference for preservation of, and fitting into, the social and material environment. The values characterising the dimension are “unity with nature”, “protecting the environment”, and “striving for a world of beauty.” Thus, harmony with nature is emphasised and stands in opposition to actively changing the world and exploiting people and resources. It is negatively correlated with both “mastery” and “hierarchy,” and it is closest to “egalitarian commitment.”

Schwartz has *not* hypothesised how these dimensions will influence organisations and management. However, he has done some comparisons with Hofstede’s cultural dimensions which will briefly be mentioned. The three dimensions: *conservatism, intellectual autonomy, and affective autonomy* which measure what Schwartz refers to as the original definition of collectivism versus individualism, correlate positively with Hofstede’s individualism and

collectivism. These three dimensions also correlate negatively with Hofstede’s power distance, a relationship that will be further mentioned later in this chapter when discussing what Hofstede’s power distance de facto measures. That Schwartz’ *hierarchy* dimension does not correlate with Hofstede’s power distance is attributed by Schwartz to the fact that hierarchical differences in society are not compatible to differences in the manager- employee relationship. The *mastery* dimension correlates positively with Hofstede’s masculinity versus femininity, and *harmony* correlates positively with Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance.

These two correlations are in accordance with Schwartz’ expectations. The significant correlations are not so strong and Schwartz argues that there are differences between his dimensions and those of Hofstede. Finally, *egalitarian commitment* correlates positively with Hofstede’s individualism, is not expected by Schwartz’. He attributes this correlation to voluntary action for the benefit of others, which is captured by the egalitarian commitment dimension, being valued in societies in which individuals are seen as autonomous.

Table 7.3: Schwartz’ Seven Cultural Dimensions of Values

DIMENSIONS (range of variation)	VALUES used to operationalise the dimensions	Hypothesised IMPLICATIONS for the view on management and organisations
Conservatism (low to high)	Social Order, Family Security, National Security, Respect Tradition, Self-Discipline, Obedient, Devout , Honouring Elders, Moderate, Politeness, Clean, Preserving Public Image, And Wisdom	None (However, Schwartz mentions that the dimensions is negatively correlated with Hofstede’s individualism, i.e., positively correlated with collectivism & power distance)
Intellectual Autonomy (low to high)	Curious, Broadminded, and Creativity	None (However, Schwartz mentions that this dimension is positively correlated with Hofstede’s individualism & negatively with power distance)
Affective Autonomy (low to high)	“Enjoying life”, “Exiting life”, “varied life” and “pleasure”	None (However, Schwartz mentions that this dimension is positively correlated with Hofstede’s individualism & negatively with power distance)
Hierarchy (low to high)	Wealth, Social Power, Authority, Influential, and Humble	None (Schwartz mentions that “Hierarchy” does <i>not</i> correlate with Hofstede’s power distance as expected)
Mastery (low to high)	Successful, Ambitious, Independent, Capable, Daring, and “Choosing own goals”	None (However, Schwartz mentions that this dimension is positively correlated with Hofstede’s masculinity versus femininity)
Egalitarian Commitment (low to high)	Equality, Loyal, Helpful, Responsible, “Accepting my portion”, Honest, “Social justice”, “World at peace”, and Freedom	None (However, Schwartz mentions that this dimension is positively correlated with Hofstede’s individualism)
Harmony (low to high)	“Unity with nature”, “protection of environment”, and “World of beauty”.	None(However, Schwartz mentions that this dimension is positively correlated with Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance)

In sum, Schwartz has distinguished between two different issues often confounded in research on individualism and collectivism. The first issue is whether an individual is an autonomous entity or embedded in groups. Schwartz measures this dimension with his scales

on affective and intellectual autonomy versus conservatism. The second issue is whether people pursue self-interests or the interests of the group, and this is measured by mastery and hierarchy versus egalitarian commitment and harmony. Schwartz has not formulated any hypotheses or discussed any influence of these dimensions on management and organisation. In the cases where comparable cultural dimensions of interest are identified, Schwartz' dimensions will be hypothesised to have similar influence on organisation and management. This will be discussed after the presentation of the two empirically derived frameworks.

Empirically Derived Frameworks

Hofstede's four dimensions of work-related values

The work most referred to within comparative and cross-cultural management is by far Hofstede's framework of four dimensions of work-related values. In the late 1960s, and again during the early 1970s, an extensive survey including 40 countries and a total of 116, 000 questionnaires were administered by IBM. The studies constituted an "unparalleled data bank in the history of comparative management research, allowing for analyses across individuals, occupations, and countries, as well as between the sexes, among age groups, and over time" (Hoppe, 1990, p 7). Hofstede (1980/1984) used the IBM questionnaire to identify work-related values by an ecological factor analysis⁴⁸ of the collected data. He used the data from the survey to identify four dimensions⁴⁹ affecting human thinking, organisations and institutions: "power distance," "uncertainty avoidance," "individualism versus collectivism," and "masculinity versus femininity." For items measuring the dimensions, and Hofstede's hypothesised managerial implications of the four dimensions see Table 7.4⁵⁰.

Hofstede's work has been seen as seminal within the field of comparative management, and the results from his study have been extensively referred to and used in the analysis of comparative studies⁵¹. His research has been extensively reviewed and discussed, pre-

⁴⁸An ecological factor analysis is carried out with the country means of each item entered into the analysis.

⁴⁹The factor analysis resulted in three factors. Hofstede decided to divide one factor into two dimensions, 'power distance' and 'individualism' based on theoretical reasoning (1980/1984).

⁵⁰For a discussion of more organisational consequences, see Hofstede (1980/1984 and 1991).

⁵¹Examples of Hofstede's dimensions being used in the field of international management research are for instance; How American business can meet the Japanese challenge (England, 1983), Swedish direct investment in the U.S. (Ågren, 1990), and the underlying reasons for cultural differences when interpreting and responding to strategic issues (Schneider & Meyer, 1991).

dominantly with a focus on the methodological problems of cross-cultural research in general, and those related to Hofstede's study in particular (see e.g. Banai, 1982; Triandis, 1982; Sorge, 1983; Forss, Hawk & Hedlund, 1984; Ronen, 1986; Westwood & Everett, 1987; and Janson, 1992).

Together with Bond (1988a, 1988b), Hofstede identified a fifth cultural dimension. Bond (1987 and 1988) had decided to avoid the Western cultural bias by measuring values that were deemed important in the Chinese culture by consulting a group of Chinese scholars when constructing the instrument. The Chinese Values Survey (CVS) was administered to 50 female and 50 male students in 22 countries⁵¹. The CVS consisted of 40 values which the respondents had to rate in degree of importance. The country means of each value were entered into a factor analysis (i.e., ecological analysis) and four factors were derived. Three of the factors corresponded with three of Hofstede's dimensions⁵², while the fourth did not correspond to Hofstede's fourth factor⁵³. Bond labelled his fourth factor "Confucian Dynamism," since all values seemed to be taken directly from the teachings of Confucius. Hofstede emphasises that one end-pole is more future-oriented and more dynamic, while the other end-pole is characterised as more static, and perhaps is directed towards the present or past. Hofstede labels the dimension as long-term versus short-term orientation in life.

The dimension "Confucian dynamism" will be included alongside Hofstede's four dimensions in a brief description of how Hofstede (1980/1984, and 1991)⁵⁴ defines and describes in what way the dimensions influence management (see Table 7.4).

"Power distance" is defined (1991:28) as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions⁵⁵ and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally". Hofstede argues that the power distance country scores indicate the dependence relationship between subordinates and managers in a country. In a low power-distance country, there is limited dependence of subordinates on the bosses. In high power-

⁵¹Later the People's Republic of China was added as the 23rd country included in the study (Hofstede, 1991)

⁵²Hofstede's "power distance" corresponds with Bond's "moral discipline, his "individualism" with Bond's "integration" and "masculinity" with "human-heartedness" (Bond & Hofstede, 1989, and Hofstede, 1991).

⁵³Hofstede emphasises that "power distance", "individualism versus collectivism", and "masculinity versus femininity" capture dimensions which can be identified by using both Western and Eastern data, while "uncertainty avoidance" only appears in Western data and "Confucian dynamism" only in Eastern data. He sees "uncertainty avoidance" as the West's preoccupation in the search for Truth, and the "Confucian dynamism as the East's preoccupation with the search for Virtue (Bond & Hofstede, 1989, and Hofstede 1991).

⁵⁴The definitions are from Hofstede's 1991 book, as is most of the discussion, since he has refined some of his arguments from the earlier book and articles. Any pertinent differences in interpretation or formulation of hypotheses between the 1980/1984 and the 1991 book will be indicated.

distance countries there is a strong dependence on an autocratic or paternalistic boss. In exchange for subordinates' loyalty and obedience, managers provide support and take care of them. According to Hofstede, "power distance" is supposed to influence the relationship between manager and subordinate in such a way that in a high power-distance country, subordinates are expected to be supervised by their managers, and MBO will not work. In a low power-distance country, subordinates see managers as accessible and democratic and subordinates expect to be consulted before their managers make decisions. In his early work, Hofstede emphasised the relationship between power distance and employees' values about participation in decision-making, while in his later work the focus is more on power distance and the authority relation or degree of dependence described above.

"Uncertainty avoidance" is defined (1991:113) as "the extent to which members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain and unknown situations". In a highly uncertainty-avoiding culture there is, according to Hofstede, a need for predictability and a need for written and unwritten rules. "Uncertainty avoidance" is expected to influence not only the amount of rules, but also managers' involvement in subordinates' work at a detailed level. Thus, this dimension is seen as capturing people's need for clarity and security in several ways, for example through detailed supervision, rules, and policies.

"Individualism" is defined (1991:51) by examples of different types of societies: "societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his and her immediate family", and **"collectivism"** is defined (1991:51) as "societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated in strong cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty". In individualistic societies, self-actualisation by every individual is the ultimate goal as opposed to harmony and consensus in collectivist societies. Consequently, people from an "individualistic" culture are expected to act according to their self-interest while people from "collectivist" cultures will act in accordance with the interests of their in-group. "Individualism versus collectivism" is hypothesised to influence how people act in organisations. Hofstede hypothesises that this dimension will influence people's perception of the company (the organisation can be viewed as a family or a professional involvement), promotion (competence versus seniority), and the focus on policies and tasks as opposed to relationships (universalism or particularism).

⁵⁵Hofstede uses "institutions" to refer to the basic elements of society such as family, school, and community.

“Masculinity” is defined as a value that “pertains to societies in which gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e., men are supposed to be assertive, tough and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life), while *“femininity”* is defined as a value that “pertains to societies in which social gender roles overlap (i.e., both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life). Thus, in masculine societies people are socialised towards assertiveness, ambition and competition, which leads to organisations stressing results and rewarding people according to their performance, while in feminine societies (where modesty and solidarity are emphasised), people in organisations are rewarded according to need. ”Masculinity versus femininity” is consequently argued by Hofstede to influence individual’s values regarding competition, careers and recognition, and this has an impact on both motivation and the meaning of work.

The long-term orientation of *“Confucian dynamism”* is seen by Hofstede as influencing entrepreneurial activity in society, while the short-term orientation discourages initiative, risk-taking and flexibility. The short-term orientation suggests an emphasis on “keeping face”, “reciprocity” and “tradition.” This can, according to Hofstede, be compared to a sensitivity to social trends in consumption and “keeping up with the Joneses” in Western countries with a short-term orientation. The ”Confucian dynamism” with its long-term versus short-term orientation is, according to Hofstede, expected to encourage versus discourage entrepreneurial activity and initiative, as well as perseverance towards slow results as opposed to quick results. This reasoning can, of course, be strongly debated. First, the logic for Hofstede’s use of long term versus short term orientation when discussing Bond’s Confucian Dynamism is not convincing. In addition, the hypothesised implications on management and organisation can also be questioned. However, it is of interest to examine whether a construct based on values derived in the Chinese context is in any way related to employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership.

“Organisations” are to Hofstede places where people work.

Table 7.4: Hofstede's Four Dimensions of Work-Related Values plus the Fifth Dimension from Bond's study

DIMENSIONS (range of variation)	ITEMS used to operationalise the dimensions (sign of factor loading)	hypothesised IMPLICATIONS for management and organisational behaviour
POWER DISTANCE (PD) (from small to large)	a) how frequently employees are afraid to disagree with their managers (+) b) subordinates' perception of their boss decision-making as autocratic or paternalistic (+) c) subordinates preferences regarding their boss decision-making (+)	- hierarchy (flat or tall pyramids) - degree of centralisation - degree of dependence relationship between subordinate and superior
UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE (UA) (from low to high)	a) agreement with that company rules should not be broken if it is for the company good (+) b) intention to stay for two to five years with company (-) c) how often employees feel nervous or tense at work (+)	- degree of structuring of activities - the amount of written rules - managers involvement in details - emphasis on people vs. task
INDIVIDUALISM versus COLLECTIVISM (IDV) (low Individualism is defined as Collectivism)	importance for ideal job: 1) leaves sufficient time for personal or family life (+) 2) freedom to adopt own approach to the job (+) 3) challenging work which gives sense of personal achievement (+) 4) full use of skills and abilities (-) 5) good physical working conditions (-) 6) training opportunities (-)	people's perception of: - the company (like a family or professional involvement) - promotion (competence or seniority) - a focus on policies and tasks as opposed to relationships (universalism or particularism)
MASCULINITY versus FEMININITY (MAS) (low Masculinity is defined as Femininity)	important for the ideal job: 1) good working relationship with the manager (+) 2) work with people that co-operate well (+) 3) live in an desirable area (+) 4) security to continue to work for the company (+) 5) challenging work to do (-) 6) advancement options (-) 7) get recognition when done a good job (-) 8) high wages options(-)	people's perceptions of: - sex roles and division of work - managers use intuition and strive for consensus versus being assertive and decisive - meaning of work (work to live or live to work) - what is important (quality of life, people and environment vs. money, things and performance)
CONFUCIAN DYNAMISM (CD) Bond & Hofstede (short-term versus long-term orientation)	long-term orientation 1) persistence (perseverance) 2) ordering relationship by status and observing this order 3) thrift 4) having a sense of shame short term orientation 5) personal steadiness and stability 6) protecting your "face" 7) respect for tradition 8) reciprocity of greetings, favours and gifts	- entrepreneurial activity, initiative and risk-taking discouraged versus encouraged - quick results expected versus perseverance towards slow results

In sum, both “power distance” and “individualism versus collectivism” are hypothesised by Hofstede to influence the role of the manager in terms of autocratic versus democratic behaviour and the use of MBO practices. “Uncertainty avoidance” is argued to influence the need for rules and detailed supervision, while “masculinity versus femininity” should influence values regarding recognition, rewards and motivation. “Confucian dynamism” is hypothesised

by Hofstede to influence the speed of results, and the degree of initiative and entrepreneurial activity.

Laurent's four dimensions of conceptions of management

Every manager is guided by his own management theory, according to Laurent (1983). He argues that each manager's theories are based on implicit beliefs that significantly influence managers' perception of what "proper management" should be. In order to map these beliefs, Laurent constructed a 56-item instrument where the respondents could agree/disagree with statements on a five-point scale. The questionnaire was administered between 1977 and 1979 to groups of upper-middle-level managers who participated in executive development programmes at INSEAD in France. The 817 respondents came from a variety of companies in ten Western countries. An ecological factor analysis⁵⁶ was performed on the data, which resulted in four factors.

Laurent analysed the four factors and decided that the following labels capture what each factor or dimension measures: "organisations as political systems", "organisations as authority systems", "organisations as role-formalisation systems" and "organisations as hierarchical systems". A brief description of his definition of the four factors and their hypothesised influence on management follows below (see Table 7.5).

"Organisations as political systems" deals with whether managers view organisations in terms of power games and political arenas rather than organisations where activities are carried out in accordance with organisational structures. This dimension is expected to influence the view of work both inside and outside the organisation. The dimension *"organisations as authority systems"* is intended to measure if the manager's authority is viewed as personal or instrumental. The perception of authority as personal is a more social concept of authority regulating relationships among individuals in the organisation. Consequently, authority is in this case, according to Laurent, a property of the individual. Instrumental leadership, on the other hand, is seen as a more rational view that regulates the interaction among tasks and functions, and authority is seen as an attribute of a role or function. Thus, "organisations as authority systems" is seen by Laurent as influencing how authority is viewed.

⁵⁶ Laurent refers to Hofstede (1980) on the use of ecological factor analysis, which means that the group, in this case the country, is used as a unit of analysis. Correlations are, consequently, not done with individual scores, but with country scores. One problem which is not raised by Laurent is that the country mean is influenced by outliers, i.e. extreme observations, and this can lead to correlations or non-correlations across countries that are not supported by the individual data.

“Organisations as role-formalisation systems” focuses on the importance of defining and specifying functions and roles by implementing job descriptions and well-defined functions and tasks. The dimension “organisations as role-formalisation systems”, according to Laurent, influences the need for formalised task and role descriptions. Finally, the dimension **“organisations as hierarchical-relationship systems”** affects the structure of the organisation in such a way that countries which place an emphasis on organisations as hierarchical-relationship systems view new organisational forms such as the matrix structure as a source of confusion and problems. In particular, it entails new roles for both the managers and the subordinates who are used to having one manager to report to and seek advice from whenever deemed necessary. Thus, organisations as hierarchical-relational systems is expected by Laurent to primarily influence the shape of organisational structures and the roles for people working within them.

Table 7.5: Laurent's Four Dimensions of Work-related Beliefs

DIMENSIONS (range of variation)	ITEMS used to operationalise the dimensions (agreement (+) and disagreement (-))	hypothesised IMPLICATIONS for view on management and organisations
Organisations as POLITICAL SYSTEMS (low to high political orientation)	a) manager play an important political role in society (+) b) managers are more motivated by obtaining power than achieving objectives (+) c) manager have a clear notion of organisational structure (-)	- highly politically oriented managers perceive organisations as grounds for power games and a part of the political system, - low political orientation managers view organisations as structures which operate accordingly
Organisations as AUTHORITY SYSTEMS (low to high authority orientation)	a) the reason for hierarchical structure is to know who has authority over whom (+) b) today there is an authority crisis in organisations (+) c) the manager of tomorrow will be a negotiator (+)	- highly authority oriented managers a social (personal) concept of authority, it is a property of the individual - low authority oriented managers will have an instrumental view on authority, it is an attribute of a function or a role
Organisations as ROLE-FORMALISATION SYSTEMS (low to high role formalisation orientation)	a) when work roles are complex detailed job descriptions clarify (+) b) if departments' activities are complex it is important that individual functions are well-defined (+) c) managers would achieve better results if their roles were less precisely defined (-)	- a high role formalisation orientation indicates the importance of defining and specifying functions and roles, and that this together with detailed job descriptions is seen as ensuring efficiency
Organisations as HIERARCHICAL-RELATIONSHIP SYSTEMS (low to high orientation)	a) organisations would be better off if conflict could be eliminated (+) b) it is important for a manager to have at hand precise answers for their subordinates (+) c) it is necessary to bypass hierarchical limes for efficient work relationships (-) d) an organisational structure where subordinates have two direct bosses should be avoided (+)	- a low hierarchical relationship orientation indicates the degree of openness to new organisational forms such as the matrix, and to changing roles for the manager from being a central figure who knows it all to somebody who is a part, has a function, in the organisation

In sum, the view of “organisations as authority systems” is, according to Laurent, expected to influence the role of authority, while “organisations as political systems” is

hypothesised to influence the view of work. “Organisations as role-formalisation systems” and “organisations as hierarchical systems” are expected to influence the need for clear structures, work roles and policies, and the attitudes towards hierarchical structures.

DISCUSSION

Five frameworks presenting a total of 25 cultural dimensions have been introduced above, together with the hypothesised relationship between the cultural dimensions and management as well as organisation. Hypotheses have been formulated by the researchers who measured cultural dimensions included in four of the five frameworks. In the discussion below, three issues will be approached. The first issue to reflect upon is whether these cultural dimensions can be seen as measuring “*general beliefs and values*” as is argued by the researchers who have measured them. The second issue to be approached is whether all the cultural dimensions measure values and beliefs about *different* elements of culture or if some of them can be grouped together. Finally, the third issue is how these cultural dimensions could be related, if at all, to the elements of interpersonal leadership derived in the preceding chapter.

Do the Cultural Dimensions Measure General Values and Beliefs?

A closer look at tables 7.1 to 7.5 reveals a large variation in the choice of items used to operationalise the cultural dimensions. A brief, albeit important, review of the items will be presented in this chapter⁵⁷. The purpose of the review is to examine if the cultural dimensions are operationalised by questions about values and beliefs.

⁵⁷ For a more thorough review of the items used by Hofstede to operationalise his dimensions see Janson (1992), and for a review of the items used by Laurent in his study of managerial beliefs see Janson (1993). The purpose of these two mentioned reviews was to assess the validity of the constructs by examining the content of the items used to operationalise the scales. The items were not discussed from the perspective of whether they measured beliefs, values or something else but whether the content of the question was related to the definition of the cultural dimension.

Table 7.6: How the cultural dimensions presented in table 7.1 to 7.5 are operationalised.

Framework: <i>Cultural Dimension</i>	<i>Items measuring values and beliefs</i>	<i>Items measuring beliefs in the context of organisations</i>	<i>Other types of items</i>
MAZNEVSKI: Relation to Nature: Subjugation Harmony Mastery Basic Human Nature: Good vs. Evil Changeable vs. unchangeable Activity: Being Thinking Doing Relationships Hierarchical Collective Individual	7 items in line with the definition of the cultural dimension 5 items (see above) 4 items (see above) 1 item (see above) 5 item (see above) 5 items (see above) 5 items (see above) 8 items (see above) 4 items (see above) 6 items (see above)	2 items: 1 item in line with definition 2 items: in line with the definition 3 items: (see above) 1 item: in line with the definition 1 item: (see above) 7 items: (see above) 4 items: but <i>not</i> in line with the definition for "collectivism" 1 item: in line with definition	1 item: phrased as "the manager should..." 1 item: phrased as "the manager should..." 2 items phrased as "you should", and "you should not..." 2 items phrased as "should" 1 item phrased as "one should"
TROMPENAARS Universalism vs. Particularism Collectivism vs. Individualism Diffuse vs. Specific Achievement vs. Ascription Relation to Nature (internally vs. externally controlled)	1 scenario: in line with definition 1 scenario: in line with the cultural definition of "individualism" but <i>not</i> for "collectivism" 1 scenario: in line with the definition of the cultural dimension 1 statement: (see above) A choice of two statements: (see above)		
SCHWARTZ Conservatism Intellectual Autonomy Affective Autonomy Hierarchy Mastery Egalitarian commitment Harmony	14 values in line with definition 3 values (See above) 4 values (see above) 4 values (see above) 6 values (see above) 9 values (see above) 3 values (see above)		
HOFSTEDE power distance uncertainty avoidance individualism vs. collectivism masculinity versus femininity BOND & HOFSTEDE Confucian Dynamism	8 values: in line with definition	1 item: in line with definition 6 items: in line with the definition of "individualism" but <i>not</i> for "collectivism" 8 items: in line with definition	2 items on perceived behaviour and 1 item on preferred behaviour 1 item on perceived emotions and 1 item on intended behaviour
LAURENT political systems authority systems role-formalisation systems hierarchical relationship		2 items in line with the definition, 1 item unclear 2 items in line with the definition, 1 item unclear 3 items: in line with definition 2 items: in line with definition, 1 item related, 1 item unclear	

A few observations can be made regarding the items used to operationalise the cultural dimensions presented earlier in this chapter. Some of the items are phrased to measure values and beliefs in general, while others are formulated to measure beliefs in the context of organisations (see the first and second column of table 7.6). There are also some items that measure neither values nor beliefs, but are normative or behavioural in character (see the third column in table 7.6). However, most of the items used to measure the cultural dimensions are in line with the definition of the cultural dimensions. The number of exceptions is indicated in table 7.6. above. It is apparent in table 7.6 that most of the items used to operationalise the cultural dimensions included in the three theoretically derived frameworks are phrased as values and beliefs in general. The empirically derived frameworks, however, collected data on beliefs and behaviour within the context of organisations.

Regarding the *theoretically derived frameworks* the following observations can be made. Trompenaars used scenarios and statements describing *beliefs in general* in line with the definition of the cultural dimension. To be observed here is that only one scenario or statement is presented in table 7.2, since Trompenaars has not published all the scenarios and statements used to calculate the scales nor has he published aggregated country scores for the scales. Thus, only the scenarios and statements that Trompenaars has emphasised as typical for each cultural dimension are presented in table 7.2. This absence of the aggregated country scales and the corresponding country scores have resulted in doubts about the validity of the scales expressed in particular by Hofstede (1996). However, the scenarios and statements, although they do not constitute multi-item reliable constructs, correspond to the definitions of the cultural dimensions and will, in this dissertation be used as independent variables in the analysis in the next chapter.

Maznevski, as mentioned earlier, developed new items based on the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's original definition of the cultural dimensions. Most of the newly formulated items were phrased as *beliefs in general*, while a limited number of the items were *within the context of a work organisation*, and a few were phrased as *normative statements*, for example, "one should..." do this or do that. For all but three cultural dimensions the majority of items used by Maznevski measured values and beliefs in general, and it is deemed that these would have a major influence on the country scores. For two orientations "human nature: good versus evil", and "relationships: hierarchical", the majority of the items reside within the context of organisations (for the latter orientation mentioned, all the items used were phrased in this manner). For the "collective" orientation there is an even split between the general and

the company specific beliefs as can be seen in table 7.6. It is somewhat unfortunate that the original intention to measure hierarchy in society was lost when Maznevski chose to rephrase all the items operationalising hierarchy in the context of the organisation. It would have been of particular interest to examine if beliefs about hierarchy regarding society has any relationship with people's expectations and behaviour in organisations.

Schwartz did not have a theoretical framework of cultural dimensions that was operationalised, but a theory about values. He used the theory when designing his study and analysing the collected data. Schwartz' cultural dimensions are based on people's *values as guiding principles in life*. The values are seen as corresponding to the labels of the cultural dimensions.

Some observations can also be made regarding the *empirically derived frameworks*. Hofstede analysed data collected by a questionnaire originally designed by IBM for internal purposes. Hence, the questionnaire included questions on *beliefs in the context of the organisation* (employees' perception of an ideal job) as well as on *behaviour* of interest for IBM. However, in the analytical work where Hofstede collaborated with Bond, the data used was collected with the help of the Chinese value survey which was constructed by Bond et al to tap non-western values.

As mentioned earlier Hofstede work is seminal and a very important contribution to the field of cross-cultural management. However, it is also the source of confusion both for researchers within and outside the field alike. Simply phrased, the misconception and source of confusion are caused by his assumption that *any attitudes or behaviour* within the work organisation across countries are seen as "cultural dimensions". The problem with this misconception is that perhaps not all differences in attitudes or behaviour across countries are for example related to cultural values or beliefs. Instead, they can be related to other factors, for example differences in education systems or in countries' industrial structures. If these particular factors are kept constant, there are still numerous factors apart from culture which are plausible explanations for the variation in attitudes and behaviours in an organisational context across countries.

The problem is that *a difference in attitudes or behaviour as such* is seen as a "cultural dimension". Hofstede argues that the items he has used can be seen as expressions of the latent cultural values and beliefs. The latent cultural values and beliefs are those that he has formulated in the definition of each cultural dimension. He has also gone to great lengths to corroborate his cultural dimensions both through rank correlation analysis with earlier

studies and by anchoring the definitions of his four dimensions in earlier research on cultural dimensions. To some extent the items can be viewed as expressions of a latent, perhaps unmeasurable cultural dimension, but the problem arises when behaviour is hypothesised to be influenced by cultural dimensions which are measured by items on the very same behaviour. Thus, Hofstede argues that the measurement of employees' perceptions and preferences for managers' decision-making methods are expressions of power distance. Power distance will, according to Hofstede, then influence employees' expectations regarding manager's decision-making styles. The hypothesis will most probably be confirmed since the independent and dependent variable are measured by the same items, but the question is whether this circular reasoning can be taken as "evidence" that culture has had an impact on management and organisation.

As a comparison, Maznevski's operationalisation of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's cultural dimension "subjugation to nature" can be mentioned. She has used items such as "most things are determined by forces that we cannot control", "whatever is going to happen will happen, no matter what actions people take", together with other items to measure value and beliefs in general (see table 7.1). Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski have hypothesised how differences in "subjugation to nature orientation" across countries will influence issues such as attitudes towards goal-setting, planning and budgeting in organisations. Thus, the independent variable "subjugation to nature" is operationalised by items measuring values and beliefs, and the dependent variable can be operationalised by people's attitudes or behaviour regarding budgeting or planning. A statistical analysis can be conducted to explore the relationship between these two variables, and the circularity in reasoning described above is avoided. Thus, the initiative by Maznevski to measure the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck cultural dimensions by items operationalising general values and beliefs is a long awaited contribution to the field of cross-cultural and comparative management. The importance of her work will further increase as more countries are added to her database.

As seen in table 7.6, Hofstede has used beliefs in the context of organisations for measuring two of his dimensions, and a mixture of items types for measuring a third dimension while behavioural items are in particular used for operationalising power distance. Hofstede divided one factor that emerged from the factor analysis into two factors: "power distance" and "individualism versus collectivism" on theoretical grounds. However, the inclusion of both belief items and behavioural items in the same original factor could be interpreted as items measuring beliefs being related to those that measure managerial

behaviour. In other words, beliefs about work goals could perhaps be seen as representing a “cultural dimension”, and this dimension has an impact on attitudes and behaviour regarding decision-making styles.

Schwartz’ three dimensions: conservatism, intellectual and affective autonomy, which he argues capture the original definition of individualism versus collectivism, correlate positively with Hofstede’s individualism versus collectivism and negatively with power distance. Schwartz’ hierarchy dimension, however, does not correlate with power distance. Schwartz suggests this could reflect that his dimension measures hierarchy in society while Hofstede’s power distance measures hierarchy in boss-employee relationships. It is also possible that power distance does not measure values and beliefs about hierarchy since it measures behaviour in organisations, and it is possible that this behaviour is related to individualism and collectivism rather than to values about hierarchy. Consequently, based on the type of items used by Hofstede to measure the dimension, power distance is *not* seen as a cultural dimension based on values and beliefs and will *not* be used in the analysis in this dissertation.

Laurent included items phrased as *beliefs in the context of the organisation* in his questionnaire with the intention of capturing manager’s beliefs about organisations as systems. Overall, the definition of the four “belief systems” suggested by Laurent seems to characterise the items that factored together with a few exceptions as mentioned in table 7.6 above. For example, it is possible to query how an agreement with the item “the manager of tomorrow will be a negotiator” indicates a preference for an authority system that is defined as authority based on the person and not the position that the person holds⁵⁸. However, the items which correspond with the definition are in majority for each cultural dimension and consequently, all four cultural dimensions will be used in this dissertation for analysis.

In sum, most of the items used to measure the cultural dimensions presented in this chapter involve values and beliefs in general and they can be seen as operationalising the dimensions as they are defined. Some of the items are beliefs in the context of the work organisation, and a few are normative statements or behavioural questions, but these are in minority and are deemed to have limited influence on the country scores. It was decided that Hofstede’s operationalisation of power distance by using behavioural items should not be included among the cultural dimensions used as independent variables in this dissertation.

⁵⁸ See Janson (1993) for further discussion.

Do the Cultural Dimensions Capture Different Elements of Culture?

The next issue to approach in the discussion is whether all the cultural dimensions measure different elements of culture or if it is possible to group some of the dimensions. An immediate observation is that four of the five frameworks include cultural dimensions attempting to measure *individualism versus collectivism*. The concept of individualism versus collectivism has received attention in the form of both empirical and conceptual work, articles, edited volumes, and specially designated conferences. This interest has increased in the last two decades, although the concepts have been in focus since the 1940s (perhaps even earlier). Consequently, it is not surprising that individualism versus collectivism was included in four of the five cultural frameworks as mentioned above. Sjögren (1992) writes that the basic unit of human society is either the individual or the social unit, for example the family. The concept of “*basic unit in society*” will be borrowed from Sjögren, although the concept of collectivism is not exactly comparable to the “familism” or “groupism” that Sjögren discusses⁵⁹. Maznevski has measured individualism and collectivism as two separate orientations. Both Trompenaars and Hofstede have measured individualism and collectivism as two end-points of a dimension. Schwartz has worked with refining the concepts and has used three dimensions to measure what he refers to as the original meaning of the concepts. He measures individuals’ autonomy or embeddedness in groups, which is in line with the definition given by Sjögren briefly mentioned above. Schwartz measures autonomy with two dimensions: affective autonomy and intellectual autonomy, and embeddedness in groups is measured by “conservatism”. One observation from the study of the items used to measure “collectivism” in the four frameworks is that *no item* measures the definition of individuals’ embeddedness in groups or if groups are seen as the basic unit in society. Four of Maznevski’s items deal with work teams in the context of the organisation, which is a very different concept from collectivism. Hofstede uses items such as “having training opportunities”, “have good physical working conditions” and “fully use skills and abilities on the job”. It is difficult to understand why these items should be characteristic for group-oriented or collectivistic societies. Trompenaars has used a statement pertaining to the altruistic notion of taking care of “fellow human beings”, which is quite different from caring for your own group. The choice of items, or in the case of Hofstede the interpretation of

⁵⁹ Sjögren and Zander are currently working on a research project attempting to further develop and refine the concepts of individualism, “familism” or “groupism”, and collectivism.

items, could imply that it is very difficult for people from individualistically oriented societies to understand the collectivistic orientation and formulate items to measure it. Schwartz, however, captured some of the values characterising group-oriented societies with his “conservatism” dimension. Trompenaars’ and Hofstede’s dimensions will, consequently, in the remainder of the analysis be regarded as measuring the degree of individualism from low to high instead of using their definition of low individualism as collectivism. In general, the seven dimensions measuring individualism (and collectivism) capture beliefs about the *basic unit of society*.

Some of the cultural dimensions seem to capture different aspects of the same elements of culture. In earlier anthropological research, and also included in the list by Murdock presented at the beginning of this chapter, beliefs about status differentiation, which involves “*status allocation*” as something that exists in all cultures. A number of cultural dimensions approach the topic of status allocation from different perspectives. Two dimensions that seem to address status allocation in terms of hierarchical differentiation are Maznevski’s hierarchical orientation of relationships and Schwartz’ hierarchy. Trompenaars’ achievement versus ascription dimensions measures beliefs on how status should be accorded. Laurent’s authority systems dimension differentiates between authority and status believed to be related to a person or to the position the person holds. Consequently, these four cultural dimensions capture different beliefs about *status allocation*.

Another topic on Murdock’s list is “community organising”, also referred to as “social organising” by Benedict (1934) and other anthropologists. Both types of organising involves beliefs about how societies should be organised and structured, and the necessary degrees of formalisation, such as rules and restrictions. In other words the “*organising principles*” that are the basis for the organisation of a community or society. Laurent has identified hierarchical relationship systems and role formalisation as two sets of organising principles. Trompenaars’ measurement of universalistic versus particularistic values captures people’s beliefs about whether or not rules should be followed, while Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance measures people’s need for rules because they feel threatened by unknown and uncertain situations. Trompenaars’ diffuse versus specific dimension attempts to measure values underlying organising principles in terms of the dividing line between work and private life. Thus, these five cultural dimensions capture different beliefs about *organising principles*.

Another topic is “*codes of conduct*”. Benedict (1934) discusses how personal initiative, self-reliance and achievement are valued codes of conduct among the Crow Indians in the United States, while co-operation, avoiding standing out, allowing somebody else to win instead of repeating success, are a few of the valued codes of conduct among the Zuni Indians in the United States. Maznevski has measured activity in the form of being, thinking and doing based on the anthropological work carried out by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck. Schwartz’ mastery dimension and Hofstede’s masculinity dimension include values very similar to the values of the Crow Indians mentioned above. Values such as quality of life and concern for people characterise the femininity pole of Hofstede’s masculinity dimension and these values are mirrored in Schwartz’ egalitarian commitment dimension. Laurent’ political systems dimensions suggest that political activity within and outside the organisation is valued more in some countries than in others. Finally, all but one item operationalising the Confucian Dynamism dimension also represent codes of conduct. These seven cultural dimensions capture different beliefs about *codes of conduct*.

People’s “*relation to nature*” is included in the frameworks that were measured by Maznevski and Trompenaars. Maznevski has measured subjugation to nature, harmony with nature, and mastery over nature as three separate orientations. Trompenaars has measured what he refers to as inner-direction which is comparable to mastery over nature, and outer-direction which is comparable to subjugation to nature. In addition, the values used by Schwartz to operationalise the harmony dimension are in line with the definition of harmony with nature. Consequently, these five dimensions measure beliefs about human’s relation to nature. Another fundamental cultural dimension that according to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck exist in all societies in beliefs about “*human nature*”. Maznevski has measured if human nature is believed to be good or evil and if it is changeable from good to evil and vice versa. This dimensions will be discussed together with beliefs about relation to nature and these cultural dimensions will be referred to as beliefs about *relation to nature and human nature*.

In sum, the cultural dimensions in the five frameworks presented in this chapter cover beliefs about “status allocation”, “codes of conduct”, “organising principles”, “relation to nature and human nature”, and “the basic unit in society” from different perspectives. It is emphasised that the above mentioned groups include cultural dimensions that *measure different aspects* of one cultural element, such as status allocation. The important question to raise in the context of this dissertation is whether these groupings of cultural dimensions, or

elements of culture, are of interest when discussing predictions of the relationship between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership.

The Predicted Relationships between Cultural Dimensions and Interpersonal Leadership

At the beginning of this chapter, a view of culture as a core of values and beliefs with interacting layers of various issues including attitudes, expectations and behaviour was presented. It was emphasised that the interaction between the core of cultural values and beliefs and the surrounding layers could be recursive over time. However, when exploring the issue of culture's stability there seemed to be support for the notion that values and beliefs related to people's attitudes and behaviour change slowly over time. The view of researchers who have measured cultural dimensions is reflected in their choice of terminology when they discuss what they refer to as "influence", "impact" or "consequences" of cultural values and beliefs on management and organisation. They assume a causality between cultural values and beliefs and people's attitudes and behaviour. It is possible that in the short run cultural values and beliefs in the core will influence the layers of attitudes and behaviour, and that the recursiveness of influence between the core and the layers occurs over longer time spans. However, the purpose of the analysis in this dissertation is to attempt to establish if there is a *relationship*, not to establish if there is any direction in causality between the cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. However, for simplicity in the discussion of the predictions, the relationship will be discussed using a similar terminology as that of the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions. *The predictions will be based on the **hypothesised relationship** between the cultural dimensions and management and organisation discussed by the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions.* At the onset the following predictions are plausible:

- employees' preferences regarding *empowering* are related to beliefs about status allocation.
- employees' preferences regarding *coaching* are related to beliefs about codes of conduct.
- employees' preferences regarding *directing* (supervising and review) are related to beliefs about organising principles and beliefs about relation to nature and human nature.

- no predictions are made for employees' preferences regarding *communicating* (communication, personal, and proud). Predictions will not be made for these three items⁶⁰ since they could be influenced by all groups of items in different combinations, consequently these items are indicated with “?” in Table 7.7 below.
- no predictions will involve the cultural dimensions measuring beliefs about *the basic unit in society*. There is a variety in the hypothesised relationships between individualism versus collectivism and management and organisation suggested by the researchers who have measured these dimension. Thus, it is decided not to make any predictions about a relationship between individualism and collectivism and interpersonal leadership and these items are also indicated with “?” in Table 7.7 below.

The general predictions for empowering, coaching and directing need to be adjusted for the fact that 1) the cultural dimensions cover different aspects of each element of culture, and thus it is not obvious that *all* cultural dimensions included in e.g., “status allocation” will be related to “empowering”, and 2) many cultural dimensions have been hypothesised to influence more than one managerial issue, thus it is possible that e.g., uncertainty avoidance will have an influence on *both* “empowering” and “directing”. The adjusted predictions are discussed below and presented in Table 7.7, where a predicted negative relationship is symbolised with “-“ , a positive relationship with “+”, “.” is used to denote when no relationship between the cultural dimension and the interpersonal leadership construct or item is hypothesised, and “?” is used when no prediction has been made.

Empowering

Employees' preferences for the interpersonal leadership construct empowering are expected at the onset to be related to beliefs about status allocation. This general prediction will be specified as follows (see table 7.7). In cultures where there is a belief in hierarchical allocation, employees are predicted to have a low preference for empowering (**-Schwartz' hierarchy, and -Maznevski's hierarchical**). If authority is perceived as a social property

⁶⁰ The first item measures the frequency of communication in general, the second measures the frequency of communicating about personal matters and the third measures how often the manager should make the employees proud of their work.

that is present both inside and outside organisations, employees are not expected to have a high preference for empowering (**-authority systems**) However, if promotion and status are accorded by achievement, employees are expected to have a higher preference for empowering than if promotions are based on ascription (**+achievement**).

In addition, differences in preferences for empowering across countries are expected to be related to beliefs about uncertainty avoidance. According to Hofstede, if there is high uncertainty avoidance and employees have a need for formalised structures and rules, they probably have less preference for empowering where they are expected to take initiatives, share in decision-making and have responsibility delegated to them. (**-uncertainty avoidance**).

Coaching

Differences in coaching across countries are hypothesised to be related to differences in people's beliefs about codes of conduct. This general prediction will be specified as follows (see table 7.7): Employees who have a high preference for coaching are expected to be espousing values related to a doing-orientation (**+doing**). Masculine and mastery values such as assertiveness, ambition and competition are most probably *not* related to people's preferences for coaching (which involves teamwork and co-operation). On the other hand, coaching is also characterised by performance and outcome in such a way that is not compatible with femininity and egalitarian commitment, and consequently, no relationship between coaching and the above mentioned values is expected. However, given what coaching involves, the preference for coaching is hypothesised to correlate negatively with political orientation, since it is probably not compatible with seeing the organisation as a political arena for power games (**-political systems**). Employees' preferences for coaching could be related to Confucian Dynamism but it is not possible to formulate a prediction based on the hypothesis discussed by Bond and Hofstede (**?Confucian Dynamism**).

Furthermore, coaching is hypothesised to be negatively related to uncertainty avoidance since coaching could involve an insecure and ambiguous situation that people with a high uncertainty avoidance orientation would wish to limit (**-uncertainty avoidance**).

Directing

Directing is operationalised by frequency of detailed supervision and frequency of review including comparison with job objectives and expectations. Both items have been predicted to be related to beliefs about organising principles and beliefs about relation to nature and human nature. The latter mentioned group of cultural dimensions is included in the general predictions due to Trompenaars' use of Rotter's interpretation of relation to nature as inner versus outer-direction. In other words, a belief in mastery over nature is seen as related to an inner-direction, that could reduce the need for direction from the manager, while subjugation to nature beliefs are seen as related to outer-direction that could suggest a need for direction. In the discussion below both items will be referred to as "directing" if they are expected to be influenced in a similar way, otherwise they will be mentioned separately. The general prediction will be specified as follows (see table 7.7).

First, if employees have high uncertainty avoidance they prefer more directing both in frequency and extent (**+uncertainty avoidance**). It is also expected that employees would prefer more directing in a surrounding characterised by strict organisational structures, formalisation of roles, job descriptions and rules to make sure that they are not crossing any hierarchical lines or carrying out someone else's tasks (**+hierarchical relationship, +role-formalisation**). It is possible that employees working in countries characterised by a particularistic orientation would have a preference for more frequent supervision to receive some feedback and further directions. As Trompenaars expresses, it many employees would like to "create private understandings" with their manager since rules or pre-determined policies and plans could have been changed due to particularistic reasons (**-universalism**). In addition, there would be a large preference for frequent directing in countries with a diffuse orientation, based on Trompenaars' arguments that instructions are vague and management is process-oriented in diffuse oriented countries (**-specific**).

The directing items are also expected to vary across countries depending on people's belief about relation to nature and human nature. Trompenaars argues that inner-direction is connected with an internal locus of control which is prevalent in people who hold mastery over nature values. Thus, the preference for directing is hypothesised to be negatively related to mastery and to inner-direction (**-Maznevski's mastery, -inner-direction**). the preference regarding directing is expected to be influenced by a belief in human nature as "evil" or a "theory X" type of nature, where directing is seen as not only necessary, but also preferred by

people (-good). Finally, in ascriptive-oriented cultures where the manager is expected to have all the answers according to Trompenaars, employees are expected to prefer frequent supervision (+**ascriptio**n).

Concluding Comments on the Predictions

In this chapter, 25 cultural dimensions from five frameworks have been presented and discussed. The researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions have discussed the “influence”, “impact” and “consequences” of these cultural dimensions for management and organisation. These hypotheses have been formulated into predicted relationships between cultural dimensions and interpersonal leadership (see table 7.7). A total of 29 predictions have been made. However, it should be mentioned that of the 29 predictions there are de facto 26 predicted relationships, since three are predictions are that there will not be a relationship. In the next chapter, the results from the rank correlation analysis between the cultural dimensions and employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership will be presented and discussed in relation to the 26 predictions that have been formulated in the current chapter.

Table 7.7: Hypothesised relationship¹ between the cultural (independent variables) and interpersonal leadership (dependent variables)

<i>DEPENDENT VARIABLES</i>	<i>empowering</i>	<i>coaching</i>	<i>directing</i>		<i>communicating</i>		
			<i>supervise</i>	<i>review</i>	<i>communi- -cation</i>	<i>personal</i>	<i>proud</i>
<i>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</i>							
status allocation relationships: hierarchical (Maznevski) hierarchy (Schwartz) authority systems (Laurent) achievement / ascription (Trompenaars)	- hier - hier - aut + ach	.	.	.	?	?	?
codes of conduct masculinity /femininity (Hofstede) mastery (Schwartz) egalitarian commitment (Schwartz) activity: doing, being, thinking (Maznevski) political systems (Laurent) Confucian dynamism (Bond/ Hofstede)	?	?	?
organising principles uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede) role-formalisation systems (Laurent) hierarchical-relationship system (Laurent) universalism /particularism (Trompenaars) specific/diffuse (Trompenaars)	- ua . . .	- ua . . .	+ ua + rof + hir - univ - spec	+ ua + rof + hir - univ - spec	? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ?
relation to nature and human nature relation to nature: subjugation, mastery, harmony (Maznevski) relation to nature: inner vs. outer-direction (Trompenaars) harmony (Schwartz) basic human nature: good/evil, changeable (Maznevski)	.	.	- mast - indir . - good	- mast - indir . - good	? ? ? ?	? ? ? ?	? ? ? ?
basic unit in society conservatism (Schwartz) affective autonomy (Schwartz) intellectual autonomy (Schwartz) relationships: group, individual (Maznevski) collectivism /individualism (Trompenaars) individualism /collectivism (Hofstede)	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?	? ? ? ? ? ?

¹Hypothesised positive correlation is denoted with "+" and a negative correlation with a "-". When no relationship is hypothesised, this is denoted with ".".

CHAPTER 8

ARE PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP RELATED TO NATIONAL CULTURE?

In this chapter, the second objective in this dissertation is approached. The question is whether there is a relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and dimensions of national culture. Results from rank correlation analysis conducted with both the main and the hold-out sample will be presented. The hold-out sample is analysed with the aim of examining if the significant correlations¹ from the main analyses are replicated in a sample with employees working for other companies than the one included in the main analysis. The correlations that are significantly replicated in the hold-out sample are used to draw conclusions about the relationship between differences in employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership across the countries in this study and national culture in these countries. Thus, the discussion of the relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions in this chapter will focus on 15 significant correlations together with some tentative relationships that are identified between cultural dimensions and interpersonal leadership (IPL) in both samples. The deviations from the predictions made in the preceding chapter will also receive some attention before concluding comments are presented.

ARE PREFERENCES FOR INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP RELATED TO NATIONAL CULTURE?

The simple answer to the question posed in the second objective of this dissertation is that *national culture is related to employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership*. This answer raises the complicated question of how national culture is related to interpersonal

¹ That a relationship is significant is seen as a measure of the strength of the relationship *together with the size of the correlation coefficient*, since the significance of the correlation coefficients is related to the sample size. Consequently, correlations that are strong in both samples, but not significant in both samples will also be included in the discussion.

leadership. To cast some light on this question is another focus of the chapter, but first of the results from the correlation analysis and a comparison of the results from the analysis of the main sample and the hold-out sample will be presented. It is important to stress that it is the relationships with strong correlation coefficients that are in focus of the discussion in this chapter. The significance of the relationships is seen as a measure of the strength together with the size of the correlation coefficients, and it is acknowledged that the significance is dependent on the sample size. Thus, in this chapter relationships with strong correlations, albeit not significant in both samples, will also be included in the discussion.

The Results from the Analysis of the Main Sample

In the *main analysis*, 49 significant correlations² between employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions were identified (see table 8.1 below). The elements of interpersonal leadership are: *empowering*, *coaching*, the two *directing* items (“supervision” and “review”) as well as the three *communicating* items (“communication”, “personal”, and “proud”).

Table 8.1: Number of substantial correlations between elements of interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions¹

sample used in analysis	predicted correlations ²	no predictions made ³	unexpected correlations ⁴	total no. of correlations ⁵
main sample	16	20	13	49
hold-out sample	14	25	16	24 (30) ⁵
correlations found in both the main and the hold-out analysis	9	4 (1)	2 (3)	15 (4)⁵

¹Spearman’s rank correlation analysis was conducted with adjusted mean country scores (see chapter 3 for further discussion).

²there were 26 *predicted correlations* for the relationship between cultural dimensions and the following elements of interpersonal leadership: “empowering”, “coaching”, and the “directing” items, supervising and review.

³*no predictions* were made for the “communicating” items: communication, personal, and proud, nor did any predictions involve the seven cultural dimensions measuring “basic unit in society” (see chapter 7 for a further discussion).

⁴the *unexpected correlations* refer to correlations with the elements of interpersonal leadership for which predictions had been made but other than the predicted correlations occurred.

⁵the number within parenthesis refers to correlations with the cultural dimensions measured by Maznevski. There are only country scores from three countries in the hold-out sample, while there are country scores for five of the countries included in the main sample. In the SPSS analysis there were four correlation coefficients of 1.00 that were indicated as significant at the 1% level. However, according to Gibbons (1993) it is not possible to calculate significance level for Spearman rank correlations with a sample of three. Consequently, these will be referred to as tentative in the discussions in this chapter.

In the preceding chapter, 26 relationships between cultural dimensions and elements of interpersonal leadership were predicted. The results from the rank correlation analysis conducted with the main sample indicated that 16 of these 26 *predicted relationships* were

identified as significant. To be observed is that none of the significant relationships was opposite the predicted direction of the relationship. There were also 20 significant correlations involving cultural dimensions and elements of interpersonal leadership for *which no predictions* had been made, and 13 significant *unexpected correlations* involving elements of interpersonal leadership for which other predictions had been made

The Results from the Analysis of the Hold-out Sample

As mentioned earlier in this dissertation, the short version of the questionnaire was used to collect data in the hold-out sample. This means that the *empowering* construct in the hold-out analysis consists of only two items instead of the earlier five, the *coaching* construct consists of four of the original six items, and the *directing* items are reduced from five items to two items, while the three *communicating* items remain the same as in the main analysis. Furthermore, 13 of the countries included in the main sample overlap with those in the hold-out sample. There are two additional countries in the hold-out sample that were not included in the main analysis. The correlation analysis between preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and the cultural dimensions was carried out with *all the countries* in the hold-out sample, including the additional countries which were not included in the main sample.

There were 24 significant correlations in the correlation analysis with the hold-out sample. In the preceding chapter, 26 *predictions* were made and 14 of these were significant in the analysis of the hold-out sample. To be observed is that none of the significant relationships were opposite the predicted direction of the relationship. There were also 16 *unexpected correlations*, and 25 correlations with cultural dimensions for which *no predictions* had been made (see table 8.1 above). The cultural dimensions included in the 30 above-mentioned correlations have been measured by Maznevski in only three of the countries included in the hold-out sample. In the SPSS analysis the correlation coefficients of 1.00 were indicated as significant at the 1% level. However, according to Gibbons (1993) it is not possible to calculate significance level for Spearman rank correlations with a sample of three. Consequently, there is no indication of the significance level for these dimensions in the tables in this chapter. The relationships are included as tentative indications of a possible relationship in the discussion in this chapter.

²The analysis was conducted using Spearman's rank correlation analysis. One-tailed tests of significance were used for the predicted relationships and two-tailed tests for the cultural dimensions and elements of "interpersonal leadership" where no predictions had been made in the preceding chapter.

Comparing the Results from the Main Analysis and the Hold-out Analysis

In the preceding chapter, it was discussed how the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions hypothesised that these would influence management and organisation. These hypotheses formed the basis for predictions of the relationship between employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership and the cultural dimensions. In general, *empowering* was predicted to be related to beliefs about status allocation, *coaching* was predicted to be related to codes of conduct, and the *directing* items were predicted to be related to beliefs about organising principles as well as to beliefs about relation to nature and human nature. The results of the rank correlation analysis of both the main and the hold-out sample are presented in table 8.2 below. There were 15 significant correlations between elements of interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions from the main analysis that replicated in the hold-out analysis³. Nine of these correlations were predicted in the preceding chapter, and five correlations were unexpected or involved elements of interpersonal leadership for which no predictions had been made (see table 8.1). In addition, there were four tentative relationships.

³ It is to be observed that when correlating 210 pairs of variables in the main analysis there is risk that about 20 significant correlations are randomly generated when correlations at the ten percent significance level are included. The same reasoning is applicable for the hold-out sample. However, the risk of identifying the same significant correlations randomly when using two independent samples is substantially reduced, and could possibly generate 4 significant correlations.

Table 8.2: The relationship¹ between cultural dimensions and interpersonal leadership in the main analysis and the analysis of the hold-out sample

DEPENDENT VARIABLES			empowering		coaching		directing				communicating		proud			
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	n ²	N ³	main	hold-out	main	hold-out	supervise		review		comm.		personal		main	hold-out
	16	15					main	hold-out	main	hold-out	main	hold-out	main	hold-out		
status allocation																
relationships: hierarchical (Maznevski)	5	3	-.70*	-.50	-.80	-.50	.80	-.50	-.90**	-1.00	.30	-1.00	.40	-1.00	.10	-.50
hierarchy (Schwartz)	10	9	.29	-.59**	-.06	-.05	.34	.36	-.05	-.08	.29	-.26	-.20	.25	-.25	-.10
authority systems (Laurent)	9	9	-.78***	-.53*	-.18	.13	.13	.62	-.35	.70*	-.11	.21	-.22	-.14	-.25	.18
achievement / ascription (Trompenaars)	16	14	.45**	.44*	.68***	.40	-.79***	-.58**	-.22	-.45	.37	.41	.10	.17	-.03	-.08
codes of conduct																
masculinity /femininity (Hofstede)	16	13	.14	-.08	-.31	-.46	.58**	.45	.29	.19	-.15	-.27	-.25	-.05	.03	-.11
mastery (Schwartz)	10	9	.40	.72**	-.02	-.13	.47	.14	.33	-.48	.41	.18	.04	.14	.35	-.07
egalitarian commitment (Schwartz)	10	9	-.27	-.61*	-.16	.06	.02	-.07	.11	-.06	-.04	.36	.07	-.34	.29	.06
activity: doing (Maznevski)	5	3	.50	1.00	.50	1.00	-.40	-.50	.30	.50	.50	.50	-.50	.50	.70	1.00
activity: thinking (Maznevski)	5	3	-.10	1.00	.10	1.00	-.10	-.50	-.30	.50	.90**	.50	.20	.50	.20	1.00
activity: being (Maznevski)	5	3	-.52	-1.00	.00	-1.00	.58	.50	.21	-.50	-.79	-.50	-.26	-.50	-.10	-1.00
political systems (Laurent)	9	9	.06	.41	-.29	.37	.22	.01	.06	-.17	-.21	-.48	-.48	-.48	.08	.06
Confucian dynamism (Bond/Hofstede)	8	7	-.52	-.64	-.80***	-.79**	.50	-.02	-.30	.07	-.32	-.69*	-.13	-.47	-.52	-.39
organising principles																
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	16	15	-.61**	.00	-.70***	-.04	.74***	.37*	.42*	.38*	-.44*	-.23	-.37	-.24	-.08	.00
role-formalisation systems (Laurent)	9	9	-.51	-.17	-.70**	-.47	.67**	.37	.69*	-.13	-.94***	-.29	-.73**	-.68**	-.21	-.12
hierarchical-relationship system (Laurent)	9	9	-.80**	-.28	-.67**	-.21	.61**	.51*	.47*	.56*	-.80***	-.03	-.87***	-.64*	-.18	.26
universalism /particularism (Trompenaars)	16	15	.62**	.64**	.45*	.32	-.48*	-.45*	-.21	-.72***	.33	.25	.07	.11	.18	.18
specific/diffuse (Trompenaars)	15	13	.15	.35	.07	.20	-.24	.06	-.75**	-.73**	.08	-.08	.11	.03	-.23	-.35
relation to nature and human nature																
inner vs. outer-direction (Trompenaars)	16	14	.13	.34	-.05	.23	.10	.08	.07	-.40*	.06	.08	-.19	-.37	.42	.05
relation to nature: mastery (M.)	5	3	.60	.50	.40	.50	-.90**	.50	.20	1.00	.60	1.00	.30	1.00	-.30	.50
relation to nature: harmony (M.)	5	3	.90**	1.00	.60	1.00	-.60	-.50	.70	.50	-.10	.50	-.89	.50	.70	1.00
relation to nature: subjugation (M.)	5	3	.05	-.50	-.82*	-.50	.35	-.50	-.56	-1.00	-.21	-1.00	.15	-1.00	.15	-.50
harmony (Schwartz)	10	9	-.53	-.08	-.28	-.17	.04	-.17	.62*	.05	-.67**	-.28	.02	-.50	-.08	-.23
basic human nature: good/evil (Maznevski)	5	3	-.90**	-1.00	.60	-1.00	.60	.50	-.70*	-.50	.10	-.50	.80	-.50	-.70	-1.00
basic unit in society																
conservative (Schwartz)	10	9	.05	.15	.68**	.20	-.21	-.04	-.43	.48	.55*	.22	.44	.85***	-.06	.35
intellectual autonomy (Schwartz)	10	9	-.26	.06	-.70**	-.12	.34	-.10	.65**	-.37	-.65*	-.51	.48	-.93***	-.04	-.50
affective autonomy (Schwartz)	10	9	.18	.15	-.53	-.05	.06	-.06	.40	-.38	-.40	.00	-.70***	-.84***	-.03	-.08
relationships: collectivism (Maznevski)	5	3	.10	-1.00	.10	-1.00	.10	.50	.30	-.50	-.90**	-.50	.70	1.00	.20	-1.00
relationships: individualism (Maznevski)	5	3	-.10	.50	.10	.50	-.40	.50	-.30	1.00	.90**	1.00	-.20	-.50	-.50	.50
individualism /collectivism (Trompenaars)	15	13	.03	.24	.55**	.43	-.29	-.41	-.01	-.36	.53**	.31	.37	.23	.52**	-.11
individualism /collectivism (Hofstede)	16	15	.23	.37	.51**	.62**	-.40	-.11	-.63***	-.37	.36	.54**	.13	.18	.27	.19

¹ Spearman's rank correlation *10%, **5%, and ***1% significance level (one-tailed tests if prediction otherwise two-tailed).

² 16 countries included in the main sample and ³ 15 countries are included in the hold-out sample. However, not all countries have scores for the cultural dimensions included in the analysis, e.g., Schwartz' dimensions have been measured in 10 countries included in the main sample, and in 9 of the countries that are included in the hold-out sample.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL DIMENSIONS AND INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

The analysis will start with a discussion of results regarding empowering, followed by coaching and the two directing items, “supervision” and “review”. After this the two communicating items, “communication” and “personal” will be addressed. The focus of the analysis is on the significant relationships, but deviations from the predictions presented in the preceding chapter will be given some attention towards the end of the chapter. The results will be presented for each element of interpersonal leadership in the order suggested in table 8.1. That is first *the predicted outcome*, followed by correlations involving elements of IPL or cultural dimensions for *which no prediction has been made*, and finally the *unexpected correlations* involving cultural dimensions for which other predictions have been made will be presented.

Empowering

Differences in employees’ preferences for empowering were, at the onset in the preceding chapter, hypothesised to be related to beliefs about status allocation (predictions indicated within boxes in table 8.3). This prediction was specified in such a way that empowering is expected to correlate *negatively* with Maznevski’s hierarchical orientation, Schwartz’ hierarchy, and Laurent’s authority systems, as well as *positively* with Trompenaars’ achievement orientation. In addition, empowering was also hypothesised to correlate negatively with Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance, which is included in beliefs about organising principles.

The results from Spearman’s rank correlation analysis with both the main sample and the hold-out sample are shown in table 8.3 below. Empowering correlated in both the main and the hold-out analysis *as predicted* with two cultural dimensions regarding beliefs about status allocation: authority systems and achievement orientation. *In addition*, empowering also correlated in both samples with one cultural dimension included in organising principles: universalistic versus particularistic, and with two cultural dimensions included in relation to human nature and human nature: a harmonious relation with nature and basic human nature as good (see table 8.3).

Table 8.3 Empowering: predictions and outcome

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: EMPOWERING		predicted ³	outcome ⁴ main analysis	outcome hold-out analysis	
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	n ¹				n ²
status allocation					
relationships: hierarchical (Maznevski)	5	3	- hier	-.70*	-.50
hierarchy (Schwartz)	10	9	- hier	.29	-.59**
authority systems (Laurent)	9	9	- aut	-.78***	-.53*
achievement / ascription (Trompenaars)	16	14	+ ach	.45**	.44*
organising principles					
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	16	15	- ua	-.61.00	.00
universalism /particularism (Trompenaars)	16	15	.	.62**	.64**
relation to nature and human nature					
relation to nature: harmony (M.)	5	3	.	.90**	1.00
basic human nature: good (Maznevski)	5	3	.	-.90**	-1.00

¹the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the main sample

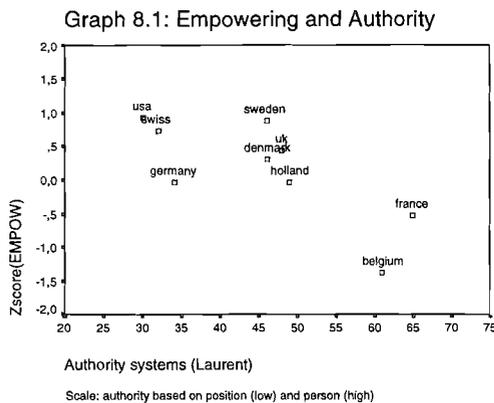
²the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the hold-out sample

³predicted positive correlation is denoted with "+" and a negative correlation with a "-". When no relationship is predicted, this is denoted with "?", and the lack of prediction is denoted with "?". Abbreviations for the name of the dimensions are used as clarifications.

⁴ Spearman's rank correlation significant at the .10 level*, .05 level**, and .01 level*** (one-tailed test for predicted relationships and two-tailed tests for the others)

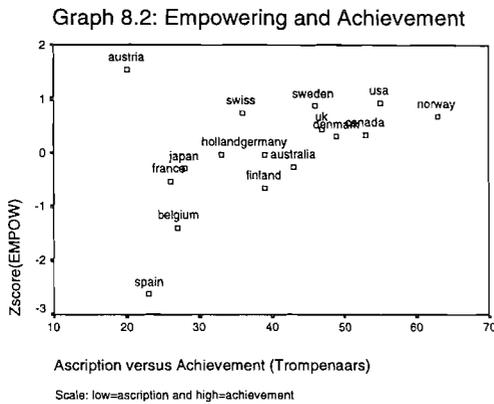
Empowering and predicted outcome

As was predicted in the preceding chapter, beliefs about status allocation in the form of Laurent's authority systems and Trompenaars' achievement versus ascription-orientation are related to employees' preferences for empowering.



Employees who work in countries where *authority* is seen as instrumental and connected to a specific work position have a higher preference for empowering than employees who work in countries where authority is seen as personal, that is that authority is connected to the person who holds the work position. Laurent has calculated the scores on the authority dimension

for nine of the countries included in the main sample (see appendix 8). The countries with the lowest preferences for empowering include Belgium and France where authority is seen as personal as opposed to the United States and Switzerland where authority is seen as instrumental and where employees have a higher preference for empowering (see graph 8.1).



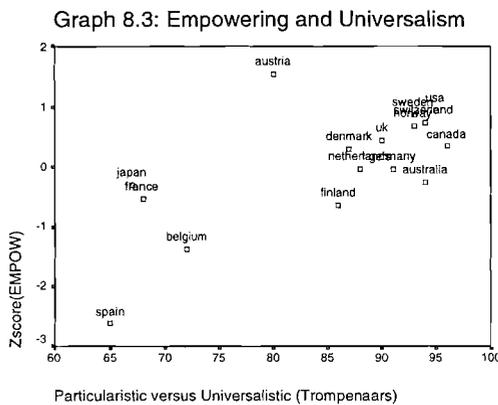
It was also predicted that employees will have a higher preference for empowering if status and promotion are based on *achievement* rather than ascription. Trompenaars has measured the achievement versus ascription orientation in the 16 countries included in the main analysis (see appendix 8).

Norway, the United States, and Canada score high on achievement while Spain and Belgium score low, that is displaying an ascriptive-orientation. Correspondingly, employees in the achievement-oriented countries have higher preference for empowering than those who work in ascriptive-oriented countries (see graph 8.2). Austria is an exception in that the country scores are low on achievement, while employees also have a high preference for empowering. In the hold-out sample, however, the employees working in Austria have a low preference for empowering.

Empowering and unexpected significant correlations

The results from the rank correlation analysis indicate that organising principles as well as relation to nature and human nature are also related to employees' preference for empowering. The relationship between *universalistic* orientation and preferences regarding empowering was unpredicted. Trompenaars argues that an universalistic orientation will have an influence on structures and policies in such a way that in an universalistic country, there is an adherence to rules and formalised structures as well as consistent and uniform procedures. On the other hand, in a country characterised by a particularistic orientation, there is a preference for taking each situation and relationship into account when making decisions, if rules and procedures should be followed when carrying out activities. However, it is possible that employees who work in a country where rules and formalised policies should be universally followed, feel comfortable with assuming delegated responsibility, sharing decision-making, discussing strategies, taking their own initiatives and supplying their

immediate manager with advice. They are certain that they can carry out activities and take decisions within their delegated responsibility without being overridden them due to particularistic reasons. On the other hand, in the particularistic-oriented country the relationship between subordinate and manager is characterised by commitment, in everything from security to socio-emotional support, as Trompenaars expresses it. This does, to some extent resemble what is often referred to as a “paternalistic” type of management, where managers are authoritarian and autocratic in their decision-making style, which is often seen as not compatible with empowering. Thus, the positive correlation between empowering and a universalistic orientation could be because employees in universalistic-oriented countries want more empowering as they feel comfortable in assuming a more empowered role, while the employees in the particularistic-oriented countries do not want to be empowered to any large extent since they do not feel that they can trust their managers to really empower them.

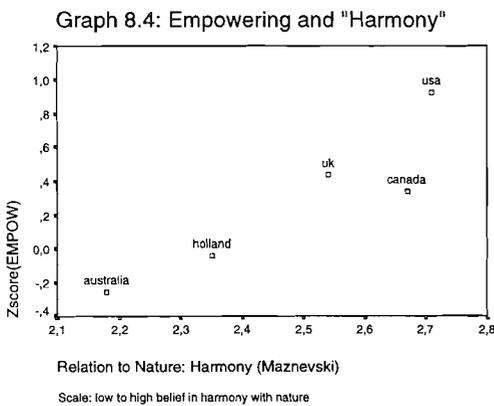


Trompenaars has measured the universalistic versus particularistic orientation in all 16 countries included in the main sample. Canada, Australia and Switzerland are among the countries that score high on universalistic values and the employees in these countries have high preferences

for empowering, while Spain, Belgium and France score towards the particularistic orientation and have lower preferences for empowering (see graph 8.3).

The relationship between a “*harmony with nature*” orientation and the preference for empowering was also unpredicted. Lane *et al* had hypothesised that this orientation would mainly influence the formulation and implementation of systems, such as budget systems and related issues such as the nature of goal setting. Hence, it was not predicted to be related to empowering. However, in this study a relationship was found between a belief in harmony with nature and employees’ preferences regarding empowering. With a “*mastery over nature*” orientation, people believe that they have control over their own lives and surroundings, and with a “*subjugation to nature*” orientation, it is believed that external forces have control over

people’s lives, while a “harmony with nature” orientation can be described as sailing by using the wind to its full potential, but never trying to sail against it. Perhaps it is possible that employees working in a country characterised by a belief in harmony feel comfortable with the idea of being empowered because they can train their ability to sail with the winds. One way of learning how to cope with “changing winds” is to participate in decision-making, in strategy discussions and to take initiatives. Delegated responsibility will also increase their ability to achieve their best given the circumstances, and perhaps result in giving advice to their managers.

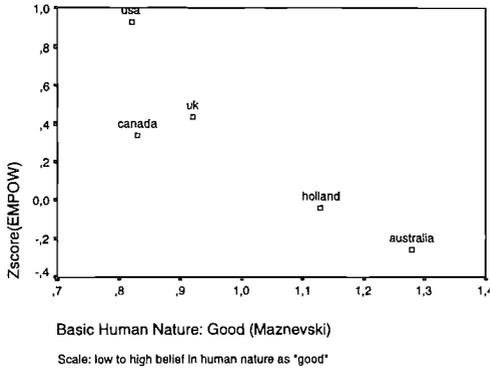


As mentioned above, Maznevski’s measurement of cultural dimensions has only been done in five countries in the main sample (see graph 8.4). and in three countries in the hold-out sample. This suggests some caution in interpreting the results since the addition of more countries could invalidate and even reverse the relationship between harmony with

nature and employees’ preference for empowering.

The negative correlation between a “good basic human nature” and the preference for empowering was unpredicted. In the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck framework, beliefs about human nature measured in terms of “good” or “bad” were hypothesised by Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski to be related to attitudes towards control systems and supervision. They argue that if people are believed to be “evil”, more control and supervision are needed than if people are seen as “good”. This could suggest that in countries where people are believed to be good there would be a higher preference for empowering than in countries where the opposite values are held. However, the results from the rank correlation indicate the reverse.

Graph 8.5: Empowering and "Good"



By studying graph 8.5 it is apparent that in the United States, the United Kingdom and Canada there is a lower belief in the goodness of people than there is in the Netherlands and Australia, while the preference for empowering is the reverse. A number of comments can be made about the interpretation of

these results, but first it should be mentioned that the views on basic human nature are only measured in five of the countries included in the main sample and in three countries in the hold-out sample. Thus, it is possible to raise the question of what will happen when more countries are included in the analysis. If the negative relationship is replicated when more countries are added, then the implications of perceiving human nature as good need to be re-addressed.

Empowering and culture

Employees who are empowered by their managers participate in decision-making and strategy discussions, and they are delegated responsibility. Empowering also means that managers appreciate their employees taking initiative and giving them advice. The relationship between employees' preferences regarding empowering and cultural dimensions was predicted to be related to beliefs about how status and authority are accorded, and this was confirmed by the results. However, it was also predicted that preferences regarding empowering would be related to hierarchical differentiation and uncertainty avoidance, which was not supported in this study. Three unpredicted cultural dimensions, whereof two as mentioned earlier are seen as tentative, were also significantly related to employees' preferences regarding empowering.

In contradiction to hypotheses in previous research, the results show that hierarchical differentiation is *not* related to empowering. Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski (1997) suggested that the degree of hierarchical differentiation would be related to the forms of decision-making used in an organisation. Hofstede has argued that the degree of employee

participation in decision-making is highly dependent on how equally power is distributed (Hofstede, 1980b⁴). In societies that are characterised by equal distribution of power and correspondingly flat hierarchies, employees would have a higher preference for empowering than in societies characterised by multi-level hierarchies. *However, hypotheses regarding a negative relationship between hierarchical differentiation and employees' preferences for empowering did not receive any support in the study presented in this dissertation*⁵. Instead, a high preference for empowering is related to the fact that status is accorded on achievement and that authority is based on the position which a person holds. Correspondingly, a low preference for empowering is displayed by employees in cultures where status is accorded on ascriptive criteria such as seniority or family ties, and authority is related to the person that holds the position, and not the position per se. In addition, there is a significant positive correlation with Schwartz' mastery values in the hold-out sample and a correlation coefficient of .40 in the main sample. Schwartz' mastery values includes independence, ambitious, capable, daring, and choosing own goals as guiding principles in life. It is perhaps not surprising that employees working in countries where these values are espoused have high preferences for empowering. However, it is to be observed that Hofstede's masculinity dimension which measures beliefs about assertiveness and success does not correlate with preferences for empowering, although Schwartz identified a significant correlation between his mastery values and Hofstede's masculinity dimension when using all countries in his sample. *Consequently, it seems as if employees' preferences for empowering are related to a possible outcome in terms of increased status or authority, but they are not related to the hierarchical differentiation in the cultural environment where the employees work.*

Furthermore, the prediction that employees working in low uncertainty avoiding cultures would prefer more empowering than those who work in high uncertainty avoiding cultures was not confirmed⁶. Thus, the preference for empowering is not related to organising principles in terms of a need for rules and principles, but it was unexpectedly identified as

⁴ Hofstede has emphasised the relationship between "power distance" and participation in decision-making in several of his articles and books. For further discussion of his hypotheses, see Janson (1993a).

⁵ It was decided in chapter 7 not to include Hofstede's cultural dimension measuring "power distance" since it was identified as measuring behaviour rather than values and beliefs. However, it is to be observed that similar to the other two cultural dimensions measuring hierarchical differentiation, "power distance" did not correlate significantly with empowering in both samples included in this study. "Power distance" did, however, correlate negatively significantly with empowering at the 1% level in the main sample. However, in the hold-out sample the correlation coefficient was -.05. In other words, there was no relationship between "power distance" and employees' preferences for empowering in the hold-out sample.

related to whether principles and rules should be universally followed or particularly treated. *This implies that it is not principles and policies per se, that are related to employees' preferences regarding empowering, but if they should be adhered to that is related to preferences for empowering.*

In sum, the rank correlation analysis resulted in an identification of five significant relationships between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding empowering. The results contradict hypotheses in earlier research that the preference for empowering is related to hierarchical differentiation, or to uncertainty avoidance. *The results clearly show that employees' preferences for empowering are related to beliefs that **status** and **authority** can be gained through work and achievement, and beliefs that policies and principles should be **universally** followed.* Finally, the relationships between empowering and the two Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck dimensions: values about "basic human nature" and "relationship with nature", are seen as tentative. More countries need to be added for further examination of the relationship, if any, between these cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding empowering.

Coaching

The general prediction is that the relationship between differences in employees' preference regarding coaching across countries is related to beliefs about codes of conduct. This prediction was specified in the preceding chapter in the following manner! Laurent's "organisations as political systems" was expected to correlate *negatively* with coaching, while Maznevski's doing orientation was expected to correlate *positively* with coaching. Bond & Hofstede's Confucian dynamism could perhaps correlate with coaching, but no prediction was formulated in the preceding chapter since it was difficult to interpret the dimension. However, it was predicted that there would be *no relationship* between employees' preferences regarding coaching and Hofstede's masculinity versus femininity, neither with Schwartz' mastery nor with Schwartz' egalitarian commitment. Finally, Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance was predicted to correlate *negatively* with coaching (see boxed areas in table 8.4 below).

⁶ The relationship between uncertainty avoidance and empowering was significant in the main analysis (-.61 at the 1% level) but there was no relationship between the two variables in the hold-out sample (.00).

Results from the Spearman's rank correlation indicated that only two correlations were significant in both the main analysis and the hold-out sample (see correlations marked in bold in table 8.4). Bond and Hofstede's Confucian dynamism and Hofstede's individualistic orientation both correlated significantly with employees' preferences regarding "coaching". Finally, as predicted there was no relationship between employees' preferences regarding coaching and masculinity, mastery, or egalitarian commitment.

Table 8.4: Coaching - predictions and outcome

<i>DEPENDENT VARIABLE: COACHING</i>		<i>n</i> ¹	<i>n</i> ²	<i>predicted</i> ³	<i>outcome</i> ⁴ <i>main analysis</i>	<i>outcome</i> <i>hold-out analysis</i>
<i>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</i>						
status allocation						
achievement / ascription (Trompenaars)	16	14			.68***	.40
codes of conduct						
masculinity/femininity (Hofstede)	16	13	.		-.31	-.46.
mastery (Schwartz)	10	9	.		-.02	-.13.
egalitarian commitment (Schwartz)	10	9	.		-.16	.06.
political systems (Laurent)	8	8	- pol		-.29	.37.
Confucian dynamism (Hofstede)	8	7	- conf		-.80***	-.79**
activity: doing (Maznevski)	5	3	+ do		.50	1.00
activity: thinking (Maznevski)	5	3	.		.10	1.00
activity: being (Maznevski)	5	3	.		.00	1.00
organising principles						
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	16	15	- ua		-.70***	-.04
role-formalisation systems (Laurent)	9	9	.		-.70**	-.47
hierarchical-relationship system (Laurent)	9	9	.		-.67**	-.21
universalism /particularism (Trompenaars)	16	15	.		.45**	.32
relation to nature and human nature						
relation to nature: harmony (M.)	5	3	.		.60	1.00
relation to nature: subjugation (M.)	5	3	.		-.82*	-.50.
basic human nature: good/evil (Maznevski)	5	3	.		.60	1.00
basic unit in society						
conservatism (Schwartz)	10	9	?		.68**	.20
intellectual autonomy (Schwartz)	10	9	?		-.70**	-.12
relationships: collectivism (Maznevski)	5	3	?		-.1.00	-.05
collectivism /individualism (Trompenaars)	15	15	?		.55**	.43
individualism /collectivism (Hofstede)	16	15	?		.51**	.62**

¹the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the main sample

²the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the hold-out sample

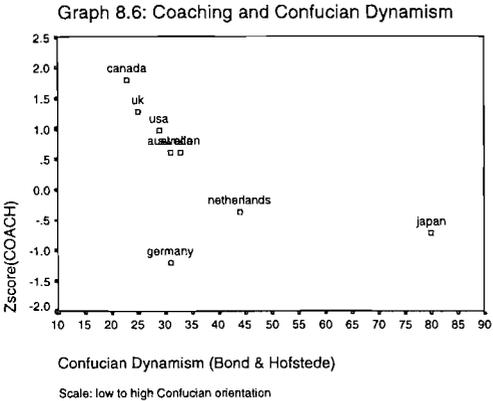
³predicted positive correlation is denoted with "+" and a negative correlation with a "-". When no relationship is predicted, this is denoted with ".", and the lack of prediction is denoted with "?". Abbreviations for the name of the dimensions are used as clarifications.

⁴Spearman's rank correlation significant at the .10 level*, .05 level**, and .01 level*** (one -tailed test for predicted relationships and two-tailed tests for the others)

Coaching and predicted outcome

Hofstede has primarily discussed the influence of Bond and Hofstede's cultural dimension "Confucian Dynamism" on country growth in terms of initiative and entrepreneurship. The reasoning was not considered convincing and this made it difficult to

formulate a prediction of the relationship between Confucian Dynamism and interpersonal leadership in general, and with coaching in particular. However, the items used to operationalise Confucian Dynamism were examined and it was suggested that Confucian Dynamism was seen as codes of conduct which, at the onset, had been suggested to be related to employees’ preferences regarding coaching. However, the direction of such a relationship was not predicted. In the rank correlation analysis, a significant negative relationship between Confucian Dynamism and coaching was identified. It is difficult to explain why employees working in countries characterised by a set of Confucian values such as “perseverance” and “having a sense of shame” would have less preference for coaching than employees working in countries characterised by another set of Confucian values such as “steadiness and personal stability” as well as “protecting face”.



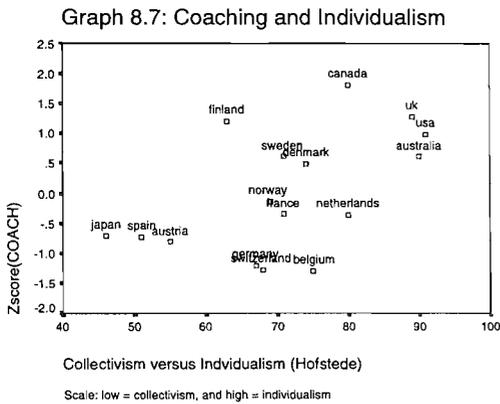
In graph 8.6 the relationship from the main analysis is displayed. Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States score low on Confucian Dynamism, while the Netherlands and in particular Japan score high. The scores for the employees’ preference for coaching in these countries are in reverse order. To be observed is that Germany deviates from this pattern with

both a lower score on Confucian Dynamism and a lesser preference for coaching, a pattern that is replicated in the hold-out sample.

Coaching and cultural dimensions for which no predictions were made

There were no predictions made in the preceding chapter regarding the influence of *individualistic* versus *collectivistic*-orientation on interpersonal leadership since these two concepts were included in four different cultural frameworks and the hypothesised relationship with management was complex and varied from one framework to another. In the correlation analysis with both the main sample and the hold-out sample Hofstede’s measurement of basic unit in society correlated significantly with employees’ preferences for

coaching. It is possible that coaching with its component of managerial concern for the employees' careers is of particular interest in countries where value is placed on the individual as the basic unit in society.



Graph 8.7 displays how the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada score high on Hofstede's individualism index, while Japan, Spain and Austria score low (implying less of an individualistic orientation). In the individualistic-oriented countries employees have a larger preference for "coaching" than in the less individualistic-oriented

countries.

Coaching and culture

Coaching includes making the employee and department do their utmost, encouraging co-operation between colleagues and making employees feel part of a team. In addition, it also involves informing employees about the department's plans and aims as well as taking an interest in their careers. Employees' preferences regarding coaching were predicted to be related to codes of conduct. Coaching was significantly related to Confucian Dynamism, but not to political systems nor to a doing orientation. Consequently, preferences for coaching is not positively related to "doing" being the espoused mode of activity in a country nor is it negatively related to political activity being the espoused codes of conduct for leaders. Instead, it is related to codes of conduct for people in terms of Confucian values⁷. Thus, in countries where people should display personal steadiness and stability, where it is important to protect "face" and respect tradition coaching, is preferred to a high extent. This suggests that "coaching" with its elements of co-operation, teamwork, and managerial responsibility for making the employees do their utmost, could achieve the balance between such espoused

⁷ It is argued by Hofstede that the uncertainty dimension in "western dimension" (in search of the truth while the Confucian Dynamism is an "eastern dimension" (in search of virtue) and these two do not correlate with each other

Confucian values as personal development and protecting face. These values could imply a need for certainty, but the prediction that preferences for coaching would be related to uncertainty avoidance was not supported⁸.

The preference for coaching was also related to Hofstede's measurements of individualism for which no predictions had been made since the hypothesised relationship between individualism versus collectivism and management varied across the reviewed researchers. In addition, the relationship between preferences for coaching and Trompenaars' individualism was significant in the main sample while the correlation coefficient was .43 in the hold-out sample indicating a supportive relationship. Individualism was *not* hypothesised by Hofstede or Trompenaars to be related to coaching. However, they have both used items to measure individualism that involves the individual freedom to develop themselves and the importance of having challenging work. In addition, employees' preferences for coaching are related to when achievement is used as a basis for status allocation and not ascription. The relationship is significant in the main sample, but not in the hold-out sample. This tentative finding also supports the notion that in countries where individualistic values in Hofstede's and Trompenaars' terms are espoused, employees have a high preference for coaching.

In sum, the rank correlation analysis resulted in an identification of two significant relationships between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding coaching. Thus, *employees' preferences regarding coaching were related to the Confucian Dynamism cultural dimension based on Confucian values and individualistic oriented values.*

Directing

Both the two "directing" items were hypothesised to be influenced in general by organising principles (see boxed relationships in table 8.5). The general predictions were specified as follows: supervision and review were both expected to correlate *positively* with Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance, Laurent's role formalisation and Laurent's hierarchical relationships. The direction items were also predicted to correlate *negatively* with both Trompenaars' particularistic versus universalistic-orientation and with Trompenaars' specific versus diffuse-orientation . Furthermore, the directing items were predicted to correlate

⁸ The relationship between uncertainty avoidance and preferences for coaching was negatively significant as predicted in the main analysis (see table 8.2), but there was no relationship between the two variables in the hold-out analysis. This result is similar to the earlier mentioned results regarding the relationship between empowering and uncertainty avoidance.

negatively with Maznevski's mastery over nature, with Trompenaars' inner versus outer-direction and with Maznevski's belief in human nature as good, and. In addition, supervision was expected to correlate *negatively* with Trompenaars' achievement orientation.

The results from the Spearman's rank correlation analysis indicate that there are significant correlations for four of the *predicted* relationships between *supervision* and cultural dimensions (see areas marked in bold in table 8.5). Three relationships were found between supervision and beliefs about organising principles: uncertainty avoidance, hierarchical-relationships and universalistic-orientation (see areas marked in bold in table 8.5). The fourth correlation with achievement-orientation, is included in beliefs about status allocation.

Three of the *predicted* relationships between *review* and cultural dimensions were significant. The three cultural dimensions, uncertainty avoidance, hierarchical-relationship and specific versus diffuse, are all included in beliefs about organising principles. *In addition* there was one significant unpredicted correlation with Maznevski's hierarchical orientation measuring a belief about status differentiation. In the presentation of employees' preferences for directing the results regarding supervision will presented before those regarding review.

Table 8.5: Directing - predictions and outcome¹

DEPENDENT VARIABLES: DIRECTING			supervision			review		
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	n ²	n ³	predicted ⁴	outcome main analysis	outcome hold-out analysis	predicted ²	outcome ³ main analysis	outcome hold-out analysis
status allocation								
relationships: hierarchical (Maznevski)	5	3	.			.	-.90**	-1.00
achievement / ascription (Trompenaars)	16	14	- ach	-.79***	-.58**	.		
codes of conduct								
masculinity /femininity (Hofstede)	16	13	.	.58*	.45	.		
organising principles								
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	16	15	+ ua	.74***	.37*	+ ua	.42*	.38*
role-formalisation systems (Laurent)	9	9	+ rof	.67**	.37	+ rof	.69*	-.13
hierarchical-relationship system (Laurent)	9	9	+ hir	.61**	.51*	+ hir	.47*	.56*
universalism /particularism (Trompenaars)	16	15	- univ	-.48*	-.45*	- univ	-.21	-.72***
specific/diffuse (Trompenaars)	15	13	- spec	-.24	.06	- spec	-.75**	-.73**
relation to nature and human nature								
relation to nature: inner vs. outer-direction (T)	16	14	- intc	.10	.08	- intc	.07	.40*
relation to nature: mastery (M.)	5	3	- mast	-.90**	.50	- mast	.20	1.00
relation to nature: subjugation (M.)	5	3	.			-subj	-.56	-1.00
basic human nature: good/evil (Maznevski)	5	3	- good	.60	.50	- good	-.70*	-.50
basic unit in society								
intellectual autonomy (Schwartz)	10	9	?			?	.65**	-.37
relationships: individual (Maznevski)	5	3	?			?	-.30	1.00
individualism /collectivism (Hofstede)	16	15	?			?	.63***	-.37

¹ Spearman's rank correlation significant at the .10 level*, .05 level**, and .01 level*** (one-tailed test for predicted relationships and two-tailed tests for the others).

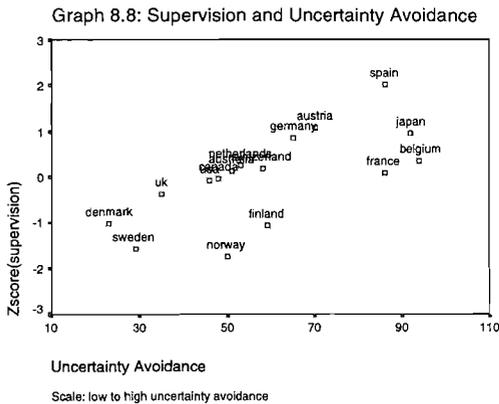
² the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the main sample.

³ the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the hold-out sample.

⁴ (see chapter 7 for further discussion)

Supervision and predicted outcome

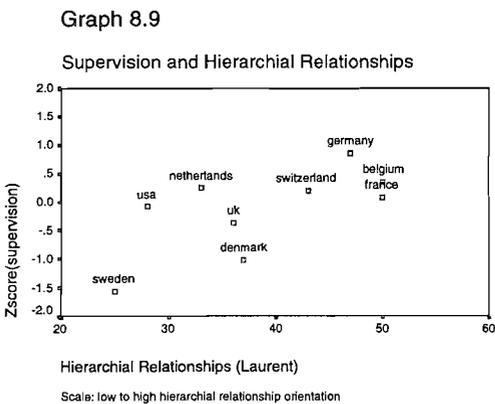
Three cultural dimensions measuring beliefs about organising principles correlated with employees' preferences for the directing item "supervision" have been predicted in the preceding chapter. Hofstede argues that the degree of uncertainty avoidance in a society is expected to influence not only the amount of rules seen as necessary, but also manager's involvement in subordinate work at a detailed level.



Employees working in countries characterised by high uncertainty avoidance such as Belgium, Japan and Spain have larger preferences for directing in terms of supervision than those working in countries characterised by low uncertainty avoidance for example Denmark, Sweden and the United Kingdom, as is displayed in graph 8.8

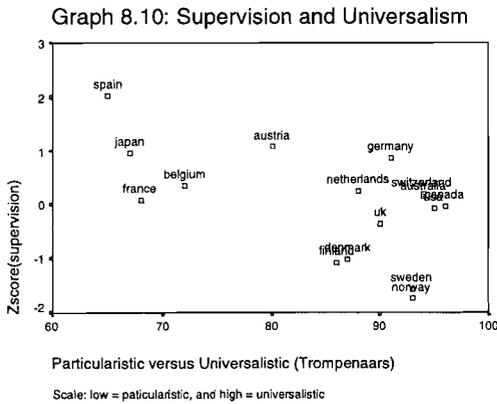
above.

Laurent's dimension "*hierarchical relationships*" is hypothesised by Laurent to primarily influence the shape of organisational structures and the roles of people working within them.



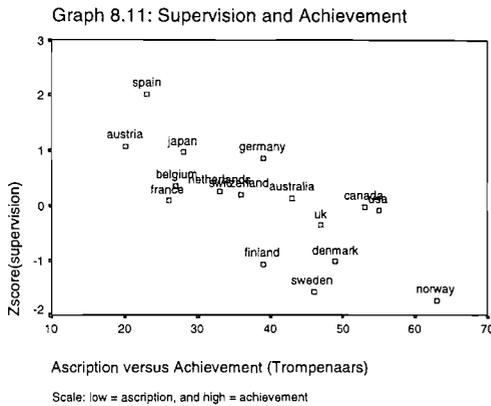
In graph 8.9 it is evident that employees in countries with a higher orientation towards hierarchical relationships, for example France and Belgium prefer more frequent supervision than those working in countries with less orientation towards hierarchy.

As predicted there is a positive relationship between a particularistic orientation and supervision. In other words, in countries characterised by *universalistic* values where rules and policies are universally followed, employees have a preference for less frequent supervision than employees who work in particularistic-oriented countries where the decision on whether rules and policies should be applied is dependent upon the relationship between the people involved and other particularistic concerns. Thus, in the latter context there is a larger need for frequent detailed supervision perhaps because earlier decisions or work-forms which have already been decided may be subject to change based on particularistic reasoning.



Graph 8.10 show how employees in countries with a particularistic orientation, for example Spain and Japan, have a larger preference for frequent supervision than those working in countries characterised by universalistic-orientation, for example Canada and the United States.

Employees' preferences regarding directing in the form of supervision also correlated, as predicted, with achievement versus ascription-orientation. In countries characterised by *achievement-oriented* values, there is less preference for frequent supervision than in countries characterised by *ascription-oriented* values. Trompenaars stressed that, paradoxically, managers are expected to have all the answers and to know how activities should be carried out in ascription-oriented cultures, where they have been promoted on an ascriptive basis (e.g., seniority) rather than on achievements. In such a context it is perhaps not surprising that the employees working in countries characterised by ascription-orientation prefer more frequent detailed supervision than the employees in achievement-oriented countries.



In graph 8.11, the Scandinavian countries score high on achievement-orientation and the employees in these countries prefer to be supervised as seldom as possible. In contrast, the employees working in Spain, Austria, and Japan, countries characterised by an ascriptive-orientation, prefer to be supervised much more frequently.

Supervision and culture

Four cultural dimensions, whereof three are organising principles and the fourth is allocating status based on achievement or ascription, correlated as predicted with employees' preferences regarding the frequency of supervision in detail. However, the predications that preferences for supervision is related to role-formalisation and a specific versus diffuse-orientation were not confirmed. In other words, employees' preferences for supervision are *not* related to beliefs about the formalisation of roles or whether there is a sharp dividing line between roles at work and outside work. Instead, the preferences are related to the perceived need for rules, whether rules and regulations are adhered to, as well as the belief about the hierarchical relationships.

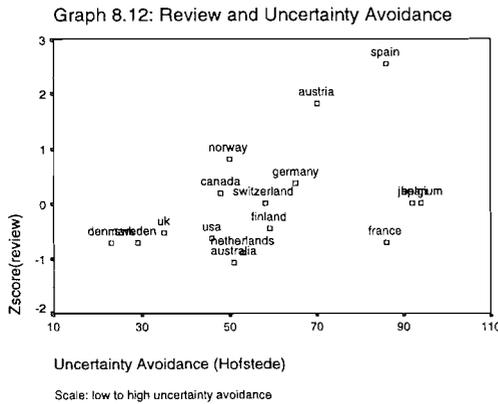
There were no strong correlation coefficients between coaching and relation to nature and human nature. This had been predicted based on Trompenaars' reasoning that if people had an "internal locus of control" (i.e., inner-direction) they would have no need for supervision, as opposed to if they had an "external locus of control" (i.e. outer-direction). However, no support for these ideas were identified in this study⁹. Furthermore, Lane *et al* hypothesised a negative relationship between basic human nature and supervision which was not supported in this study. *In sum, employees' preferences for supervision are related to*

⁹ Trompenaars also argued that the mastery of nature orientation was comparable to inner-direction. There is a tentative relationship between Maznevski's mastery over nature and the preference for supervision, but only in the main sample.

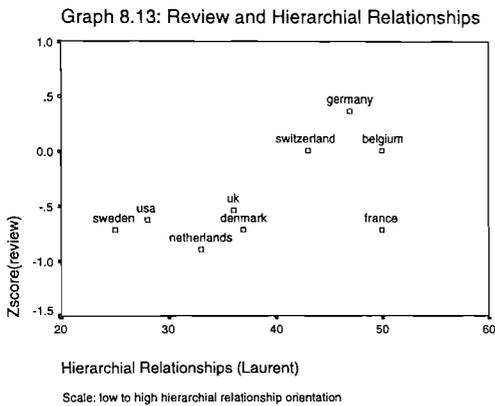
beliefs about organising principles in form of rules and hierarchy, but not to beliefs regarding work roles. In addition, the employees' preferences for supervision are related to whether status is based on achievement versus ascription. However, contrary to the predictions there is no relationship between employees' preferences regarding supervision and the view on nature nor with the view of basic human nature.

Review and predicted outcome

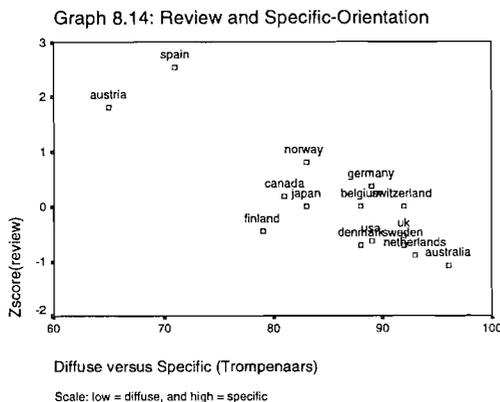
Employees' preferences regarding the frequency of review of their achievements in comparisons with job objectives and expectations correlated as *predicted* with three cultural dimensions included in organising principles. Employees working in countries characterised by high uncertainty avoidance were predicted to prefer both more frequent supervision and more frequent reviews than those working in countries characterised by less uncertainty avoidance.



As seen in graph 8.12, employees in general prefer more frequent reviews in countries characterised by high uncertainty avoidance than those working in countries characterised by low uncertainty avoidance. This pattern was predicted in the preceding chapter.



The pattern in graph 8.13 indicates that employees prefer more frequent directing in the form of reviews in countries characterised by a stronger beliefs in Laurent’s hierarchical relationship systems than those working in countries that are not characterised by beliefs in hierarchical relationships. However, to be observed is that the employees in France prefer less frequent reviews although the country scores high on hierarchical relationship. However, in the hold-out sample the employees in France have a preference for more frequent reviews as predicted.

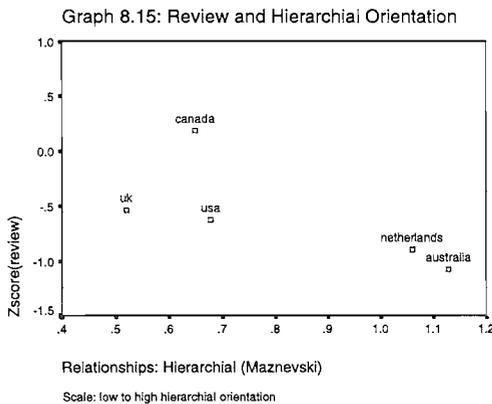


In graph 8.14 it is evident that employees in more specific-oriented countries have less preference for frequent reviews than those working in more diffuse-oriented countries. In the preceding chapter, Trompenaars’ predictions of the diffuse versus specific dimension were presented. He argues that in specific-oriented cultures there is clarity in instructions, while in diffuse cultures the instructions tend to be more ambiguous and vague. It is possible that the vagueness in instructions in diffuse-oriented cultures is related to employees’ preferences for directing in the form of review.

Review and unexpected outcome

Review correlated *unexpectedly* with one cultural dimension that measures beliefs about status differentiation: Maznevski’s hierarchical orientation. The hierarchical orientation has been discussed by Lane et al as influencing a variety of managerial and organisational

issues including organisational structure, and influence and communication patterns, but not directly issues such as review of achievements. However, the preferences for frequency of reviews can be seen as a tentative preference for frequency of certain communication patterns.



As mentioned earlier there are country scores for five countries in the main sample (see graph 8.15) and only three countries in the hold-out sample of Maznevski's measurements of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's dimensions. This implies that these results should be discussed with caution and seen as

tentative until more countries can be added to the analysis. The important question to raise is whether there is a relationship between beliefs about hierarchical relationships in society and preferences for review or if this will turn out to be a spurious correlation when more countries are added to the analysis.

Review and culture

The employees' preferences for how frequently their managers should review their achievements in comparison with job objectives and expectations are related to three organising principles as was predicted. The three dimensions are uncertainty avoidance, universalism versus particularism and hierarchical relationships. However, preferences for directing were not related to role-formalisation nor to whether policies and principles should be universally followed or particularly handled. In other words, frequent reviews are preferred in environments that are organised based on the principles of hierarchy, reducing uncertainty and where instructions tend to be vague and particularistic.

Unexpectedly, there is a tentative negative relationship between employees' preference for reviews and status allocation based on hierarchical differentiation. This

cultural dimension is not to be confused with the cultural dimension hierarchical relationship where hierarchy is a valued organisational principles. Hence, this unpredicted tentative relationship suggests that in countries where hierarchical differentiation is valued, employees have less preference for reviews. In sum, the rank correlation analysis resulted in an identification of four significant relationships between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding directing in the form of reviews. Thus, *employees' preferences regarding review are related to beliefs about organising principles*. In addition, a tentative relationship with beliefs about status allocation based on hierarchical differentiation was also identified.

Communicating

Regarding the relationship between the three “communicating” items (communication, personal and proud) and the cultural dimensions, no predictions were formulated in the preceding chapter. *Communication* correlated tentatively significantly with Maznevski’s individualism-orientation, while *personal* correlated strongly and significantly with Laurent’s hierarchical relationships and Laurent’s role-formalisation as well as with Schwartz’ affective autonomy dimension. There were no significant or strong correlations between employees’ preferences for *proud* and the cultural dimensions. The relationships between elements of interpersonal leadership and cultural dimensions that correlated significantly in both the main and the hold-out analysis are marked in bold in table 8.7 below. The communicating item “communication” will be discussed first before turning to the communicating item “personal”.

Table 8.7: Communicating - predictions and outcome¹

DEPENDENT VARIABLES: COMMUNICATING			communication			personal		
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	n ²	n ²	no prediction ³	main analysis	hold-out analysis	no prediction	main analysis	hold-out analysis
organising principles								
role-formalisation systems (Laurent)	9	9	?	-.94***	-.29	?	-.73**	-.68**
hierarchical-relationship system (Laurent)	9	9	?	-.80***	-.03	?	-.87***	-.64*
basic unit in society								
conservative (Schwartz)	10	9					.44	.85***
intellectual autonomy (Schwartz)	19	9	?	-.65*	-.51		.48	-.93***
affective autonomy (Schwartz)	10	9	?			?	-.70***	-.84***
relationships: individual (Maznevski)	5	3	?	.90**	1.00	?		

¹Spearman’s rank correlation significant at the .10 level*, .05 level**, and .01 level*** (one-tailed test for predicted relationships and two-tailed tests for the others).

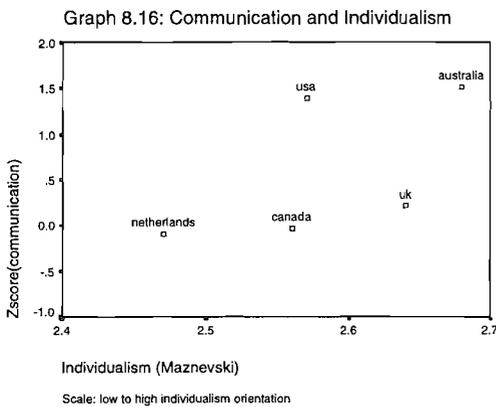
²the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the main sample

³the number of countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis of the hold-out sample

⁴the lack of prediction is denoted with “?” (see chapter 7 for further discussion)

Communicating and cultural dimensions for which no predictions were made

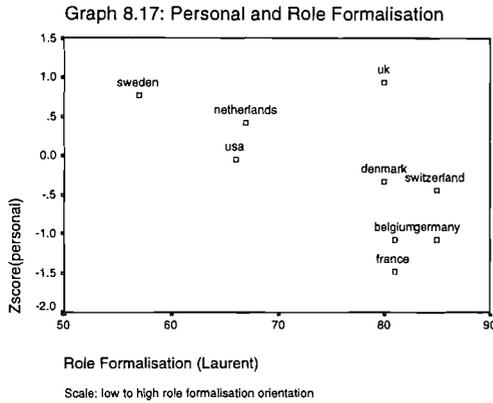
No predication were made for how employees' preferences for how frequently they would like to communicate with their manager could be related to cultural dimensions. The tentative positive correlation between employees' preference for communication and Maznevski's individualism orientation indicates that employees' in individualistic-oriented countries have a preference for more frequent communication with their immediate managers than employees working in less individualistic-oriented countries. In the preceding chapter it was presented how Lane *et al* have hypothesised that the individualistic orientation of relationships would have an influence on communication and influence patterns. This is displayed in graph 8.16.



To be observed, as earlier mentioned, is that any relationship between preferences for interpersonal leadership and Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's cultural dimensions is seen as tentative. The reason for this is that there are country scores for only three countries in the hold-out sample and for five countries in the main sample (see graph 8.16).

Personal and unexpected significant correlations

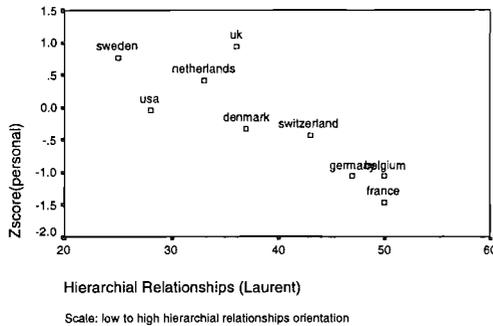
Employees' preferences for how frequently their managers should take an interest in and talk about their personal lives with them was unexpectedly identified to be significantly negatively correlated with two cultural dimensions measuring beliefs about organising principles. Thus, in countries that are *not* characterised by a belief in precisely defined roles and functions, employees prefer that their manager frequently take an interest in their personal lives.



In graph 8.17 it is displayed how employees working in countries, such as Germany, with a high score on role formalisation have less preference for communication about their personal lives with their immediate manager than those working in a country with a low score on role formalisation, for example Sweden. Thus, if roles and functions are precisely defined, then employees have

preference for managers to take an interest in and talk about those personal matters. One possible interpretation is that it is seen outside the scope of the role definition to be “personal”. Another interpretation is that it is the limited existence of role formalisation or the lack of it that raises the employee expectations on personal talks.

Graph 8.18:
Personal and Hierarchical Relationships

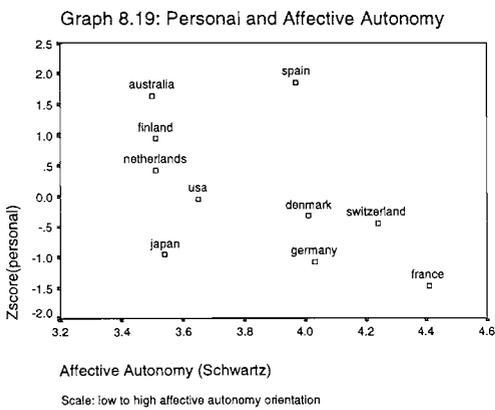


In graph 8.18 it is evident that employees working in countries characterised by a belief in hierarchical relationships have less preferences for personal talks than those working in countries not characterised by hierarchical relationships. It is possible that in countries characterised by a belief in hierarchical relationships,

personal talks are seen as outside the expected interaction with the manager at the level above, while in countries not characterised by beliefs in hierarchical relationships, the relationship between managers and employees could include personal as well as work-oriented discussions.

Personal and cultural dimensions for which no predictions were made

Employees' preferences for how often their managers should talk to them about their private lives also correlated significantly with *Schwartz' affective autonomy*. Examining the values included in the affective autonomy dimension reveals values such as an exciting life, enjoying life, varied life and pleasure. In countries where these values are the guiding principles in life, the employees have a limited preference for the manager to frequently take an interest in and talk about their personal lives.



In graph 8.19 the relationship between “personal” and affective autonomy is displayed. In countries where affective autonomy values are espoused as guiding principles in life, for example France, employees have a low preference for interaction in personal matters, while those in Australia, which is characterised by affective autonomy to a lesser extent,

prefer more frequent discussion with their immediate managers about their personal lives.

Communicating and culture

No predictions were made for the relationship between cultural dimensions and communicating. Communication in general was only tentatively related to Maznevski's individualism orientation. Employees' preferences for personal communication correlated strongly negatively with organising principles in terms of role-formalisation and hierarchical relationships as well as with affective values as guiding principles in life¹⁰. These results suggest that in countries where hierarchy and formalisation are espoused organising principles there is a limited interest, or perhaps it is seen as “trespassing” the established roles, to in discussing personal matters frequently with the managers. There is also a strong positive

¹⁰ Affective values include “enjoying life”, “exciting life”, “varied life” and “pleasure”.

relationship with Schwartz' conservative values, which is significant in the hold-out, but not in the main sample. The interpretation of these results suggest that in countries where values such as social order, honouring elders, discipline and obedience are guiding principles in people's lives employees prefer to talk more frequently with their managers about their personal lives. These values as guiding principles in life stand in stark contrast to the affective values such as exciting life, pleasure and enjoying life which are negatively related to the preferred frequency of personal communication.

In sum, the rank correlation analysis identified four significant relationships with employees' preferences for communicating. *Employees' preferences regarding personal communication were related to organising principles and affective autonomy.* A tentative relationship between individualism and employees' preferences regarding communication was also identified.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

One objective in this dissertation is to examine if there is a relationship between employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and dimensions of national culture. The results of the Spearman's rank correlation analysis indicate that the answer to the question was affirmative. However, this raised the intriguing and more complex question of *in what way* dimensions of national culture are related to employee's preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. Attempts have been made in this chapter to cast some light on this question. First, the nature of the relationship between national culture and employees' preferences regarding IPL will be briefly summarised. Second, alternative reasons for the deviations between the outcome and the predictions will receive some attention. Finally, some concluding comments on the relationship between employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership and dimensions of national culture will be presented.

The Nature of the Relationship between National Culture and Employees' Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership

Employees' preferences for *empowering*¹¹ were not identified as related to beliefs about hierarchical differentiation as is often argued in earlier research both within

¹¹ Empowered employees participate in decision-making, discuss strategies with their managers, take initiative are delegated responsibility and are appreciated when they give their immediate managers advice.

comparative leadership and cross-cultural management¹². Instead, preferences for empowering is related to the *possible outcome of empowering* in terms of how status and authority is accorded in the country where they work. In support of this result is the strong relationship between employees' high preference for empowering and working in a country where values such as independence, ambition, daring and choosing own goals are seen as guiding principles in life. Furthermore, there is no relationship between the preference for empowering and beliefs about the need of principles and policies, but there is a significant relationship between empowering and the belief that policies and principles should be adhered to. Again, it seems as if the preference for empowering is related to the outcome in that employees who have a high preference for empowering are those who feel assured that their empowerment by the manager is respected and that they do not risk being "overridden" due to particularistic reasons.

Employees' preference for *coaching* was not related to doing-oriented values or a need for certainty, but to Confucian and individualistic values. The Confucian values of personal steadiness and stability, respecting tradition and protecting face are somewhat different from the values used to measure individualism such as having challenging work and the freedom to develop. However, it is possible that coaching is preferred in countries characterised by Confucian values as well as in countries where individualistic values are espoused since coaching involves both encouraging team work and co-operation and that the managers assume responsibility for both the individual employees' effort and the performance of the department. Consequently, the preference of coaching is related to different cultural dimensions than the preference for empowering. The former is related to cultural dimensions regarding codes of conduct in terms of Confucian and individualistic values, while the latter is related to status allocation and organising principles.

Employees' preferences for *supervision* is related to the perceived need for rules, whether rules and regulations are adhered to, as well as a belief in hierarchical relationships. However, it is not related to the formalisation of work roles or whether work roles are carried over into the private spheres of life. Furthermore, contrary to the predictions there was no relationship between employees' preferences for supervision and beliefs about control, neither in the form of an internal locus of control versus an external locus of control nor in the form of beliefs about nature. Frequent *reviews* are preferred in countries that are organised

¹² See chapter 2 and chapter 7.

based on principles of hierarchy, reducing uncertainty and no sharp dividing line between the role at work and the role in non-work settings. However, the preference for reviews is not related to beliefs about job formalisation or whether principles and policies should be universally adhered to. Consequently, the preference for supervision and empowering are related to organising principles, but with some differences. Supervision is preferred in countries where there is a belief, not only in principles and policies, but also that they should be adhered to, while preferences for review are higher in countries characterised by beliefs that work roles are diffused and status is accorded based on hierarchical differentiation.

Finally, employees' preference for *communication in general* is positively related to individualistic values in terms of the individual as the basic unit of society, while the preferences for *personal communication* are negatively related to individualistic values in terms of affective autonomy. Thus, there is a higher preference for frequent communication in individualistic-oriented societies. However, if a varied, pleasurable and enjoyable life is seen as a guiding principle in life there is a limited interest in talking to the immediate manager about personal matters. In addition, there is also a limited preference for personal communication in countries where hierarchical relationships and role formalisation are valued.

In sum, the nature of the relationship between national culture and employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership varies across the elements of IPL. Thus, the relationship between preferences for empowering and national culture differs from the relationship between cultural dimension and the preferences for coaching. In the case of the two directing items, supervision and review, there are similarities as well as pertinent differences in how these two elements of IPL relate to national culture. Finally, employees' preferences for personal communication are related to different cultural dimensions than preferences for communication in general.

Finally, it is observed that although the constructs used to operationalise empowering and coaching in the hold-out analysis were based on a reduced number of items, there were significant relationships with cultural dimensions from the main analysis that replicated in the hold-out analysis. This could imply that the reduced versions of the empowering and coaching constructs are still relevant and valid concepts for measuring the employees' preferences for empowering and coaching, and for comparing these with dimensions of national culture.

Deviations between Results and Predictions

At the beginning of this chapter the number of predicted relationships that correlated significantly in the Spearman's rank correlation analysis were presented in table 8.1. The predicted relationships that did *not correlate significantly* in both samples are presented in table 8.8 below. It is evident in the table that the relationships that deviated from the predictions cover cultural dimensions from all frameworks. This excluded to some extent a systematic error due to differences in the choice of sample or other methodological differences, for example, in the collection of data carried out by Maznevski, Trompenaars, Schwartz, Hofstede, Bond and Laurent.

Table 8.8: Deviations from predicted relationships

cultural dimension	did not correlate as predicted with:	only correlated significantly as predicted in the following sample:
relationships: hierarchical (Maznevski)	empowering	main
hierarchy (Schwartz)	empowering	hold-out
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	empowering	main
activity: doing (Maznevski)	coaching	hold-out
political systems (Laurent)	coaching	
uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede)	coaching	main
basic human nature (Maznevski)	directing: supervision, review	
role-formalisation (Laurent)	directing: supervision, review	main
diffuse vs. specific (Trompenaars)	directing: supervision	
universalistic vs. particularistic (Trompenaars)	directing: review	hold-out
inner vs. outer direction (Trompenaars)	directing: supervision	
inner vs. outer direction (Trompenaars)	directing: review	hold-out
relation to nature: mastery (Maznevski)	directing: supervision	main
relation to nature: mastery (Maznevski)	directing: review	

The first explanation at hand for the deviations between predictions and outcome is that employees' preferences for a certain element of "interpersonal leadership" are not related to the hypothesised cultural dimension. This is most probably the case for several of the deviations, and has been discussed in the analysis earlier in this chapter. However, it is also possible to identify a number of *other reasons for the deviations* between some of the predicted relationships and the outcome of the Spearman's rank correlation analysis.

The deviations between predictions and outcome could be due to the *differences in methodology*, for example, the *constructs measuring interpersonal leadership*. As mentioned earlier there are fewer items included in both the empowering and the coaching construct in the study of the hold-out sample than in the main sample. This could be one of the reasons that some of the predicted relationships were significant in the main sample, but not in the hold-out sample. Another plausible reason could be the *varying number of countries in which*

the cultural dimensions have been measured, in particular, regarding the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's dimensions. These dimensions have hitherto been measured in ten countries by Maznevski. However, only five of these countries are included in the main sample and the number is further reduced to three countries in the hold-out sample. Thus, it is possible that when more countries are added, the relationships between the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck dimensions and employees' preferences regarding IPL will be strengthened. On the other hand, it is also possible that the negative relationship is reversed or that there is no significant relationship when more countries are added to the analysis.

Another source of deviation between outcome and predictions in this study could be related to *the nature of the formulated hypotheses*. One problem is when the researcher, in this case Schwartz, having measured the cultural dimensions did not formulate any hypothesis regarding their influence on organisation and management. The predictions involving Schwartz' cultural dimensions were based on the values used by Schwartz to operationalise the dimensions and on the comparison Schwartz made between his dimensions and those that Hofstede generated. In addition, it is also possible that deviations are due to *the nature of the hypotheses formulated by the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions or the items they have used to measure their cultural dimensions*. One example is the lack of relationship between internal versus external control and preferences for supervision and review. The question to raise in this context is whether it is the nature of Trompenaars' hypothesised relationships that needs to be revised or if it is the operationalisation of the inner versus outer-direction that he needs to reconsider.

Another source of deviations could be *the nature of the relationship between cultural dimensions and interpersonal leadership*. When examining the relationship between cultural dimensions and preferences for IPL by using rank correlation analysis, it is assumed that the relationships are linear. However, it is also possible that the relationships resemble a "decision-tree" or any other non-linear "shape". A "decision-tree" shape of a relationship would suggest that certain values on the cultural dimensions will determine which specific type of interpersonal leadership is possible, while other values are compatible with several

different possible types of interpersonal leadership¹³. It is possible that this type of “decision-tree” or other non-linear correlation is valid for relationships between national culture and preferences for interpersonal leadership and could be beneficial to explore further.

Finally, the question is whether some the deviations between the outcome and the predictions could be due to the fact that there is a *relationship between preferences for IPL and industry or corporate culture, and not to national culture*. The 26 presented predictions in the preceding chapter were based on hypothesised relationships between cultural dimensions and management and organisation discussed by the researchers who have measured the cultural dimensions, that is, Lane, DiStefano and Maznevski, Trompenaars, Hofstede and Laurent (Schwartz did not discuss any such relationships). A number of plausible reasons for the deviations related to methodological issues, the nature of the hypotheses and the interpretation of the results have been discussed in this chapter. However, it is still possible to question some of culture’s hypothesised influence or impact on management and organisation advocated by the researchers mentioned above.

In the main analysis, 49 significant relationships between employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and dimensions of national culture were identified. In the hold-out analysis, 24 significant correlations were identified and an additional 30 strong correlations with Maznevki’s dimensions were identified as tentative relationships. The number of significant relationships that were in common for both analysis was, as mentioned above, 15 (plus 4 of the tentative relationships), which is less than 50% of the significant or tentative relationships in each sample.

This implies that the results from studies conducted with a sample of only one company most probably include a mix of results, where some are only relevant for that particular company¹⁴, while other results could be of a more general nature, for example, related to national culture. Thus, the use of a hold-out sample in this dissertation reduced the

¹³Thus, the prediction that empowering would be more preferred in cultures where there is a preference for equal rather than hierarchical treatment is based on Schwartz’ discussion on hierarchy as indicating a preference for equal versus hierarchical treatment. The hierarchy-orientation consists of values such as authority, influential, social power, wealth and humility. If Schwartz had predicted a relationship between hierarchy and interpersonal leadership, perhaps he would have emphasised the authority values and hypothesised a negative relationship. Alternatively, he could have stressed the notion of influence and hypothesised a positive relationship, or perhaps he would not have hypothesised a relationship at all. It is also possible that the unexpected relationships with dimensions measured by Schwartz would have been hypothesised by him if he had made any predictions about the relationship between his dimensions, management and organisation

¹⁴ It could also be relevant *only for the employees* working for that particular company depending on the unit of analysis in the study.

number of results, in terms of significant relationships, while it strengthened the validity of these results. As earlier discussed, the focus is not only on the significant results but on the substantial correlations. Thus, relationships that display substantial correlations, but are not significant in both samples, have also been included in the discussion in this chapter.

Preferences for Interpersonal Leadership and National Culture

The last question to consider is *the nature of the relationship between dimensions of national culture and employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership*. In the discussion of the results, it was emphasised that all relationships involving the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck dimensions measured by Maznevski are seen as tentative indications since there are only country scores for five countries in the main sample and three countries in the hold-out sample. It is possible that the tentative relationship is invalidated or even reversed when more countries are added: hence, the results have to be interpreted with caution. Taking these methodological issues into consideration, two groups of relationships can be identified when the results presented in this chapter are viewed from an overall perspective.

The first group includes cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about *status allocation* and *organising principles*. These types of beliefs are related to employees' preferences regarding *empowering*, directing in the form of *supervision* and *review*, and communicating in the form of *personal*. Thus, in this first group, the view on status allocation, the perception of authority as instrumental or personal, and the view on achievement versus ascription together with beliefs about human nature, the use of rules, the need to avoid uncertainty, the need for defined roles and organisational structures, are related to employees' preferences for empowering, supervision, review and personal communication. To be observed is that the employees' preferences regarding these elements of interpersonal leadership are not correlated with each other. The second group of relationships includes cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about *the basic unit in society and individualistic values*, as well as *Confucian Dynamism*. These cultural dimensions are related to employees' preferences regarding *coaching* and *communication*. These elements of interpersonal leadership are not correlated with each other.

The result that there is, roughly speaking, two sets of cultural dimensions that are related to different elements of interpersonal leadership has implications for research on leadership as well as cross-cultural management, which will be discussed in chapter ten. In

addition, scrutinising the graphs shown in this chapter, it seems as if there are countries that can be grouped together with respect to employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership. The existence of such groups has been examined through a cluster analysis and the results will be presented and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 9

COUNTRY CLUSTERS OF EMPLOYEES' PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

In this chapter, the question on whether it is possible to group countries where employees have similar preferences regarding interpersonal leadership (IPL) will be approached. Country clusters identified in this study will be compared to those that have emerged in earlier research. Some attention will be given to earlier identified country clusters in order to facilitate the comparison before presenting the results from the cluster analysis conducted in this study. The results from the cluster analysis will be discussed with a focus on two issues. The first issue is to compare the country clusters of employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership with the clusters derived in earlier research. The second is to examine and discuss the similarities and differences in employees' preferred profile of interpersonal leadership across the generated clusters. In the concluding comments, the country clusters will be related to the results presented in the preceding chapter regarding the relationship between national cultural dimensions and employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Cluster analysis with the country as the unit of analysis has been used in earlier research to group countries where respondents display similar attitudes towards work, motivation and management. An Anglo-American, a Germanic, a Latin-European, a Latin-American and a Nordic cluster have emerged in most of the studies. The identification of clusters has been helpful, since a reduction of units simplifies analysis as well as interpretation of results. Researchers have attempted to explain the variance in work goals and managerial attitudes across clusters of countries. Examples of such explanatory variables include geography, religion, language and the level of industrialisation (Ronen, 1986).

The cluster analysis carried out in the study presented in this dissertation generated seven clusters and an eighth cluster was added after the cluster analysis of the hold-out sample that included two additional countries. There are similarities and differences between these clusters and those generated in earlier research. Before presenting the clusters of interpersonal leadership, the country clusters identified in earlier research will be discussed.

COUNTRY CLUSTERS IDENTIFIED IN EARLIER RESEARCH

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) reviewed eight studies where country clusters had been generated and they added their own cluster analysis to the discussion. The studies included in their review were Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966), Sirota and Greenwood (1971), Ronen and Kraut (1977), Hofstede (1976) Griffith, Hom, DeNisi and Kirchner (1980), Hofstede (1980), Redding (1976) and Badawy (1979). Ronen and Shenkar point out that Redding (1976) and Badawy (1979) did not perform a cluster analysis, but these studies were considered in the review since they included countries in South East Asia and the Arab region which were not covered in any of the other studies¹.

Five clusters², the Anglo-American, the Germanic, the Latin European, the Latin American and the Nordic clusters, have consistently emerged in a number of different research projects studying beliefs and attitudes towards work and management³. However, a few countries tended to merge into different clusters, or remain unclustered, across the reviewed studies. These were kept as independent countries when Ronen and Shenkar (1985) synthesised the earlier studies, as well as their own analytical work, into the five clusters (see table 9.1 below).

In table 9.1, it is apparent that Japan, Brazil, India and Israel were defined as “independent countries” by Ronen and Shenkar who decided not to include them in any of the clusters. The *Netherlands* was not placed in any cluster by Ronen and Shenkar, nor was it discussed as an independent country. It was simply omitted from the review without any

¹ Schwartz (1994) conducted multi-dimensional scaling analysis with data from teachers in 44 nations and students in 40 nations. He retrieved the same six country groupings with both data sets. The country groupings were as follows: West European, Anglo, East-European, Islamic, East Asian and Latin American with Japan as an distinct independent country.

² Three other clusters of countries included in one or two of the studies reviewed by Ronen and Shenkar: The Far Eastern cluster: Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, Philippines, South Vietnam, Indonesia, Taiwan and Thailand; The Near Eastern cluster: Turkey, Iran and Greece; The Arab cluster: Bahrain, Abu-Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Oman and Saudi-Arabia. These will not be further discussed in this chapter.

explanation. The country was included in the Nordic cluster by Hofstede, although it grouped together with the Anglo-American countries on two of the four dimensions emerging from his analysis. In Griffith *et al*'s study, the Netherlands was found in the Latin European cluster, while other researchers would argue that the Germanic cluster is more appropriate for the Netherlands. Thus, it seems as if the Netherlands will have to be viewed as an independent country since the country does not consistently group together with the same countries. *The five clusters synthesised by Ronen and Shenkar and presented in table 9.1 have consistently emerged in studies on attitudes towards work and management. Researchers have attempted to understand what these clusters have in common in an attempt to identify variables that could have an influence on people's work values, motivational sources and managerial preferences.* The most frequently discussed variables are geography, religion, language and development. These variables will be briefly touched upon in the discussion that follows after table 9.1.

³ The exception is Hofstede who has measured beliefs and attitudes towards work and management, which he argues are expressions of latent cultural values and thus he claims that he has measured culture.

Table 9.1: Country clusters in earlier research¹

The Anglo-American Cluster	The Germanic and Nordic Clusters	The Latin European Cluster	The Latin American Cluster	The Independent Countries ²
<p>The countries in this cluster, according to Ronen and Shenkar's synthesis, are the following: <i>the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Ireland.</i></p> <p>This cluster was found in all studies, although Sirota and Greenwood (1971) also added Switzerland, Austria and India to this cluster. However, Ronen and Kraut's re-analysis of the Sirota and Greenwood study using smallest space analysis did not support including Switzerland and Austria in this cluster.</p>	<p>The <i>Germanic cluster</i> includes <i>Germany, Austria and Switzerland</i>, while the <i>Nordic cluster</i> includes <i>Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland.</i> According to Ronen and Shenkar, these two clusters are separate, but adjacent.</p> <p>Ronen & Kraut's 1977 study and Hofstede's 1980 analysis clearly separate the two clusters. Sirota <i>et al</i> did not find a Germanic cluster in their study, but Ronen & Kraut's reanalysis of their data with smallest space analysis distinctly identified a Germanic cluster. The Germanic and Nordic clusters were not differentiated in two studies, Haire <i>et al</i> (1966) and Griffith <i>et al</i> (1980), where they were combined in a Northern European cluster.</p>	<p>This cluster includes <i>France, Belgium, Italy, Spain and Portugal</i></p> <p>This group was also found to be consistent, although according to Ronen and Shenkar, France and Belgium could be separated from the other countries and create their own cluster.</p>	<p>The following countries are included in this cluster: <i>Argentina, Venezuela, Chile, Mexico, Peru and Colombia.</i></p> <p>Three studies (Haire <i>et al</i>, Sirota <i>et al</i> and Hofstede) included some or all of these countries. These countries were grouped into a Latin American cluster which was separate from the Latin European cluster.</p>	<p><i>Japan, Brazil, India and Israel</i></p> <p><i>Japan</i> was not found in any of the above clusters apart from Redding's East Asia cluster which included all the countries in Redding's study.</p> <p><i>Brazil</i> did not cluster with any other clusters except in the Hofstede study where it clustered with the Latin European countries and <i>not</i> with the Latin American countries.</p>

¹These are Ronen and Shenkar's synthesised country clusters.

²Two further independent countries discussed by Ronen and Shenkar are India and Israel. They clustered in different groups in different studies and consequently, Ronen and Shenkar decided to call them independent until support was found for placing them in a particular cluster. To be observed is that the Netherlands is not included in any of the clusters nor discussed as an independent country.

Geography, Language, Religion and Development - Variables Underlying the Country Clusters in Earlier Research.

Three variables, geography, religion and language, are often discussed as “underlying” the country clusters, that is, they are common for the countries included in the different clusters. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) point out that these three variables are intertwined, although they can be analysed separately. The countries in all the clusters, but the Anglo-American cluster, are geographically close to each other. Ronen and Shenkar attribute the clustering of the Anglo-American countries to the spread of values through colonisation and immigration. Language is seen as containing meanings and values that influence individual’s work values. In all the clusters either one language is shared, such as English in the Anglo-American cluster, or the languages derive from the same language group (as in the Nordic¹ and the Latin European clusters). It is also emphasised that religious beliefs are associated with norms and values². Support for a correlation between religious norms and employee work goals was found by Ajiferuke & Boddewyn (1970).

Technological level can also influence the clustering of countries, according to Ronen and Shenkar. However, this dimension is seen by them as less likely to be related to geography, religion and language. They refer to Webber (1969) who argues that the level of technology and the corresponding level of development will affect managerial styles and attitudes. Furthermore, in the Haire *et al.*, study, Argentina, Chile and India, despite differences in geography, language and religion, clustered together. In addition, Ronen and Shenkar argue that the level of economic development can separate groups of countries into two clusters although there are language and religious similarities. They stress that one of the dimensions, “individualism”, emerging from Hofstede’s study correlated significantly with GNP per capita and this strongly discriminated between the Latin European and the Latin American clusters. Here, it should be emphasised that both Argentina and Brazil clustered into the Latin European and not the Latin American cluster in Hofstede’s analysis.

¹ The Finnish language does not stem from the same language tree as the Scandinavian languages. To be observed is that Finland is a bilingual country with both Finnish and Swedish as official languages. Finnish is the mother tongue of 93% of the population and Swedish is the mother tongue of 6% of the population. In 1995 it was decided to make the language spoken by the Samic people in the north of the country an official language in the country.

² Ronen and Shenkar mention that the Anglo-American, Germanic and the Nordic clusters have predominantly Protestant values in common, whereas the Latin European and Latin American have predominantly Catholic values in common.

Geography, language, religion and levels of technological and economic development are, according to Ronen and Shenkar, the most cited variables “underlying” the country clusters that have emerged in earlier research. In an attempt to evaluate the consistency of the clusters generated in earlier research, Ronen and Shenkar raise the question of how comparable these studies really are and this question is in focus in the next section of this chapter.

Comparisons with Country Clusters that Emerge from Different Studies

It is the purpose of this chapter to identify, present and discuss country clusters of employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. One question to raise is whether it is interesting to compare these results with clusters generated in earlier research. In order to answer that question, Ronen and Shenkar’s review of the earlier studies will briefly be commented on. Ronen and Shenkar discuss the variables, the sampling methods and the analytic procedures used in studies of country clusters. A summary of their main points on the variables, sampling method and analytical procedure are presented in table 9.2 below.

Table 9.2: A brief summary of Ronen and Shenkar's review of earlier studies that have generated country clusters

Topic	A summary of the comments made by Ronen and Shenkar
variables	A diversity of <i>variables</i> are included in the studies such as: work goal importance (five studies); need fulfilment and job satisfaction (five studies); managerial and organisational variables (four studies); and work roles and interpersonal orientation (three studies). Ronen and Shenkar argue that there is some overlap in the variables of studies which increases the reliability of comparison.
method: sample size	<i>Sample size</i> varied from 248 in the six Middle Eastern countries in the Badawy study to 88 000 in 66 countries after the additions to the original 40 countries in Hofstede's analysis. Ronen and Shenkar pointed out that some of the sample sizes of countries seem too small to represent a population (e.g., Hofstede's smallest country sample had 37 respondents).
organisational level	<i>Organisational level</i> varies only to a limited extent. Most studies focus on managers, sometimes unspecified level, but most often middle managers. Two of the studies were geared towards non-supervisory personnel such as sales and technical personnel. In Hofstede's analysis, a few different organisational levels were present.
industry	In four studies, the <i>industry</i> was reported. Three of the studies, based on a sample of one company, that had the following main activity: Electrical and electronic equipment and high technology products. The fourth included several companies within the chemical and petroleum industry. The Haire <u>et al</u> study had a variety of businesses and two studies did not report the industry.
departmental affiliation	The <i>departmental affiliation</i> varied in many of the studies; in particular, if the sample consisted of a number of managers who all headed different departments. To be observed is that Hofstede only used marketing and sales service departments when deriving his cultural dimensions.
sample demographics	<i>Sample demographics</i> tended to vary across the studies. Occupation was reported in five studies, age was reported in four studies, gender and education in two and experience in one study. Some studies such as Griffith <u>et al</u> and Redding have not reported any demographic information on the respondents.
analytical procedure	<i>Metric multi-variate analysis</i> was used in five of the studies, while Ronen and Kraut used non-metric analysis . Haire <u>et al</u> , Sirota & Greenwood and Hofstede conducted factor analysis. Griffith <u>et al</u> used the generalised Pythagorean distance measure to cluster countries. Ronen and Shenkar discuss how the findings from the reviewed studies are hampered by using factor analysis and observational techniques since they fail to consider the following three points: 1) the relative degrees of similarities among different clusters of countries, 2) whether some countries within a cluster are closer to another cluster than to their counterparts in the same cluster and 3) where in the clustering the independent countries are located. They argue that these limitations can be overcome by using a non-metric multi-variate analysis such as the smallest space analysis. This method maps the relationship among the analytical units, i.e., the countries in this case. The greater the correlation between two variables, the smaller, is the distance between the corresponding two points. The meaning of proximity between countries within clusters as well as distinctions between clusters can be analysed. Ronen and Kraut re-analysed the data from the Haire <u>et al</u> ., and the Sirota and Greenwood study, using smallest space analysis as well as conducting their own study.

The *first question* to raise is what was *de facto* studied in the earlier research that generated country clusters. In table 9.2 Ronen and Shenkar divide the studies according to four groups of variables: “work goals and their importance”, “need deficiency, fulfilment and job satisfaction”, “managerial and organisational variables” and “work role and interpersonal orientation.” In most studies, the respondents (managers, sales and technical personnel) were asked about their own work goals as well as work satisfaction. They were also asked about the organisation, in particular regarding its structure, rules and regulations. However, some studies included questions on the work role of the manager and their interpersonal orientation. These questions were often answered by managers themselves about themselves and only rarely by non-managing employees about their managers¹.

Ronen and Shenkar argue that the overlap between variables in the different studies increases the reliability and the comparability of the country cluster emerging from the studies. To be observed is that Ronen and Shenkar do not discuss the specific phrasing of the variables and the scales used to measure them. The interesting point is that earlier studies focused on topics that are similar to those in the study of interpersonal leadership². Thus, it is of interest to compare the emerging country clusters with those generated in earlier research.

Ronen and Shenkar discuss several pertinent issues regarding the *sampling method* including the following: sample size, organisational level, industry, departmental affiliation, demographic variables such as education, age, experience and gender (see table 9.2). It is seems as if the choice of respondents in most of the reviewed studies were managers, most often middle-level managers, although there was some variation in terms of demographic characteristics, departmental and industrial affiliation. The studies also vary with respect to the sample sizes from each country. Thus, there is variation regarding the sampling method used in the various studies. However, the important point is that most studies have used managers as opposed to non-managerial staff. In the study presented in this dissertation, the majority of the respondents are non-managerial. It is possible that managers have different preferences for interpersonal leadership compared to non-managerial staff. An example of this is that in the results of the ANOVA presented in chapter five significant differences were identified, not only across countries, but also across work positions for elements of IPL primarily related to empowering the work position. One question to raise which will not be approached within the scope of this dissertation is whether by exclusively separating the non-

¹ See chapter 2 for a discussion of earlier leadership research.

managerial staff from the managers, a different set of clusters would emerge than if both groups of staff are included in the cluster analysis.

Ronen and Shenkar's discussion³ of the *analytical procedures* is enlightening, in particular as they show how they receive different results when using non-metric analytical procedures instead of the grouping methods originally used (see table 9.2). However, they do not discuss the choice of which *similarity measure*⁴ to use when attempting to group countries together into clusters. The choice is important since, according to Cronbach and Glaser (1953), the similarity between profiles can be decomposed into the following three parts: 1) shape: the pattern of dips and raises across the variables, 2) elevation (level or size): the mean score of the case over all the variables and 3) scatter: the dispersion of scores around the average. The correlation coefficient used in factor analytical methods is heavily influenced by shape and almost ignores the elevation of the profiles, while the distance measures used in some clustering procedures tend to be influenced by elevation. Consequently, not only the clustering method, but also the choice of similarity measure will influence which countries will cluster together.

Finally, taking into consideration not only the multitude of methods and distance measures used to group countries into clusters, but also the variation in sampling method, there is a remarkable consistency in the clustering of countries. The Anglo-American, the Germanic, the Latin-American, the Latin-European and the Nordic clusters continuously emerge as relevant groupings of countries based on similarities in beliefs and attitudes about issues related to work, organisation and management. Only a few countries can be identified as "independent" (e.g., the Netherlands, Brazil, Japan) and remain outside the earlier defined country clusters. The results of the cluster analysis with employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership will be presented below and later in the chapter, the results will be discussed in comparison with the earlier generated country clusters.

² See chapter 2 for a discussion of earlier leadership research.

³ A point of clarification is that Ronen and Shenkar stress that the Griffith *et al* study is the only study in which another method than factor analysis is used to group countries (see table 9.2) This is confusing, since Hofstede used a factor analysis to *group the variables* and not the countries. To *group the countries* he conducted a hierarchical agglomerative clustering using Ward's method (Hofstede, 1984:229) This method is designed to optimise the minimum variance within clusters (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984 referring to Ward, 1963), but suffers from the problem that it is heavily influenced by the elevation This could explain why the Latin European countries cluster separately from the Latin American countries in Hofstede's study. Even if the actual variable profile is similar for both groups, the variables are more elevated in the Latin American as opposed to the Latin European countries.

COUNTRY CLUSTERS BASED ON EMPLOYEES' PREFERENCES REGARDING INTERPERSONAL LEADERSHIP

The study of employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership presented in this dissertation involves employees' preferences regarding their immediate managers' use of *coaching*, *empowering*, *directing* in the form of *supervision* and *review* and *communicating* in terms of *communication* in general, talking about *personal* matters, as well as making the employees' *proud* of their work. Adjusted country means⁵ for each of these elements of interpersonal leadership were entered into the cluster analysis procedure.

The *main sample* includes the following 16 countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. The *hold-out sample* includes respondents from 15 countries, whereof the following 13 countries are in common with the main sample: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. There are also two additional countries included in the hold-out sample, that is, Brazil and the Philippines⁶.

The Country Clusters

Iterative partitioning clustering procedures⁷ were conducted with all the countries in the main sample. Standardised adjusted country means for each of the seven elements⁸ of interpersonal leadership were entered into the analysis⁹. Seven clusters were requested, since the countries included in the main sample could be expected to belong to five clusters and two countries to remain independent according to the clusters generated in earlier research.

⁴ There are four main types of similarity measures: 1) correlation coefficients, 2) distance measures, 3) association coefficients and 4) probabilistic similarity coefficients (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984). The former two are the most commonly used in the social sciences.

⁵ See chapter 3 for a discussion of "adjusted country means".

⁶ For a presentation and a discussion of the two samples, refer to chapter 4.

⁷ For further discussion regarding the choice of clustering method, see chapter 3.

⁸ Henceforth referred to as elements of interpersonal leadership and variables interchangeably.

⁹ As discussed in chapter 3 the iterative partitioning method is sensitive to scale differences among the variables. Consequently, the adjusted means have to be standardised before being entered into the cluster analysis procedure.

The results from the cluster analysis are presented in table 9.3 below, together with the cluster allocation of each country in earlier research.

Table 9.3: Country clusters

Country	Cluster allocation in earlier research	Cluster allocation in the main analysis	Cluster allocation in the hold-out analysis
Australia	Anglo-American	Cluster 1	not included
United Kingdom	Anglo-American	Cluster 1	Cluster 1
United States	Anglo-American	Cluster 4	Cluster 4
Canada	Anglo-American	Cluster 4	not included
Austria	Germanic	Cluster 2	Cluster 2
Germany	Germanic	Cluster 3	Cluster 3
Switzerland	Germanic	Cluster 3	Cluster 3
Belgium	Latin European	Cluster 3	Cluster 2
France	Latin European	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Spain	Latin European	Cluster 5	not included
Finland	Nordic	Cluster 6	Cluster 6
Sweden	Nordic	Cluster 7	Cluster 7
Norway	Nordic	Cluster 7	Cluster 7
Denmark	Nordic	Cluster 7	Cluster 7
Japan	Independent	Cluster 3	Cluster 3
Netherlands	Independent	Cluster 1	Cluster 3
Brazil	Independent	not included	Cluster 5
Philippines	Far Eastern	not included	independent

The *overall* observation regarding the results from the cluster analysis presented in table 9.3 above is that there are similar clusters to those identified in earlier research. However, there are four observable differences when the results are compared to earlier identified clusters. The *first* observation is that the Anglo-American cluster is divided into two clusters, the first with the United Kingdom and Australia and the second with the United States and Canada. The *second* observation is that what were referred to as the Germanic and the Latin-European clusters in earlier research are joined into one cluster in this study. The *third* observation is that three of the seven clusters include only one country, that is, Austria, Spain and Finland. None of these single country allocations were “independent countries”, to use a term by Ronen and Shenkar. These countries in the single-country clusters “separate” from the countries they had clustered with in earlier research. Hence, Austria has separated from what was referred to as the Germanic cluster in earlier research, Spain from the Latin-European cluster, and Finland from the Nordic cluster. To be noted is that Ronen and Shenkar mention that France and Belgium could be expected to cluster separately from Spain and other Latin European countries, although they had clustered together in most of the earlier

studies. The fourth observation is that the “independent countries” have not remained independent but instead, joined other clusters. Japan clustered with Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium, while the Netherlands was included in the Anglo-Australian cluster.

In the cluster analysis of the hold-out sample, the final cluster centres from the main analysis were used as initial centre values for seven required clusters¹⁰. The cluster analysis was first carried out with the 13 countries in common for both the main and the hold-out sample¹¹. Ten of the 13 countries common to both samples clustered into the same clusters as in the main analysis (see table 9.3). Thus, the United Kingdom and the United States again fell into a separate cluster. Austria and Finland also clustered separately from the Germanic and the Nordic clusters, as was the case in the main analysis.

It is to be emphasised that the elements of interpersonal leadership that are included in the hold-out sample differ somewhat from those used in the main analysis, since fewer items are used to construct both the empowering and the coaching constructs. Thus, ten of 13 countries were grouped in the same clusters although the elements of interpersonal leadership differ to some extent in the two samples¹². The question to raise is whether the three deviating countries in the hold-out analysis would group into the same clusters if exactly the same items were included in the elements of interpersonal leadership. It is possible that these countries’ scores are particularly sensitive to the missing items and that the country scores would not have changed as much if all items had been included in the hold-out analysis. However, it is also possible that there are differences in preferences for interpersonal leadership across the two samples in three of the countries. These questions are raised, but are unfortunately, not possible to answer. The deviations are acknowledged, but the results from the cluster analysis with the main sample will be used in the future discussion, since all items are included in the main analysis.

¹⁰ In SPSS K-means cluster procedure, the final cluster centre values can be saved and used as initial values for the next analysis.

¹¹ In preparation for the cluster analysis of the hold-out sample, two standardisation procedures were carried out, since the standardised values are dependent upon which countries are included in the standardisation procedure. Consequently, the first standardisation procedure was carried out with the 13 countries that are in common for the two samples and the second was carried out with all the countries in the hold-out sample.

¹² The discrepancies in clustering between the two samples involved the Netherlands, France and Belgium. The *Netherlands* which moved from a cluster with Australia and the United Kingdom to a cluster with Germany, Switzerland and Japan. As mentioned, the Netherlands has grouped into different clusters in earlier studies. In addition, France and Belgium moved out of the cluster with Germany, Switzerland and Japan. *France* moved to a cluster with the United States and *Belgium* to a cluster with Austria.

A clustering analysis was also conducted with all the 15 countries in the hold-out sample to examine how the *two additional countries* (Brazil and the Philippines) were clustered. Brazil was grouped into the cluster with the cluster centre specifications that Spain had in the main sample, but this cluster was now empty since Spain was not included in the hold-out analysis. The Philippines was grouped together with Japan, Switzerland and Germany, when using the final cluster centres from the main analysis. However, when examining the dissimilarity measures¹³ between pairs of countries, it was evident that the Philippines was not “close” to any of the countries in the allocated cluster. In addition, when the Philippine employees’ preferred values for the elements of interpersonal leadership were examined, they clearly showed a different pattern to that in the cluster with Japan, Germany and Switzerland. It was decided to conduct an exploratory cluster analysis without using the final cluster centres from the main analysis as starting points. The results displayed the Philippines now clustered alone¹⁴. Consequently, it was decided to allocate the Philippines to a separate cluster, although this is seen as tentative given that the Philippines is only included in the hold-out sample. In the discussion below, the results from the cluster analysis using the main analysis will be presented and the Philippine cluster will only be discussed in the subsequent discussion of cluster profiles.

Do the Country Clusters Maximise the Differences in Employees’ Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership?

One question to raise is whether the choice of seven clusters instead of four, or five, or any other number of clusters maximises the differences in employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. A way of responding to this question is to examine the ANOVA table with the F-values and the corresponding significance levels that are generated by the K-means cluster procedure (see table 9.4 below).

In table 9.4, it is apparent that the seven clusters maximise the differences among the countries by using all the entered seven elements of interpersonal leadership, as is displayed

¹³ Euclidean distance is used as a dissimilarity measure in the iterative partitioning cluster procedure (see chapter 3 for further discussion).

¹⁴ The Philippines clustered alone when three up to eight clusters were asked to be retrieved (no analysis was made where more than eight clusters were requested).

by the significance levels of the F-values. All variables except “communication” are significant at less than 1% level (communication is significant at the 10% level). In other words, all the elements of interpersonal leadership are used as a basis for the clustering of countries. When the number of clusters are reduced, one or more of the elements of interpersonal leadership lose their discriminatory function in the allocation of countries. In the case of six clusters, both “supervision” and “review” have a reduced effect in maximising the differences between the countries with implications for the cluster allocation.

Table 9.4: F-values for the elements of interpersonal leadership used in the cluster analysis

elements of IPL	F-value	sig.
empowering	6.15	.008
coaching	6.69	.008
communication	3.34	.051
personal	8.03	.003
proud	9.10	.002
supervision	18.47	.000
review	6.85	.000

It is deemed as valuable that the allocation of countries is based on maximising the differences across all countries on all the elements of interpersonal leadership. Thus, the seven clusters resulting from the cluster analysis will be retained and the next question to approach is how “close” or “distant” these seven clusters are from each other.

How “Close” are the Clusters to Each Other?

Information regarding the distance between each of the clusters is also generated by the K-means cluster procedure. The largest distance of 6.43 is between Spain and the Scandinavian cluster, while the smallest distance of 1.97 is between the Scandinavian cluster and the cluster including Australia, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands (marked in bold in table 9.5 below).

Table 9.5: Cluster distances

Cluster	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Australia, UK, Netherlands	0.00						
2 Austria	3.78	0.00					
3 Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland, Japan	3.02	3.62	0.00				
4 USA, Canada	2.55	3.45	3.74	0.00			
5 Spain ¹	5.55	5.00	5.64	5.71	0.00		
6 Finland	2.83	5.38	3.50	3.89	6.22	0.00	
7 Denmark, Norway, Sweden	1.97	3.74	3.05	2.64	6.43	3.04	0.00

¹Includes Brazil in the hold-out analysis.

In addition, it can be observed that *Spain* is “distant” from most of the other clusters, but “closest” to Austria. The same pattern was valid for Brazil in the hold-out analysis. To be observed is that *the United States and Canada* are “closest” to the countries with which they have clustered in earlier research, that is, Australia, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. *Finland* is “close” to the Scandinavian countries with which it has clustered in earlier research, but is slightly “closer” to the cluster including Australia, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. *Austria*, however, is slightly “closer” to the United States and Canada than to the Germanic countries with which it has clustered in earlier research.

Finally, the five countries in the third cluster, that is, *Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland and Japan* are “close” to the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Australia, as well as the Scandinavian countries, but “far away” from Spain and the North-American cluster.

Cluster Profiles of Employees' Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership

The final cluster centres, that is, the re-calculated means for each variable in the cluster after the final iterative process, can be used to construct a profile for each cluster. This profile indicates what the countries in the cluster have in common with each other and how they differ from the other clusters. The question is how these cluster centres can be interpreted in terms of employees' preference for interpersonal leadership. A simple way of comparing and interpreting the preferred IPL profiles across the seven clusters (plus the additional Philippines cluster from the hold-out analysis) is by listing the final cluster centres for each element of interpersonal leadership (see table 9.6 below).

As mentioned earlier the variables have been standardised before they were entered into the cluster analysis. This was done since they were measured on different scales and the cluster analysis is scale sensitive. Hence, when the elements of interpersonal leadership have values above zero in a cluster, the employees in that cluster have preferences that are above the average of the sample of countries included in this study. Similar reasoning applies for negative values, that is, the employees' preferences are below the average of the countries included in the sample in this study. It should be observed that the standardised scores above versus below average account for a relative ranking that is dependent on which countries are included in the standardisation procedure.

Table 9.6: Cluster profiles of employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership

Australia, UK and Netherlands	United States and Canada	Denmark, Norway and Sweden	Finland	Austria	Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium	Spain in the main analysis and Brazil in the hold-out analysis ²	the Philippines ³ in the hold-out analysis
personal 0.99 ¹	proud 1.49	empowering 0.61	coaching 1.20	review 1.82	supervising 0.49	review 2.54	review 1.32
comm. ⁴ 0.54	coach 1.38	comm. 0.58	personal 0.94	empowering 1.54	review -0.07	proud 2.17	supervision 1.33
coaching 0.50	comm. 0.67	coaching 0.31	review -0.44	supervising 1.07	empowering -0.30	supervising 2.01	personal 0.08
empowering 0.05	empowering 0.63	personal 0.02	proud -0.58	comm. 0.95	proud -0.64	personal 1.85	proud -0.33
supervising 0.00	supervising -.05	review -0.21	empowering -0.65	proud 0.70	comm. -0.81	comm. 0.21	comm. -1.74
proud -0.25	review -.22	proud -.43	supervising -1.08	personal -.03	coaching -0.97	coaching -0.73	coaching -2.06
review -0.84	personal -.38	supervising -1.45	comm. -1.82	coaching -0.81	personal -1.00	empowering -2.62	empowering -2.15

note: ¹The final cluster centres are the mean for each element of interpersonal leadership. Of all the countries in the cluster the elements of interpersonal leadership were standardised across all countries; thus, the average for each variable will change if countries are added or withdrawn from the analysis.

² Brazil was allocated to this cluster in the hold-out analysis with very similar cluster centres as those of Spain.

³ The final cluster centres for the Philippines are from the hold-out analysis and are included only to give a picture of a tentative profile.

The profiles of preferred interpersonal leadership for each cluster are compiled by ordering the elements according to the magnitude of their cluster centres. In the first cluster in table 9.6 above, “personal” has the highest cluster centre mean (based on the three countries in the cluster); this is followed by “communication” and so forth until “review” which has the lowest mean. Thus, in each cluster, employees from different countries have similar preferences regarding interpersonal leadership in terms of coaching, empowering, supervising, reviewing, communicating, personal communication and making the employees proud of their work. These preferences can be formulated into profiles of preferred interpersonal leadership as described below:

Cluster including Australia, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands: The interpersonal leadership profile in this cluster is characterised by an emphasis on “coaching”. The employees prefer that their managers place an emphasis on making both the individual and the department perform their best. There is a preference for a more intensive interpersonal leadership and it should be carried out through the encouragement of co-operation and a team atmosphere, as well as frequent communication and taking a personal interest in the individual. The employees in this cluster prefer the most frequent personal communication of all the country clusters. Employees do not prefer more or less empowering or supervision than employees in other countries in this study, but they have a lower preference for reviews and being made proud of their work. This preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*personal coaching*”.

Cluster including the United States and Canada: In this cluster the employees also have a strong preference for coaching. The employees in Canada have the highest preference for coaching of all the countries in the study. The employees also prefer to be made proud of their work frequently and the employees in the United States have the highest preference after Spain for this type of positive feedback. The employees prefer an intensive interpersonal leadership where communicating is an important part, but communication about personal matters should not occur so frequently. The preferred degree of supervision is average in the context of this study, while the preference for review is slightly below average. Thus, employees in the United States and Canada prefer interpersonal leadership to be characterised by making both individuals and departments do their utmost. The way to achieve this is by communication and encouraging co-operation, as well as making the employees feel part of a

team, empowered and proud of their work. This preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*pep talk coaching*”.

Cluster including Denmark, Norway and Sweden: The employees in the Scandinavian countries want their managers to empower and to coach them. They also prefer frequent communication about general as well as personal matters with their managers. The employees’ preferences for these elements are above average, while their preferences for review, being made proud of their work and supervision are less than the average in the total sample of countries. Employees in this cluster have the lowest preferred frequencies of supervision in this study. The interpersonal leadership profile preferred by the employees in Denmark, Norway and Sweden is characterised by a lower intensity. The preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*empowering coaching*”.

Finland Cluster: The preferred interpersonal leadership in Finland is also characterised by low intensity. The employees prefer their managers to focus on coaching. To make the individuals and the department perform their utmost the managers should encourage co-operation and teamwork. However, managers should not communicate frequently, unless it is about personal matters. In addition, the employees have a limited interest in being empowered and supervised. The preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*silent coaching*”.

Cluster including Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium: The employees in these countries want to be empowered, supervised and their achievements to be reviewed in comparison with objectives and expectations. They prefer more frequent supervision than average, but less than the employees in Spain, Austria, Brazil and the Philippines. The preferences for all the other elements of interpersonal leadership are below average. The employees in these countries have the lowest preferences in the sample used in this study for both coaching and personal communication¹⁵. Furthermore, the profile of interpersonal leadership is not to any extent characterised by communication either in general or in personal terms and there is a limited need for being made proud of the work that has been carried out. Thus, low intensity is a feature of the preferences of the employees in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium for interpersonal leadership. This preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*empowering directing*”.

Austria Cluster: The employees in Austria have a similar profile of interpersonal leadership as the other Germanic countries (in the cluster together with Japan and the Latin-

European countries mentioned above) with the difference that there is a preference for more intensive interpersonal leadership. The employees in Austria prefer their managers to communicate with them more frequently and they are not as uninterested in personal communication as the employees in the Germanic-Latin-Japanese cluster. In addition, the employees in Austria also prefer that their managers supervise, review and make them proud of their work more frequently than the employees in the countries included in the cluster discussed above. This preferred profile of IPL is nicknamed “*communicative directing*”.

Cluster including Spain and Brazil: The preferences for interpersonal leadership of employees in Spain and Brazil can be characterised by two observations: intensity in frequency and the limited preference for coaching and empowering. Thus, the interpersonal leadership should focus on reviewing the employees’ achievements and making them feel proud of their work. Both of these should be carried out in Spain and Brazil more frequently than in all the other countries in this study. Furthermore, supervision of work as well as discussing personal matters should be carried out more frequently in these countries than in any of the others in the study. Finally, it should be mentioned that Spain was only included in the main sample and Brazil only in the hold-out sample. This profile of preferred IPL is thus viewed as tentative and nicknamed “*pep talk directing*”.

The Philippines Cluster: The profile of interpersonal leadership preferred by employees in the Philippines is similar to that preferred by the employees in Spain and Brazil, except that it is less intensive. Thus, the preferences are similar in terms of frequent supervision and review and a limited interest in coaching and empowering. Communication in general and with the purpose of making the employees proud of their work, should be carried out less frequently than in the other countries in this study. However, frequent communication about personal matters is preferred by the employees in the Philippines. To be observed is that the Philippines was only included in the hold-out sample and consequently, this profile of IPL is viewed as tentative. The profile is nicknamed “*personal directing*”.

In sum, the profiles of preferred interpersonal leadership for the eight clusters have been described and it was possible to observe similarities and differences across the clusters. In the discussion, these eight clusters will first be compared to the clusters derived in earlier

¹⁵ The employees in Belgium have the lowest preferences for coaching, while the French employees have the lowest preference for personal communication of all the countries in this study.

research. This will be followed by attempts to describe the main characteristics of the each cluster profile by using the focus and intensity of the preferred interpersonal leadership.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to examine if there are countries in which the employees have similar preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. A cluster analysis identified seven country clusters whereof three with only one country present and an additional tentative eighth cluster was added after the hold-out analyses. The first issue to approach in the discussion is how these clusters relate to those that emerged in earlier research on similar or related topics.

Comparing the Country Clusters based on Employees' Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership with Country Clusters Derived in Earlier Research

At the beginning of this chapter, country clusters derived from earlier studies on work goals, job satisfaction, work roles, management and organisation were presented and discussed. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) argued, as mentioned earlier, that five clusters: the Anglo-American, the Germanic, the Latin-European, the Latin-American and the Nordic cluster, had consistently emerged in earlier research, while the Netherlands, Japan and Brazil were labelled as "independent countries". The clusters of interpersonal leadership derived in this study are to some extent similar to those derived in earlier research, but there are also some differences which will be raised in the discussion. After a presentation of the country clusters the relationship between culture and the clusters will be explored.

In earlier research, Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada grouped into an Anglo-American cluster. In the cluster analysis presented at the beginning of this chapter these countries grouped into two clusters: one cluster that included the United Kingdom and Australia and another that included the United States and Canada. Examining the profiles of these two clusters reveals that there are *similarities* in that the employees in these countries prefer more coaching, communication and empowering than the average in the total sample of countries in this study. They have average preferences regarding supervision, while they prefer less frequent reviews than employees in average in this study.

However, the two clusters *differ* in the employees' preferences regarding the frequency of communication about personal matters and in the preferred frequency of being made proud of their work. The employees in the Anglo-Australian cluster prefer more frequent communication about *personal* matters, almost twice the number of times a year, than the employees in the North-American cluster¹⁶. The second difference between the two clusters is that the employees from North America prefer that their managers make them *proud* of their work more frequently than the employees in the United Kingdom and Australia¹⁷.

In earlier research, the four Nordic countries have clustered together. However, in this study the employees in Finland differ from the employees in the other Nordic countries in some of their expectations regarding IPL. This resulted in that Finland was grouped alone into a different cluster than the three Scandinavian countries. The two clusters are similar in that the employees prefer more coaching and personal communication than the average in the sample of countries in this study. They also prefer less frequent reviews and supervising as well as being made proud of their work less often than the average preference of employees in this sample. The largest *difference* is in the preference for *communication*. The employees in Finland have the lowest preference for communication of all the countries in the sample¹⁸. In addition, the employees working in the Scandinavian have larger preferences for *empowering* than those working in Finland.

In earlier research, the Germanic cluster has been separate from the Latin cluster, but in this study the Germanic and Latin countries cluster together. Apart from that, Austria was clustered separately from the other Germanic countries and Spain was not grouped with the other Latin countries. To be observed is that the strongest *similarity* is that the preferred frequency of supervision is higher in the Austrian and Germanic-Latin cluster, than average. The striking *difference* is that the employees in Austria prefer a *more intensive interpersonal leadership* than the employees from the other Germanic-Latin countries. For the employees in

¹⁶ The employees in the United Kingdom and Australia prefer personal talks 53 and 65 times respectively a year compared to 24 and 36 times a year in the United States and Canada.

¹⁷ In the United States and Canada, the employees have a preference of 83 and 86 times a year compared to 52 and 53 times a year in the United Kingdom and Australia.

¹⁸ The employees in Finland prefer that their managers communicate with them 119 times a year, compared to the employees in the other three Nordic countries whose preferences are between 147 and 173 times a year. When Professor Gunnar Hedlund saw these results, he referred to his experience when he conducted interviews with Finnish managers. He had asked them how they managed their organisations, how they handled change process as well as managed problems. The common response was "I just stare at the people in charge and things happen" (internal seminar at the Institute of International Business, Stockholm School of Economics in June 1996).

Austria, another pertinent difference is the preferred frequency of *review* which is higher than that preferred by the employees in the Germanic-Latin cluster¹⁹.

The preferences of the employees in Spain also have *similarities* with the preferences of the employees in the cluster with the Germanic and Latin countries regarding the focus on supervision and review. The *difference* between the Spanish cluster and the employees in the Germanic-Latin cluster is that the Spanish employees prefer a more intensive IPL. In addition, the employees in Spain have a low preference for *empowering*, lowest of all countries in the study, whereas empowering is one of the most preferred elements of interpersonal leadership in the Germanic-Latin cluster.

In earlier research, the Netherlands and Brazil have grouped into various different clusters, while Japan and the Philippines have most often not been included in any cluster. Consequently, these four countries were characterised as “*independent countries*” at the beginning of this chapter. In this study *Japan* was grouped together with Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium, while the *Netherlands* clustered with Australia and the United Kingdom.

As mentioned earlier, the clustering procedure is based on Euclidean distance, a dissimilarity measure. Examining the dissimilarity measures calculated between each pair of countries indicates that the employees in the Netherlands are relatively close in their preferences to the employees in all countries, except for Spain and Austria, although they are the “closest” to the employees in the United Kingdom. The dissimilarity measure for Japan indicates that the country is “closest” to Germany. This is the shortest “distance” between any two countries in this study. The employees in Japan are also close in preferences to the employees in the other countries in the same cluster, but they are not close to the employees in other country clusters.

Brazil and the Philippines were only included in the hold-out sample. When using the final cluster centres from the main analysis in the hold-out sample, Brazil was allocated to the cluster that in the main analysis had included only Spain. The final cluster centres for Brazil are comparable to those of Spain. The allocation of the Philippines was a bit more difficult as explained above and it was decided that Philippines is tentatively allocated to an eighth cluster.

¹⁹In Austria the preferred frequency for reviews is 45 times a year compared to 17 to 29 times a year in Germany and Switzerland.

In sum, there are some strong similarities and some pertinent differences in the preferred interpersonal leadership profiles between the clusters that emerged from the cluster analysis above presented compared to those that emerged in earlier research. The country clusters identified in the current study will be examined in terms of employees' preferences regarding the focus and the intensity of interpersonal leadership.

Interpersonal Leadership: Focus and Intensity

A few observations can be made regarding the discussion of employees' preferred profiles of IPL in the eight-country clusters. A first observation is that there is a difference in the *focus of interpersonal leadership*. Four clusters have profiles where employees have high preferences for *coaching* and four clusters display profiles where employees have high preferences for *supervision and review*, i.e., the two directing items. A second observation is that within each of these two groups there are differences in the preferred overall *intensity of interpersonal leadership*. Thus, the employees in some clusters prefer an *intensive* interpersonal leadership, while others have *low intensity* preferences. "Intensity" alludes to both preferred time frequency for the directing and communicating items and to what extent coaching and empowering should be carried out. Consequently, the country clusters can be organised in a two-by-two-matrix by using the preferred focus of interpersonal leadership together with the preferred intensity of interpersonal leadership.

Graph 9.1: interpersonal leadership: focus versus intensity

		Interpersonal Leadership: Focus	
		Coaching	Directing
Interpersonal Leadership: Intensity	high	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • USA and Canada (pep talk coaching) • UK, Australia and the Netherlands (personal coaching) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 1</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spain (Brazil)¹ (pep talk directing) • Austria (communicative directing) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 3</p>
	low	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Denmark, Norway and Sweden (empowering coaching) • Finland (silent coaching) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 2</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (the Philippines)² (personal directing) • Japan, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium and France (empowering directing) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 4</p>

¹Brazil was only included in the hold-out sample.

²The Philippines was only included in the hold-out sample.

The two-by-two matrix in graph 9.1 displaying the focus and the intensity of the preferred interpersonal leadership indicates the pertinent differences and similarities between the country clusters presented and discussed in this chapter.

As can be seen in *cell 1* in graph 9.1 above, employees in both the Anglo-Australian-Dutch cluster and the North-American cluster prefer a *coaching focus* and *high intensity* interpersonal leadership from their immediate managers. To be observed is that the clusters *within each cell* differ from each other in other aspects than those covered by the two-by-two matrix. As mentioned earlier, there are two pertinent differences: “*personal*” and “*proud*” between the two clusters in cell 1. The first is the preferred frequency of communication about personal matters which is higher for the employees in Anglo-Australian-Dutch cluster than for those in the North-American cluster (nicknamed “personal coaching”). The second difference is that the North-American employees prefer that their managers make them proud

of their work more frequently those in the Anglo-Australian-Dutch cluster (nicknamed “pep talk coaching”).

In *cell 2* there are two clusters, the Scandinavian and the Finnish. Employees in these clusters also prefer a *coaching focus*, but with a *low intensity* of interpersonal leadership. The two key differences between these two clusters are 1) that employees in the Scandinavian countries prefer more *empowering* than the Finnish employees (nicknamed “empowering coaching”) and 2) the employees in Finland prefer less frequent *communication* with their immediate managers than those in the Scandinavian countries (nicknamed “silent coaching”).

In *cell 3*, the employees in Austria, Spain and Brazil have a focus on *directing* in the form of *supervision and review* and a preference for a *high intensity* interpersonal leadership. The two differing preferences between the Austria cluster and the Spain and Brazil clusters lie in the preferences for empowering and personal communication. The employees in Austria have a higher preference for *communication* than the employees in Spain and Brazil (nicknamed “communicative directing”). However, employees in Spain and Brazil prefer to be made *proud* of their work more than the employees in Austria (nicknamed “pep talk directing”).

In *cell 4*, the employees in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium prefer a *low intensity* interpersonal leadership, with a focus on *directing* in the form of *supervision and review*. The employees in the Philippines also have a focus on supervision and review. The Philippines is tentatively placed in this cell since the preferred intensity in the Philippines is less than Austria and Brazil, but more than what is preferred in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium. The difference between the two clusters in this cell is the same as in the cell presented above, that is, the difference in the degree of personal communication and empowering. The employees in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium prefer more empowering than employees in the Philippines (nicknamed “empowering directing”). However, the employees in the Philippines prefer more personal communication than the employees in the other cluster in this cell (nicknamed “personal directing”).

It is also important to point out that, as seen in graph 9.1, a high preference for empowering can be combined both with a focus on coaching and a focus on supervision, which is perhaps contrary to both theory and common beliefs.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Two concluding comments can be made related to the discussion in this chapter. *The first observation is that the country clusters derived in this study are comparable to the clusters identified in earlier research, while at the same time some pertinent differences have been identified.* The items used in this study were formulated to focus explicitly on the interrelationship between the employees and their managers. Furthermore, a specific time scale including daily, weekly, monthly, yearly and never was used for five of the items. Thus, the increased degree of specificity in terms of the formulation of items and the choice of scale in this study compared to the more broad-brush type of items used in earlier studies has perhaps contributed to the sharper distinction of similarities as well as differences across country clusters.

The second concluding comment is related to the results discussed in the preceding chapter. *The division, based on a focus on coaching or on directing of the profiles of interpersonal relationship into two groups, is related to the results in the preceding chapter that the preferences for coaching versus supervision are related to different national cultural dimensions.* In earlier research the generated country clusters were based on studies of “work goals and their importance”, “need deficiency, fulfilment and job satisfaction”, “managerial and organisational variables”, as well as “work role and interpersonal orientation”. Consequently, *the clusters generated in earlier research were not based on similarities in cultural values and beliefs, but on similarities in attitudes towards work, management and organisation.*

The similarities in respondents’ attitudes between countries within the same cluster were attributed to similarities in variables such as geography, language, religion and development. Thus, it was argued in earlier research that for example, the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and Australia clustered together since the similarities in respondents’ attitudes were related to, or influenced by, common variables such as language, religion and similar levels of development.

The clusters generated in the current study, presented in this dissertation, are based on employees’ preferred profiles of interpersonal leadership and the preferences for IPL were identified as significantly related to national cultural dimensions in the preceding chapter. In chapter 7 it was discussed that culture can be viewed as a “core” of values and beliefs surrounded by layers of attitudes, behaviours, artefacts and systems. The underlying variables

discussed in earlier research can be seen as such “layers” surrounding the cultural core values²⁰.

It was concluded in the preceding chapter that the relationship between employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership and the national cultural dimensions could be divided into two groups. The **first group** includes cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about *status allocation and organising principles*. These dimensions are related to employees’ preferences regarding *empowering*, directing in the form of *supervision* and *review* as well as *personal communication*. Thus, in this first group the view on status allocation, the perception of authority as instrumental or personal and the view on achievement versus ascription together with beliefs about human nature, the use of rules, the need to avoid uncertainty, the need for defined roles and organisational structures are related to employees’ preferences for empowering, supervision, review and personal communication.

The **second group** includes cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about *the basic unit in society*, in terms of individualism versus collectivism, as well as *Confucian Dynamism*. These cultural dimensions are related to employees’ preferences regarding *coaching* and *communication in general*. In addition, the item to make employees proud of their work is also correlated, but not significantly in both samples, with these cultural dimensions.

Finally, the important point is that **different cultural dimensions** are related to the two focuses of interpersonal leadership, that is, “coaching” and “directing”, preferred by employees in four country clusters for each respective focus.

²⁰ With the exception of geography.

CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE

Employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership (IPL), and whether culture affects their preferences are explored in this study. It is strongly argued by influential researcher and practitioners that employees' preferences for management and organisation are influenced by national culture. However, others argue with equal confidence that no such influence exists, or that it is insignificant compared to, for example, the effect of organisational culture. Based on the results from a survey of over 17,000 employees in 18 countries in Europe, North America, Brazil, the Philippines and Japan, the results from this study clearly support the "national cultural view".

In this study the employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership are shown to vary across countries and their preferred IPL, in the form of empowering, coaching, directing and communicating, is significantly related to national cultural values and beliefs. In earlier *comparative leadership* studies, variation across countries was often assumed to be due to "cultural differences". National culture was often viewed as a "black box" and the assumptions did not receive any substantial analysis. However, researchers who have measured cultural dimensions in different countries have also hypothesised how these dimensions will influence organisation and management, but they have not tested their hypotheses to any larger extent. By using 25 of these cultural dimensions, from five frameworks often discussed in *cross-cultural management*, the hypothesised relationships between employees' references regarding IPL and national culture have, been analysed in detail. The results clearly support many of the hypothesised relationships between national culture and employees' preferences for IPL. However, some relationships often hypothesised in earlier research need to be seriously questioned due to the lack of support in this study. This chapter will start with a brief summary of the study and the results from the study before discussing the implications of the conclusions for theory and practice.

A SUMMARY OF THE STUDY AND THE RESULTS

The overall objective of this dissertation was to cast some light on the nature of **the licence to lead** as expressed by employees' preferences across 18 countries. This has been done by describing and examining employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership (IPL) and analysing their relationship to national culture. Managers' **interpersonal leadership** at all levels involves "empowering", "coaching" and "directing" subordinates as well as "communicating" with them.

The results were derived by analysing data collected from employees working in 18 different countries. The employees studied work for 28 companies active within different types of industries. All companies were owned by the Swedish-based conglomerate, Procordia. Data was collected within Kabi-Pharmacia, a pharmaceutical company, during 1992 using a questionnaire that included questions specially formulated for the research project presented in this dissertation. The questions had been added to the conglomerate's internal questionnaire. The Kabi Pharmacia database of around 5, 000 respondents from 16 different countries has been used for the main analysis. Consequently, the *main sample* includes the following 16 countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Data was also collected in 1993 from around 12 000 respondents in 15 countries, whereof 13 countries were identical with the countries in the main sample¹. The other two countries were Brazil and the Philippines². The employees in this additional sample worked for companies active in the food, candy, brewery and tobacco industries as well as the then newly acquired Swedish Match (producers of matches and lighters). The data was collected by using a shorter version of the questionnaire. This additional database was used as a hold-out sample with the purpose of validating the results from the main analysis. *The results that employees' preferences for interpersonal leadership vary across countries and that there is a relationship between preferences for interpersonal leadership and national cultural dimensions, were validated in the analysis of the hold-out sample.* Thus, the validation shows that differences in industry and in company do not change the robustness of the findings.

¹ The following countries were included in both samples: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

² For a presentation and a discussion of the two samples refer to Chapter four.

In an attempt to understand the nature of the *licence to lead* in different countries, two questions have been in focus in this dissertation. The first question is whether there are differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership across countries. The second question is whether any such identified differences are related to national cultural dimensions. The specific results pertaining to these two questions will be presented briefly below. In addition, the country clusters in which employees from different countries have similar preference profiles will also be given some attention in the summary of the results.

The Similarities and Differences in Employees' Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership Across the Countries in this Study

In the first part of this dissertation, similarities and differences across countries in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership is examined. *The results from the analysis indicate that employees' preferences regarding elements of interpersonal leadership vary significantly across countries.* The following seven elements of interpersonal leadership were identified: empowering, coaching, directing in the form of supervising and reviewing and communicating in the form of general communication, personal communication and making employees feel proud of their work.

Differences and similarities in kind versus in degree

To identify similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership, *a detailed analysis was conducted both within and across countries.* The results displayed both similarities and differences in employees' preferences regarding IPL. This is perhaps not so surprising, but the identified patterns of similarities and differences were partly unexpected and need some exemplification. *One "pattern" was that some of the employees' preferences differed in "degree", but not in "kind" across countries.* For example, employees in all countries preferred that their immediate manager communicated in general with them more frequently than they wanted to be supervised, reviewed or praised. They also preferred that communication about personal matters was carried out less frequently than supervision, review and positive feedback. Hence, there were *similarities* in the "kind" of preference for both communication in general and personal communication across countries. However, the absolute preferred frequencies for these two elements of IPL *differed* in degree, that is, varied significantly across countries. *The second*

pattern to be observed is that the preferences regarding supervision, review, making the employees proud of their work as well as empowering and coaching varied both in kind and in degree from one country to another³. How these two elements of interpersonal leadership, empowering and coaching, were identified is described in the next section.

The identification of comparable constructs of interpersonal leadership across countries

Patterns of questionnaire items were studied *within-countries* in the attempt to identify comparable constructs of IPL. Items that were related to each other in a similar way within countries, although they were preferred to different degrees across countries were identified and could be used to create comparable constructs⁴. The following five underlined items were added together and labelled “*empowering*” since they represent the ideas of enabling and empowering employees. Empowerment is carried out by delegating responsibility to the employees and by giving them the possibility of discussing strategies and sharing decision-making processes. In order for this to work, employees also need to be enabled, which is done by supporting their development by appreciating their initiatives and taking their advice. *Consequently, within all countries these five items were related to each other in a similar way, although the preference for “empowering” was found to differ across the countries in this study.* For example, in Sweden the employees consider that the managers should carry out all these activities to a very large extent, while employees in Belgium consider that their managers should carry out these elements of interpersonal leadership to a significantly lesser extent.

Variation between countries is also valid for another six items labelled “coaching”, when added together. The following underlined items can be seen as examples of “coaching” if employees are viewed as “players”. The coach should make all the players feel as a part of the team and encourage them to co-operate in order to make the team perform its utmost. Another important aspect is to make all player perform their best, which is done by keeping them informed as well as taking an interest in the development of their performance and careers. The employees in, for example, the United States prefer that their immediate manager carries out all these activities to a large extent, while employees in Germany consider that all of these activities should be carried out to a significantly lower extent. *Consequently, the items included in the “empowering” and the “coaching” constructs were perceived in a similar way by*

³ For a thorough discussion see Chapter five.

employees within all countries included in this study, but preferred to a different degree across countries.

The two items measuring “directing”: 1) how often the employees prefer to be supervised and 2) how often the employees want their work achievement to be reviewed in comparison with job objectives and expectations were *not related to each other in a similar way* in the countries included in this study. Thus, each item has been described and analysed separately throughout the dissertation. Two items were identified as *not* related to the coaching items in a similar way in all the countries in the current study. Consequently, it was decided that these two items would be analysed separately: 1) the frequency of communication in general and 2) the preferred frequency of communication about personal matters. In addition, a third item 3) how often the manager should make the employee proud of their work also displayed different interrelationship patterns with the other elements of IPL and was handled in the same manner as the other two items. These items were, for practical purposes, simply referred to as “communicating” items, although they were described and analysed separately in this dissertation.

The Relationship between National Cultural Dimensions and Employees’ Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership

In the second part of this dissertation, the research question of whether there is a relationship between national culture and employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership was affirmatively answered. This raised two important questions to explore. The first was which national cultural dimensions were related to which employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership⁵. The second question was how the resulting relationships between national culture and employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership compared to the relationships hypothesised in earlier research.

The relationship between cultural dimensions and elements of interpersonal leadership

An important step towards answering the question of which cultural dimensions related to which elements of IPL was to review the cultural dimensions that had been

⁴ See Chapter six for an elaborate discussion.

conceptualised and measured in earlier research. *Based on what the cultural dimensions were intended to measure, they were organised into four groups of values and beliefs addressing what is regarded as fundamental questions in most cultures.*

The first group, “*status allocation*”, includes cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about authority and hierarchy, as well as beliefs about according status on achievement or ascription. The second group, “*codes of conduct*”, includes dimensions measuring beliefs about desired codes of conduct. The dimensions include issues such as whether assertiveness or nurturing is valued, or whether political activity or a doing-orientation is espoused, or if perhaps Confucian values such as perseverance or stability are seen as the desired state of activity. The third group of cultural dimensions “*organising principles*” includes values about formalised rules, roles or hierarchical structures as well as the degree of uncertainty avoidance and the attitude towards following rules and regulations. Finally, the fourth group is labelled “*basic unit in society*” and includes different measures of individualism versus “familism” or “groupism” as the basic unit in society.

To be emphasised is that *the cultural dimensions capture different aspects of “status allocation”, “codes of conduct”, “organising principles” and “the basic unit in society”*. These groups facilitate both the preliminary discussion and the broad brush analysis in that it is possible to focus on four groups of dimensions instead of referring to 25 different dimensions. Thus, the overall results is that the above groups of cultural dimensions were identified as related to different elements of IPL as follows. First, cultural dimensions operationalising status allocation and organising principles were identified as related to employees’ preferences regarding empowering, directing in form of supervision and review, as well as personal communication. Second, cultural dimensions operationalising beliefs about codes of conduct as well as the basic unit in society were related to employees’ preferences regarding coaching and general communication. *Consequently, the results from the analysis clearly indicate that there is a relationship between employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and national cultural dimensions.* A broad brush analysis differentiates between two groups of cultural dimensions that are each related to different elements of IPL. However, the interesting question to raise in this context is how these results relate to the formulated predictions.

⁵ See Chapter eight for an in-depth discussion.

Predictions and outcome

The comparison between the outcome in this study and the predictions based on hypotheses in earlier research is presented in more detail commencing with empowering, followed by coaching, supervision, review and communicating.

Employees' preference for *empowering* was *not* identified as related to beliefs about hierarchical differentiation as is often argued in earlier research both within comparative leadership and cross-cultural management⁶. Instead, preferences for empowering are related to the *possible outcome of empowering* in terms of how status and authority are accorded in the country where they work. In support of this result is the strong relationship between employees' high preferences for empowering and working in a country where values such as independence, ambition, daring and choosing own goals are seen as guiding principles in life. Furthermore, there is no relationship between the preference for empowering and beliefs about the need of principles and policies, but there is a significant relationship between empowering and the belief that policies and principles should be adhered to. Again, it seems as if the preference for empowering is related to the outcome in that employees have a high preference for empowering are those who feel assured that the empowerment given by the manager is respected and that they do not risk being "overridden" due to particularistic reasons.

Employees' preference for *coaching* was not related to doing-oriented values or a need for certainty, but to Confucian and individualistic values. The Confucian values of personal steadiness and stability, respecting tradition and protecting face are somewhat different from the values used to measure individualism such as having challenging work and the freedom to develop. However, it is possible that coaching is preferred in countries characterised by Confucian values as well as in countries where individualistic values are espoused since coaching involves both encouraging team work and co-operation and that the managers assuming responsibility for the individual employee's effort as well as the performance of the department. *It is to be observed that the preference for coaching is related to different cultural dimensions than the preference for empowering.*

Employees' preferences for *supervision* is related to the perceived need for rules, whether rules and regulations are adhered to, as well as a belief in hierarchical relationships. However, it is not related to the formalisation of work roles or whether work roles are carried

over into the private spheres of life. Furthermore, contrary to the predictions there was no relationship between employees' preferences for supervision and beliefs about control, neither in the form of an internal locus of control versus an external locus of control nor in the form of beliefs about nature. Frequent *reviews* are preferred in countries that are organised based on principles of hierarchy, reducing uncertainty and no sharp dividing line between the role at work and the role in non-work setting. However, the preferences for reviews are not related to beliefs about job formalisation or whether principles and policies should be universally adhered to. Consequently, the preferences for supervision and empowering are both related to organising principles. However, supervision is preferred in countries where principles and policies are valued and adhered to, while preferences for review are higher in countries characterised by beliefs that work roles are diffused and status is accorded based on hierarchical differentiation.

Finally, employees' preferences for *communication in general* are positively related to individualistic values in terms of the individual as the basic unit of society, while the preferences for *personal communication* are negatively related to individualistic values in terms of affective autonomy. Thus, there is a higher preference for frequent communication in individualistic-oriented societies. However, if a varied, pleasurable and enjoyable life is seen as a guiding principle in life, there is a limited interest in talking to the immediate manager about personal matters. In addition, there is also a limited preference for personal communication in countries where hierarchical relationships and role formalisation are valued. There are no strong relationships identified between employees' preferences for being made proud of their work and national cultural dimension., although there are significant differences in employees' preferences across countries. This raises the need of probing other dimensions in the attempt to understand the variation across countries.

The Licence to Lead in the Eight Country Clusters

In the brief summary of the dissertation results above, it was mentioned that country clusters were identified in the analysis. Eight different country clusters emerged from the analysis and employees working in countries included in the same cluster exhibit similar

⁶ See chapter 2 and chapter 7.

profiles of preferences regarding interpersonal leadership⁷. There were *similarities* in that the employees' preferred IPL profile for some of the clusters was characterised by a *focus on coaching*, while other clusters displayed a *focus on directing*. In addition, the employees in some of the clusters preferred low intensity IPL, while employees in other clusters preferred high intensity IPL. The cluster profiles of interpersonal leadership *differed* in preferences regarding *empowering, general communication, personal communication and being made proud of work*.

Employees in four of the country clusters displayed strong preferences for coaching, while employees in the four other country clusters displayed equally strong preferences for a directing focus. *Thus, the focus of the preferred IPL profile cut across the country clusters as a sharp dividing line. Another such dividing line was the preferred intensity of IPL.* Employees in four country clusters preferred very intensive IPL, while a low intensity IPL was the preference of employees in the other four clusters. The preferred focus and intensity of interpersonal leadership was used to identify four groups of country cluster, which will be briefly described below:

The first group consists of employees working in the Anglo-American countries (the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada) as well as in the Netherlands. The nature of the licence to lead in these countries is similar in that the *employees prefer high intensive IPL with a coaching focus*. These employees also place the importance placed on frequent general communication in common, but they differ in their preferences regarding personal communication. Thus, employees in the United Kingdom, Australia and the Netherlands want their managers to take an interest in and talk to them about, their personal lives frequently. Their licence to lead is labelled "*personal coaching*". The North-American employees, on the other hand, prefer that their managers frequently make them proud of their work. Their licence to lead is labelled "*pep talk coaching*", which is not preferred at all by employees in the United Kingdom, Australia and the Netherlands (see graph 10.1 below).

Employees in the Nordic countries form a *second group* and the nature of their licence to lead also has a focus on coaching, but with a low intensity IPL. The employees in the three Scandinavian countries prefer high degrees of empowering. Their licence to lead is labelled "*empowering coaching*" and they have the lowest preference for supervision of all employees in this study. Employees in Finland do not share the high preferences for

⁷ For a discussion of the results from the cluster analysis see Chapter nine.

empowering found in the Scandinavian countries, but they do share the limited interest in supervision. Thus, the licence to lead, in general, in the Nordic countries does not include supervision of work. In Finland, employees have a limited interest in general communication with their managers. Their licence to lead is labelled “*silent coaching*” (see graph 10.1 below). However, employees in Finland have a preference for frequent personal communication in common with employees in the United Kingdom, Australia and the Netherlands, while Scandinavian employees have a preference for general communication in common with North American employees.

In the **third group**, employees have a preference for low intensity interpersonal leadership similar to employees in the Nordic countries, but with a focus on directing. The nature of the licence to lead expressed by employees in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, France and Belgium include preferences for both directing (in the form of supervision and review) and empowering. Their licence to lead is labelled “*empowering directing*”. They have the preference for empowering in common with the employees in the Scandinavian countries, but not the preferences for directing (see graph 10.1). Employees in the Philippines are also included in this third group. They indicate a preference for supervision and review, but do not show any preference for empowering. In addition, they display strong preferences for personal communication. Their licence to lead is labelled “*personal directing*”, which is not shared by the other countries in this group (see graph 10.1 below).

Employees in the **fourth group** have a directing focus in common with employees discussed in the group above, while they prefer high intensity IPL in common with the Anglo-American countries and the Netherlands. Employees in Austria, Spain and Brazil prefer frequent supervision and review. However, in Austria there is also a preference for empowering to a large extent which these employees have in common with the other Germanic countries, while in Spain and Brazil there is a very limited interest in empowering, similar to the employees in the Philippines. The employees in Spain and Brazil do not only have the preference for a high intensity in common with the employees in North America, but also a high preference for being made proud of their work. Their licence to lead is labelled “*pep talk directing*”. This is not shared by employees in Austria, although they have a preference for frequent general communication. Their licence to lead is labelled “*communicative directing*” (see graph 10.1 below).

Graph 10.1: The Licence to Lead

		Interpersonal Leadership: Focus	
		<i>Coaching</i>	<i>Directing</i>
Interpersonal Leadership: Intensity	<i>high</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • USA and Canada (pep talk coaching) • UK, Australia and the Netherlands (personal coaching) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 1</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spain (Brazil) (pep talk directing) • Austria (communicative directing) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 3</p>
	<i>low</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Denmark, Norway and Sweden (empowering coaching) • Finland (silent coaching) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 2</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (the Philippines) (personal directing) • Japan, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium and France (empowering directing) <p style="text-align: right;">cell 4</p>

Thus, the *licence to lead* expressed in the eight country clusters included in this study has been characterised as follows: “pep talk coaching”, “personal coaching”, “empowering coaching”, “silent coaching”, “pep talk directing”, “communicative directing”, “personal directing” and “empowering directing”. In graph 10.1, differences and similarities in the *licence to lead* across country clusters are highlighted. The licence to lead described for each country cluster is based on employees’ preferred IPL focus and intensity as well as the preferences regarding “empowering”, “general communication”, “personal communication”, and “being made proud of work”. Finally, it is emphasised that the employees who prefer high degrees of coaching prefer low degrees of directing and vice versa. However, there is no such mutually exclusive relationship between directing and empowering as is seen in graph 10.1, the implication of this finding for theory will be further discussed in this chapter.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

Earlier multi-country leadership research, touching upon interpersonal aspects of leadership has identified, differences across countries. In a review of these studies it was evident that researchers conducting them assumed, or discussed, how culture could have played a key role leading to the identified differences across countries. However, apart from a few cases, there was very limited cultural analysis of the results⁸. In other words, attempts were not made to examine *which differences* across countries were in fact related to culture, nor was the question of *in what way culture was related* to these differences across countries discussed.

Anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists and other social scientists have conducted studies in which cultural dimensions have been operationalised and measured across countries. In a review of these studies, it became apparent that some of the researchers that had measured cultural dimensions have had hypotheses both about *the way* that cultural dimensions have an influence on management and organisation as well as about *which elements* of management and organisation would be influenced by cultural values and beliefs⁹. However, these researchers have not attempted to test their hypotheses. *Consequently, researchers of multi-country interpersonal oriented leadership studies have assumed that culture was one of the main reasons for differences across countries, but have not examined the validity of their assumptions. Concurrently, researchers of cultural dimensions argue that culture influences management and organisation in a number of different ways, but have not tested the hypotheses.*

The results of this study display that there are differences across the countries in this study in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. However, more importantly, the analysis indicates *which differences in employees' preferences* are related to *which cultural dimensions*. One immediate implication of these results is that within the fields of comparative leadership and cross-cultural management, as well as international business, it is possible to discuss in what way culture is related to across country differences in interpersonal leadership rather than ignoring national culture as an explanatory variable or

⁸ See Chapter two for an in-depth discussion.

⁹ See Chapter seven for an in-depth discussion.

assuming that any differences across cultures are due to cultural differences¹⁰. *In order to further knowledge it is imperative to divert from the prevailing general notion that differences across- countries are related to differences in culture. Instead, attempts should be made to ascertain what is related to culture and in which way it is related to culture.* In addition, by identifying what is *not* related to national culture it becomes possible to explore new alternative hypotheses for differences in perceptions of leadership and management across countries.

Two implications for theory based on the discussion and analysis of the results in this dissertation are emphasised. First, the results clearly indicate that there are countries in which employees want to be both empowered and directed¹¹. *One implication of this result is that it is possible to question one of the basic assumptions within leadership research as well as research within work psychology.* Many of the studies in these two fields of research can be organised into one of the following two dichotomies¹²: “autocratic versus democratic leadership”¹³ and “directive versus participative leadership”¹⁴. The basic assumption in the study of the above mentioned dichotomies is that *managers who empower their employees, for example, in the form of delegating responsibility, do not direct them, such as. In the form of supervision.* The results presented in this study display how employees in some countries prefer both empowering and directing, while employees in other countries only prefer one of the two to a high degree. Thus, it is strongly emphasised that *assumptions taken for granted in earlier research should be questioned* when formulating new theories for comparative leadership and cross-cultural management, or when designing new research projects.

¹⁰ It is, as discussed in Chapter two, often argued that if matched samples are used across countries, the resulting variation is due to national cultural differences. However, as argued in Chapter two, there could be other sources of variation that are not related to national culture and that are not controlled for in the matched samples.

¹¹ See chapter nine for an illustrative discussion.

¹² Discussed extensively by Bass (1981/1990) and Ronen (1986).

¹³ Autocratic versus democratic is a dichotomy that includes how power is distributed, whose needs are met, and how decisions are made. Ronen (1986) argues that the democratic-autocratic dimension is important for understanding manager's authority and decision-making. He mentions how “paternalistic” leadership can be seen as a form of autocratic leadership that implies mutual obligation and personal loyalties. He exemplifies with Farmer and Richman's (1965) study that rated a number of countries on paternalism and found Japan, Egypt, Chile, Germany, India and France to be paternalistic with the United Kingdom and United States as the least paternalistic.

The second set of implications to highlight is relevant for theory-building within cross-cultural and comparative management. First, the results in this study lead to serious questioning of the hypotheses in earlier research that it is cultural values regarding status allocation based on hierarchical differentiation that are related to employees' preferences regarding empowering. In other words, it is not in countries where flatter hierarchies or more equal power structures are valued that employees prefer to be empowered. Instead, it is in countries where status is allocated on achievement, where authority is based on the work position, where principles and policies are universally adhered to, and where independence and ambition are seen as guiding principles in life. Thus, it is the outcome of empowering and the possibility of reaching this outcome that are related to employees' preferences to be empowered and not the degree of hierarchical environment that they work in, as is often argued by researchers and practitioners alike.

A second implication is the need to understand the specific relationships between national culture and management and organisation in order to build relevant theories. As long hypotheses are assumed to be confirmed relationships without being tested, and broad brush analyses are carried out with cultural differences in general as the independent variable, cross-cultural models and theories will continue to be superficial and not fruitful in understanding differences in management and organisation across countries. There is a need to establish specific relationships to further the understanding of theory. For example, preferences for coaching are related to different cultural dimensions than those related to preferences for empowering. When the latter is related to beliefs about status allocation and organising principles affecting the outcome of empowering, preferences for coaching are related to codes of conduct based on individualistic and Confucian values. Another example is that employees' preferences for supervision are prevalent in countries characterised by belief in *instrumental order* in terms of principles and policies, while preferences for frequent review of job achievements are present in countries characterised by belief in *social order* in terms of

¹⁴The direction and participation dichotomy is about decision-making and refers primarily to who takes decisions. Directive leadership implies that the leader takes the decisions and expects subordinates to follow them. Participative leadership can take on many different forms but the essence is that employees participate in the decision-making process. There are degrees of employee involvement in decision-making between these two end-points. According to Bass (1981/1990) most managers do both, but in different amounts. He refers to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) who suggested that direction and participation are parts of a continuum. Ronen (1986) emphasises that participation is the degree of the subordinates' involvement in the decision-making process. For a thorough review of non-comparative studies of direction and participation and the different types of measures that have been used, see chapter 22 in Bass (1981/1990).

diffused work roles and where hierarchical differentiation is valued in a country¹⁵. This study highlights a number of specific relationships between culture and interpersonal leadership that have been validated across different companies and industries, and casts new light on the differences in the Licence to Lead for managers across the 18 countries included in the study.

Some Implications for Future Research on Cross-Cultural Management and Comparative Leadership Research

An examination of the results from the study presented in this dissertation does not only lead to general implications for theory, but also to four specific implications for future research on comparative leadership and cross-cultural management. First, when using a hold-out sample, less than half of the relationships between national cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership identified in the main analysis were validated¹⁶. It has been argued in earlier research that there are differences across companies as well as across industries that are more pertinent than differences in national culture. Thus, in order to identify patterns that are not only valid for one company or one industry, it is valuable to compare the results from one company or industry with other companies or industries within the same country. For example, there is a relationship between beliefs about human nature and employees' preferences for review of their work (in comparison with the job objectives and expectations) in the Kabi Pharmacia sample. However, in the sample of companies within the food, candy, tobacco and match industries, belief about human nature was not related to employees' preferences regarding "review", but to their preferences regarding "coaching". *Consequently, one implication of the results from this dissertation is the necessity of conducting studies of more than one company in each country in the attempt to identify relationships that are relevant for more employees than those working for one particular company.*

The relationship between national cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership had been predicted based on the hypotheses suggested, but not tested, by researchers who have measured cultural dimensions. Fewer than one third of the predicted relationships were identified as significant relationships in both the samples

¹⁵ Instrumental versus social is used in a similar sense as by Laurent although applied on different areas of management and organisation (1983).

¹⁶See chapter 8 for further discussion..

used in the correlation analysis. For example, Hofstede's cultural dimension "uncertainty avoidance" was, as predicted, related to employees' preferences regarding supervision and review. However, it was also argued that in countries where formalised structures and rules are espoused, employees will have less preference for both "empowering" and "coaching". This prediction was not supported by the results in this study. Thus, *the relevance of testing hypothesised relationships between national culture and leadership, management and organisation, in order to understand in what way they are related is emphasised.*

In addition, unexpected relationships between cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership were identified both in the main sample and in the hold-out sample. In countries characterised by harmony with nature employees want to be empowered to a large extent by their immediate managers¹⁷. This was an unexpected relationship that suggests that there could be a relationship between beliefs about the relation to nature and attitudes towards the role of the manager. *Thus, another implication of the results presented in this dissertation is the potential of empirically exploring relationships between culture and leadership, management and organisation and how these results can cast some additional light on the interpretation of cultural theories and frameworks of cultural dimensions.*

Finally, the importance of exploring the patterns within countries before conducting comparisons across countries was also demonstrated in this study. It was displayed how the items later used to operationalise empowering and coaching were identified as related to each other in a similar way within all countries in this study. Thus, they could be added together and compared across countries. However, items measuring different forms of directing were only related to each other in a similar way in a few of the countries included in this sample. Consequently, if those items had been added together, they would not be representing comparable categories or dimensions in the analysis across most of the countries in the sample, although they would be used to give the impression of comparing similar elements of interpersonal leadership across countries. *The implication for research and theory within cross-cultural management is that it is imperative to identify patterns within countries before creating constructs that are to be compared across countries to avoid comparing existing patterns with non-existing ones.* This last mentioned implication is also relevant for the operationalising and measurement of cultural dimensions, which in some cases have been

¹⁷ See chapter 8 for further discussion.

carried out without exploring the within-country patterns. Thus, the research of cultural dimensions will receive some attention below.

Some Implications for Further Research on Cultural Dimensions

Some of the cultural dimensions used in the analysis of this dissertation have been theoretically derived while others have been derived empirically. The work has been carried out by anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists and other social scientists. The question of whether relevant cultural dimensions have been identified has been raised in the cross-cultural management debate. One way of identifying other relevant dimensions is to turn to empirical comparative work at the country level; for example, Jepperson and Meyer (1991) have used communitarianism versus individualism and Catholic versus Protestant religious beliefs, in order to understand variation across countries. Thus, it is possible that religion both as embedded in political culture and as religious beliefs are of interest when analysing varying preferences for interpersonal leadership across countries. Different religious beliefs such as the view of God/s, if any, and the view of human nature could be valuable for understanding attitudes towards leadership, while how religion is practised and organised could have implications for management and organisation.

Another route is to attempt to identify and operationalise cultural dimensions “closer” to values and beliefs rather than those viewed as “expressions of culture”. Maznevski’s work measuring the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck dimensions and Schwartz’ work on values are both strong examples of working “closer” to the “cultural core”. Another type of example is MacClelland’s (1961) use of children’s stories to assess the motivation and achievement levels in societies. Children’s stories often contain values and beliefs that are seen as important to be learned, since they indicate what is good versus bad, what is right versus wrong and so forth. Consequently, text analysis of stories, fables and myths in different countries could perhaps also generate relevant cultural dimensions that are close to the cultural core of different countries.

It has been pointed out in the debate on cross-cultural methodology that researchers tend to focus on cultural dimensions that are salient in their cultural environment. In addition to the cultural bias in selection of cultural dimensions, there is also a difficulty in understanding other cultural contexts to the extent that relevant items for measuring them cannot be identified. It was observed in the review of research of cultural dimensions included in this dissertation that the items formulated to measure a collective, family, or a

group orientation as the basic unit in society were difficult to relate to a collectivistic or group orientation, for example, attitudes towards teamwork within organisations. Some researchers simply declared that a low endorsement of individualistic values would indicate collectivistic values. This could be possible, but both theoretical reasoning and empirical evidence tend to suggest that collectivism and individualism are not two end-poles of the same dimensions, but two different dimensions. The core problem in identifying relevant items is most probably that researchers from countries characterised by an individualistic-orientation have difficulties in transcending their own individualistic culture and understand the concept of collectivism or familism.

One way of handling the difficulty of formulating items for different cultural contexts is displayed in the research conducted by Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989), where general items are complemented with specific items especially formulated for each new cultural context. A second method is to draw upon local cultural resources as was done in the work by Bond and the Chinese Culture Connection (1987), where Chinese scholars were consulted about Chinese values as an alternative to the values generated in research in Western countries. A third method is to work in cross-cultural teams and thus tap the knowledge from other cultures while formulating items.

In addition to these three methods, an alternative method for generating relevant items as well as identifying comparable cultural dimensions could be to present short cases in writing (or on film) and ask people from different cultural backgrounds to describe and interpret the cases. Thus, in an explorative manner it could be possible to *identify both relevant cultural dimensions* as well as *suggestions for how they could be measured or compared*. This could be another way of making it possible for researchers to discover and explore the world outside their own cultural framework and filter, with the assistance of other people.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

One question to raise when thinking about the results of this study is what the implications are for practitioners would be. The results presented in this dissertation can be useful for a number of different categories of people, such as managers working in different

countries and for managers in charge of multi-cultural projects or teams, as well as those in organisations where plans are made to enforce a corporate culture which involves the same leadership, management, and organisation of work world-wide. Furthermore, as mentioned above, many countries are experiencing an increased diversity in the workforce and the number of managers working under such circumstances can be expected to increase. First, it is important to acknowledge that the results in this dissertation are to be viewed as models outlining the “topography” of the relationship between culture and interpersonal leadership. Thus, the results will be applicable in general, but it is not possible to assume that any one individual from one of the countries included in this study would have exactly the same preferences as outlined in the results. This would be to commit an “ecological fallacy”, which is commonly cautioned against in the literature of cross-cultural management.

With these words of caution three implications for practice will be presented below. The first focuses on the differences and similarities across country clusters, while the second advocates a recognition of how combinations of employee’ preferences that are taken for granted in one country may not be relevant in another country. Finally, it will be highlighted how knowledge of national culture can increase the understanding of employees’ preferences regarding interpersonal leadership.

Differences and Similarities in Employees’ Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership Across Country Clusters

The results presented in this dissertation indicate both differences and similarities across individual countries as well as across groups of countries, that is, the identified country clusters. First, it is critical to observe that the results regarding the individual countries as well as the preferred interpersonal leadership profiles characterising the country clusters are of most value when seen relative to each other. Thus, the most useful information is perhaps not how many times a year French employees would like their immediate managers to communicate with them, but that they prefer more frequent communication than those in Belgium, and less frequent than those in Spain.

Second, the results display patterns of differences and similarities. The countries grouped together into a cluster are characterised by similar profiles of preferred interpersonal leadership. Some of these profiles have a similar focus, although they differ on other elements of interpersonal leadership. This can be exemplified by the fact that employees in the Anglo-

American countries, that is, the United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada have a *similar* focus on coaching, but *different* preferences regarding personal communication and being praised for their work. Thus, *one of the implications of the results is that managers, by reading this dissertation, will have an understanding of in which countries employees have similar profiles of preferences regarding interpersonal leadership and of how these profiles differ across clusters of countries.*

Recognising that Combinations of Employees' Preferences Taken for Granted in One Country are not Valid in Another Country

The items of interpersonal leadership that were added together into *empowering*¹⁸ as well as those added together into *coaching*¹⁹ were seen as *related in all the countries in this study*. Consequently, “empowering” and “coaching” could be examined as two elements of interpersonal leadership, instead of using a series of separate items. However, items within the two groups of “directing” did not relate to each other in a similar way in all countries. Consequently, they could not be added together. Instead, each item was separately analysed and discussed in this dissertation.

Thus, some elements of interpersonal leadership will be perceived as related within all countries. If, for instance, employees do not want their managers to delegate responsibility to any larger extent, then they do not want their managers to share decision-making to any large extent, nor to discuss strategies, nor to appreciate advice or initiative to any larger extent. However, other elements will not be related to each other in the same way from one country to another. In some countries, for example, the employees prefer frequent supervision and frequent reviews, while in other countries they prefer frequent supervision, but not frequent reviews and vice versa, while in yet other countries they do not prefer any of the two items to be carried out frequently. *The implication of these results is that managers should beware of taking for granted that employees in different countries will have similar patterns of preferences. This is valid in this study for elements of interpersonal leadership related to*

¹⁸ That the manager should delegate responsibility, share decision-making, discuss strategies, appreciate advice, as well as the employees taking initiative were seen as related to each other in all countries and these items were added together to represent “empowering”.

directing and communicating. However, there is a high probability that a similar pattern within countries exists with regard to the elements of IPL included in empowering or coaching.

In addition, there could be contradictions in employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership according to "common knowledge" in some countries. An example of this is the common assumption that if employees want to be empowered they do not want to be supervised. This is the case in some countries, but the results in this study clearly indicate that there are countries in which employees do want to be empowered to a large extent as well as being supervised often. Another such contradiction could be that in some countries, employees who prefer to be coached to a large extent, do not think that it is necessary for frequent communication with the manager as would be expected in other countries. Consequently, *the results are useful for challenging "taken-for-granted" combinations of elements of interpersonal leadership*, since what is seen as a plausible, logical, rational or perhaps typical combination of employees' preferences in one country is perceived differently in another country.

Knowledge about National Cultural Values and Beliefs can Increase the Understanding of Employees' Preferences Regarding Interpersonal Leadership

The results presented in this dissertation indicated which strong relationships between national cultural dimensions and employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership are relevant for understanding variation in employees' expectations across countries. Knowledge of national cultural values and beliefs can increase the understanding of employees' preferences regarding interpersonal leadership. However, it would be both cumbersome and taxing on the memory to remember all the relationships discussed in this dissertation in detail. Instead, it is possible to focus on four main issues. In order to understand employees' preferences it is pertinent to examine values and beliefs about the *authority, achievement, hierarchy, role-formalisation* and *rules* as well as to what extent *individualistic and Confucian oriented values* are espoused in a country. Knowledge about the two first

¹⁹ That the manager should make the employees feel part of a team, encourage co-operation, make the employees and the department perform the utmost, as well as informing and taking an interest in employees, careers were seen as related elements of "interpersonal leadership" in all countries and these were added together and seen as representing "coaching".

cultural dimension will give a preliminary indication of employees' preferences regarding empowering, directing and personal communication, while knowledge about the latter two will give a preliminary indication of employees' preferences regarding coaching and communication²⁰.

Consequently, instead of studying cultural issues in general, or exploring a large number of cultural dimensions in detail, it is possible to use knowledge of allocation of status, organising principles and codes of conduct in terms of individualistic and Confucian values to understand employees' preferences for IPL and thereby understand the nature of the licence to lead as expressed by employees in different countries.

THE NATURE OF THE LICENCE TO LEAD

In general, the findings from this study refute the notion of a single best universal interpersonal leadership; they also oppose the belief that interpersonal leadership is uniquely person specific. Instead, national and regional patterns of "The Licence to Lead" for managers emerge from the findings as presented above. However, the results in this study do not simply point towards a differentiation in the licence to lead based on the employees preferences for IPL in terms of focus and intensity. First, it is important to emphasise that all elements of interpersonal leadership are preferred in all countries, but at a varying degree as is seen in the preferred profiles of IPL²¹. Second, although employees' preferences regarding IPL varied systematically across countries for all the elements of interpersonal leadership, it is important to mention that there were also differences in preferences for IPL across departments that were primarily related to coaching²². In addition, there were also differences in preferred IPL across work positions that were primarily related to empowering. Thus, there is a need to further study the implication for the "licence to lead" as a result of the variation in preferences

²⁰ Employees' preferences regarding being made proud of their work were related to, but not significantly, an individualistic orientation.

²¹ See table 6.7 and graph 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 in chapter 6.

²² See chapter 5 and 6 for a discussion of the results of the ANOVA analysis.

for IPL not only across nationalities, but also across other group belongings, for example, departments, work positions, age groups and gender²³.

Another question to raise is how the nature of the “licence to lead” will be influenced, if at all, by an increasingly diverse workforce in many countries. A situation could occur where the licence to lead “given” by one employee is “pep talk coaching”, by another it is “personal directing” and by a third it is “empowering coaching”. The question to raise is what the implications of these differing preferences are for manager’s interpersonal leadership. Thus, it becomes important to take the step from *comparative* leadership and management research to *cross-cultural* leadership and management, not only in labelling, but in the formulation of research objectives and projects. One way is to focus on the role of managers *in charge of multi-cultural workforces* at home as well as abroad, instead of studying single-cultural workforces. Another method is to study the nature of the licence to lead, in the form of employees’ preferences for interpersonal leadership, in multi-cultural workforces over time. How will the licence develop and change, if at all, and will there be a convergence or a divergence in preferences over time within a multi-cultural work force, are questions that need to be addressed. However, it is possible that employees of the future will not express expectations regarding “the licence to lead”, but “a licence to create” new and perhaps synergistic forms of organising work based on the multitude of requirements raised by multi-cultural workforces.

²³ Currently, there is a research project studying the existence of so-called “global groups” and their implications for the Licence to Lead (Zander, Sjögren and Romani, 1997 forthcoming). Assistant Professor Mary Yoko Brannen is focusing on negotiating different cultures in her research project together with Assistant Professor Jane E Salk. Furthermore, Professor Nakiye Boyacigeller and Professor Margaret Philips are conducting research on the different sources of cultural influence.

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APPENDIX 3: The Questionnaires

In this appendix the full four pages of the **long version** of the questionnaire used in the main sample, i.e., Kabi Pharmacia is included in British English. The **short version** used in the hold-out sample is shown in the American English version. For the other nine language versions of the long questionnaire only the front and back page are included in this appendix. The questions used in the analysis in this dissertation are positioned on these two pages. The tenth language version is shown with a short version of the questionnaire since it was only included in the hold-out sample.

The order of the language versions in this appendix are as follows:

1. British English (full four pages of the long version)
2. American English (full four pages of the short version)
3. Danish (2 pages of the long version)
4. Dutch (2 pages of the long version)
5. Finnish (2 pages of the long version)
6. French (2 pages of the long version)
7. German (2 pages of the long version)
8. Japanese (2 pages of the long version)
9. Norwegian (2 pages of the long version)
10. Spanish (2 pages of the long version)
11. Swedish (2 pages of the long version)
12. Portuguese (4 pages of the short version)



Kabi Pharmacia

What are you satisfied with and what can be improved?

Please note: "Own company" referres to market company/production company/operating company.

Start by placing a tick against...

Your own company

- 0501 United Kingdom-Kabi Pharmacia Ltd
- 0601 Ireland-Gaeleo Ltd
- 0602 Ireland-Kabi Pharmacia Ltd
- 1301 Belgium-Kabi Pharmacia International
- 1401 Netherland-Kabi Pharmacia B.V.
- 1601 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Deltac Inc.
- 1602 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Ophthalmics Inc. (Monrovia)
- 1603 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Inc. (Piscataway)
- 1604 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Inc. Parenterals Div. (Clayton)
- 1605 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Diagnostics Inc. (Fairfield)
- 1606 USA-Kabi Pharmacia Hepar Inc. (Franklin)
- 1701 Canada-Kabi Pharmacia Canada
- 1901 Australia-Kabi Pharmacia Pty Ltd
- 2001 Japan-Kabi Pharmacia KK

Other company 911-914

What is your present postion?

- 1 Manager (in charge of salaried staff)
- 2 Specialist/researcher/senior administrator
- 3 Supervisor (in charge of manual workers)
- 4 Salaried staff/professional 930
- 5 Manual/production worker

Please also tick ...

Your business unit

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltac 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics 920-929 |
|---|--|

What type of department/section do you work in?

(Tick one box only)

- 1 Factory floor/production
- 2 Laboratory/research
- 3 Engineering
- 4 Sales/marketing
- 5 Personnel/organization/communication
- 6 Finance/administration
- 7 Warehousing/distribution/transport
- 8 Other department/section 931-932

WORKING LIFE IN KABI PHARMACIA

What are you satisfied with, and what do you feel can be improved...

(Only one tick for each question)

What do you think of your present duties as regards...

- utilizing your abilities/skills
- offering variety
- offering opportunities for responsibility
- providing the chance to influence/design your job content
- acceptable work load/stress load
- appreciation of ideas and initiative
- job satisfaction

How do you feel about your immediate superior as regards...

- planning and following up assignments
- being accessible
- putting the right person in the right place
- delegating responsibility
- providing clear information
- playing an active part in associates/co-workers' personal development
- straight talking and dealing
- treating employees fairly
- criticizing constructively
- encouraging associates/co-workers'
- captaining the team, leading the team/department
- setting a good example

- being on good terms with his/her immediate superior
- being on good terms with other managers/supervisory staff
- commanding sound professional knowledge of operations

	Very satisfied today	Fairly satisfied today	Some improvement needed	Much improvement needed	Very much improvement needed	No opinion
	1	2	3	4	5	6
-utilizing your abilities/skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111				
-offering variety	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112				
-offering opportunities for responsibility	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113				
-providing the chance to influence/design your job content	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114				
-acceptable work load/stress load	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115				
-appreciation of ideas and initiative	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116				
-job satisfaction	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117				
-planning and following up assignments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131				
-being accessible	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132				
-putting the right person in the right place	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133				
-delegating responsibility	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134				
-providing clear information	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135				
-playing an active part in associates/co-workers' personal development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136				
-straight talking and dealing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137				
-treating employees fairly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138				
-criticizing constructively	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139				
-encouraging associates/co-workers'	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140				
-captaining the team, leading the team/department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141				
-setting a good example	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142				
-being on good terms with his/her immediate superior	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143				
-being on good terms with other managers/supervisory staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144				
-commanding sound professional knowledge of operations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145				

WORKING LIFE IN KABI PHARMACIA

What are you satisfied with, and what do you feel can be improved...

How would you describe the climate at work in your own company as regards...

- relations between associates/co-workers
- relations with your immediate superior (manager/supervisor)
- relations between employees and management
- relations with union officials
- taking pride in belonging to your own company
- taking pride in belonging to the Procordia Group

Very satisfied today	Fairly satisfied today	Some improvement needed	Much improvement needed	Very much improvement needed	No opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 161				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 162				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 163				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 164				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 165				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 371				

What do you think of your own company as regards...

- job security
- working hours
- shift work
- remuneration (pay, overtime pay and bonuses)
- efficient work facilities/workplaces
- pleasant premises
- staff facilities (coffee, lunch)
- opportunities for further training
- opportunities for job rotation
- opportunities for job rotation within the Procordia Group

<input type="checkbox"/> 211					
<input type="checkbox"/> 212					
<input type="checkbox"/> 213					
<input type="checkbox"/> 214					
<input type="checkbox"/> 215					
<input type="checkbox"/> 216					
<input type="checkbox"/> 217					
<input type="checkbox"/> 218					
<input type="checkbox"/> 219					
<input type="checkbox"/> 372					

- staff activities outside working hours/company sponsored activities
- management methods and practices
- profitability/financial results
- cost-awareness/efficiency
- marketing
- international experience
- ability to come up with new products/services
- further development of its existing products/services
- definition of aims and strategies
- use of modern techniques/modern plant

<input type="checkbox"/> 220					
<input type="checkbox"/> 241					
<input type="checkbox"/> 242					
<input type="checkbox"/> 243					
<input type="checkbox"/> 244					
<input type="checkbox"/> 245					
<input type="checkbox"/> 246					
<input type="checkbox"/> 247					
<input type="checkbox"/> 248					
<input type="checkbox"/> 249					

- strong and well-established trade marks
- ability to cope with future competition/be competitive
- ability to satisfy customers' requirements as to quality/service
- efficiency of organization
- efficiency of internal routines/administrative systems
- management development/training
- development of skills/staff training

<input type="checkbox"/> 250					
<input type="checkbox"/> 251					
<input type="checkbox"/> 252					
<input type="checkbox"/> 253					
<input type="checkbox"/> 254					
<input type="checkbox"/> 255					
<input type="checkbox"/> 256					

What do you think of your own company's management as regards

- playing an active and energetic role
- being open and straightforward in supplying information
- making the correct decisions
- making it clear what will be required and expected of you and of the section/department in which you work

<input type="checkbox"/> 311					
<input type="checkbox"/> 312					
<input type="checkbox"/> 313					
<input type="checkbox"/> 314					

What do you think of the information you receive on...

- your own company's strategies and plans for the future
- Kabi Pharmacia's strategies and plans for the future
- questions relating to staff policy and organization within your own company
- your own company's profitability/financial results
- Kabi Pharmacia's profitability/financial results
- your own company's working environment
- events in Kabi Pharmacia such as new products, co-operation with other companies, acquisitions etc
- activities of other Procordia companies

<input type="checkbox"/> 331					
<input type="checkbox"/> 531					
<input type="checkbox"/> 333					
<input type="checkbox"/> 334					
<input type="checkbox"/> 532					
<input type="checkbox"/> 336					
<input type="checkbox"/> 533					
<input type="checkbox"/> 373					

WORKING LIFE IN KABI PHARMACIA

What are you satisfied with, and what do you feel can be improved...

What do you think of the Information you receive from...

- your immediate superior
- your own company's management
- the Kabi Pharmacia management
- the Procordia Group management
- your own company's house journal

- the Kabi Pharmacia house journal, Pulse
- the Procordia Group house journal, Panorama International
- the Kabi Pharmacia in-house video, Focus
- bulletin boards, with news from your own company
- bulletin boards, with news from Kabi Pharmacia

What do you think of the Procordia Group as regards...

- its present organizational structure (Kabi Pharmacia, Pharmacia Biotech, United Brands, Food, Beverages and Invest)
- the mixture of companies within Kabi Pharmacia
- initiatives for co-operation between companies within Procordia
- exchange of experience between companies within Procordia
- social contacts between companies within Procordia

- utilization of the experience and knowledge of associates
- advertising/marketing activities at Procordia Group level
- staff recruitment at Procordia Group level
- staff training at Procordia Group level
- straight talking throughout the Procordia Group

Very satisfied today	Fairly satisfied today	Some improvement needed	Much improvement needed	Very much improvement needed	No opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 351				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 352				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 551				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 374				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 354				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 552				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 375				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 553				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 356				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 554				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 376				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 571				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 379				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 380				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 411				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 412				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 413				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 414				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 415				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 416				

Where do you think you will be working in 3-5 years' time?

- 1 In your own company, with the same duties 4 In another company, within the Procordia Group
 2 In your own company, with new duties 5 In another company, outside the Procordia Group
 3 In another Kabi Pharmacia company

613

Within your own company, how important is it to work on the following issues during the next 2-3 years...

- sales/marketing
- productivity/efficiency of production
- co-operation between Procordia companies
- management development/training
- development of skills/staff training
- efficiency of internal routines/administrative systems
- ability to come up with new products/services

- profitability
- international know-how/experience
- job security
- competitiveness/strong marketing positions
- working conditions

Totally unimportant	Not very important	Fairly important	Very important	Extremely important	No opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/> 621					
<input type="checkbox"/> 622					
<input type="checkbox"/> 623					
<input type="checkbox"/> 624					
<input type="checkbox"/> 625					
<input type="checkbox"/> 626					
<input type="checkbox"/> 627					
<input type="checkbox"/> 628					
<input type="checkbox"/> 629					
<input type="checkbox"/> 630					
<input type="checkbox"/> 631					
<input type="checkbox"/> 632					

How do you expect the following to develop...

- the entire Procordia Group
- your own business area Kabi Pharmacia
- your own company
- your own department/section
- you yourself, within your own company

Very poorly	Rather poorly	Indifferently	Quite well	Very well	No opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/> 841					
<input type="checkbox"/> 842					
<input type="checkbox"/> 843					
<input type="checkbox"/> 844					
<input type="checkbox"/> 845					

Have you and your manager/supervisor had any planning discussions/dialogues during the past 12 months?

1 No ↓ 2 Yes →

611

How have the planning discussions/dialogues affected your situation at work?

Very badly	Rather badly	Not at all	Quite well	Very well
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				

612

To facilitate comparison of leadership in different countries, please also answer the following questions. Please note that each question requires two ticks: one for what your immediate superior does and one for what you think your immediate superior should do.

- ① To what extent **does** your immediate superior ...
 ② To what extent **should** your immediate superior...

- delegate responsibility to you
- offer you rewards to encourage work
- influence your way of looking at your work
- encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers
- raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction
- make your department perform its utmost

① Does... (tick one box)

not at all	← →					to a very large extent
1	2	3	4	5		

② Should do... (tick one box)

not at all	← →					to a very large extent
1	2	3	4	5		

- follow up your job performance
- praise your efforts (not only the outcome)
- inform you about department/section plans and aims
- take advice from you
- share decision-making with you
- direct your department work by using rules and regulations

<input type="checkbox"/>		811				
<input type="checkbox"/>		812				
<input type="checkbox"/>		813				
<input type="checkbox"/>		814				
<input type="checkbox"/>		815				
<input type="checkbox"/>		816				

<input type="checkbox"/>		831				
<input type="checkbox"/>		832				
<input type="checkbox"/>		833				
<input type="checkbox"/>		834				
<input type="checkbox"/>		835				
<input type="checkbox"/>		836				

- recognize your good work
- try to make you feel part of a team
- formally reprimand poor performance
- appreciate you taking the initiative
- discuss company strategies with you
- take an interest in your career
- make you do your utmost

<input type="checkbox"/>		817				
<input type="checkbox"/>		818				
<input type="checkbox"/>		819				
<input type="checkbox"/>		820				
<input type="checkbox"/>		821				
<input type="checkbox"/>		822				

<input type="checkbox"/>		837				
<input type="checkbox"/>		838				
<input type="checkbox"/>		839				
<input type="checkbox"/>		840				
<input type="checkbox"/>		841				
<input type="checkbox"/>		842				

- ① How often **do/does** your immediate superior...
 ② How often **should** your immediate superior...

- and you communicate with each other
- supervise your job in detail
- take an interest in and talk about your personal life with you
- make you feel proud of your work
- review your achievements in comparison with your job objectives and expectations

① Does... (tick one box)

daily	weekly	monthly	yearly	never
1	2	3	4	5

② Should do... (tick one box)

daily	weekly	monthly	yearly	never
1	2	3	4	5

<input type="checkbox"/>	855				
<input type="checkbox"/>	856				
<input type="checkbox"/>	857				
<input type="checkbox"/>	858				
<input type="checkbox"/>	859				

<input type="checkbox"/>	861				
<input type="checkbox"/>	862				
<input type="checkbox"/>	863				
<input type="checkbox"/>	864				
<input type="checkbox"/>	865				

The Procordia Group seeks to further International exchange of experience within and between companies in the Group. It is therefore important for us to know about existing levels of International experience within the Group.

Have you or your immediate superior lived and/or worked in a country other than the one in which you are currently working for a period of more than 2 years?

Yes No

You yourself 871
 Your immediate superior 872

Are you and your immediate superior natives of the country in which you are now working?

Yes No

You yourself 873
 Your immediate superior 874

How long have you been with your own company?

- 1 Less than 1 year
 2 1 - 4 years
 3 5 - 10 years
 4 11 years or more

933

Educational background?

- 1 Primary school or equivalent
 2 Grammar school/High school (U.S.) or equivalent
 3 College/university or equivalent

936

How long have you held your present position?

- 1 Less than 1 year
 2 1 - 4 years
 3 5 - 10 years
 4 11 years or more

934

Do you work full-time or part-time?

- 1 Full-time
 2 Part-time

935

Sex?

- 1 Male
 2 Female

937

Age?

- 1 Under 25 years
 2 25-35 years
 3 36-45 years
 4 46-55 years
 5 Over 55 years

938



What type of department/section do you work in? (Check one box only!)

01 Business development/
Strategic planning

Sales & Marketing

- 11 Field sales - East zone
- 12 Field sales - West zone
- 13 Marketing Operations
- 14 Marketing

21 Human resources

Finance

- 31 Accounting
- 32 Credit/Customer service/
Administration
- 33 MIS

QA/Regulatory affairs

- 41 QC/Shipping & receiving
- 42 QA/Packaging engineer
- 43 Regulatory affairs
- 44 Documentation/GMP

Access

- 51 Access systems production
- 52 Access product development/
Research eng.
- 53 Access systems Mfg. eng./
Purchasing/Buying & planning

Infusion

Disposables production

- 61 2nd shift
1st shift
- 62 Cassette/FFS/RRR/Bag
- 63 MOLD/TPN/Matl. handling
- 64 Infusion therapy pump production
- 65 Service & repair/Distribution/Industrial eng./
Buying & planning/Purchasing
- 66 Infusion R&D eng./Project management
- 67 Advanced Mfg. eng./Quality program
manager/International sales & marketing

944-945

What is your present position?

- 1 Manager (in charge of salaried staff)
- 2 Exempt (Professional)
- 3 Supervisor (in charge of production workers)
- 4 Non-exempt (Customer Service, Clerical, Other)
- 5 Non-exempt (Production/QC/Technicians)

930

*How long have you been with your
own company?*

- 1 Less than 1 year
- 2 1- 4 years
- 3 5-10 years
- 4 11 years or more

933

*How long have you held
your present position?*

- 1 Less than 1 year
- 2 1- 4 years
- 3 5-10 years
- 4 11 years or more

934

Sex?

- 1 Male
- 2 Female

937

Age?

- 1 Under 25 years
- 2 25-35 years
- 3 36-45 years
- 4 46-55 years
- 5 Over 55 years

938

**What are you satisfied with, and what do
you feel can be improved?**

Check one box only!

	Very satisfied today	Fairly satisfied today	Some improvement needed	Much improvement needed	Very much improvement needed	No opinion	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Question 1							
<i>What do you think of your present duties as regards...</i>							
- utilizing your abilities/skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	111				
- offering variety	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	112				
- offering opportunities for responsibility	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	113				
- providing the chance to influence/design your job content	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	114				
- acceptable work load/stress load	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	115				
- appreciation of ideas and initiative	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	116				
- quality of underlying information/material supplied to you by other people/other departments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	118				
- timing of underlying information/material supplied to you by other people/other departments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	119				
Question 2							
<i>How do you feel about your supervisor as regards...</i>							
- planning and following up assignments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	131				
- being accessible	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	132				
- delegating responsibility	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	134				
- criticizing constructively	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	139				
- encouraging associates/co-workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	140				
- captaining the team, leading the team/department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	141				
- commanding sound professional knowledge of operations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	145				

What are you satisfied with, and what do you feel can be improved?

Check one box only!

Question 3

How would you describe the climate at work in your own department as regards...

- knowledge of other departments which your work involves you with
- knowledge about the way in which your department's results affect conditions in other departments
- ability to adapt your work to new conditions

Very satisfied today	Fairly satisfied today	Some improvement needed	Much improvement needed	Very much improvement needed	No opinion
----------------------	------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------	------------------------------	------------

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

- relations between associates/co-workers
- relations with your supervisor (manager/supervisor)
- relations between employees and management
- taking pride in working for your own company
- taking pride in working for the Procordia Group

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Question 4

What do you think of your own company as regards...

- job security
- remuneration (pay, overtime pay and bonuses)
- pleasant premises
- opportunities for further training
- opportunities for job rotation

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

- staff activities outside working hours/company sponsored activities
- profitability/financial results
- cost-awareness/efficiency
- marketing
- development of new products/services

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

- further development of existing products/services
- definition of aims and strategies
- strong and well-established trade marks
- ability to cope with future competition/be competitive
- ability to satisfy customers' requirements as to quality/service

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

- efficiency of organization
- efficiency of internal routines/administrative systems
- availability of technical aids to efficiency
- management's ability to play an active and energetic role
- management's ability to make correct decisions

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Question 5

What do you think of the information you receive on...

- your own company's strategies and plans for the future
- handling of questions relating to staff policy and organization
- your own company's profitability/financial results
- activities of other Procordia companies

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Question 6

What do you think of the information you receive from...

- your supervisor
- your own company's management
- the Procordia Group management
- your own company's house journal
- the Procordia Group house journal, Panorama International
- bulletin boards, with news from your own company

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Question 7

What do you think of the Procordia Group as regards...

- exchange of experience between companies within Procordia
- opportunities for changing jobs from one Procordia company to another

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Question 8

Within your own company, how important is it to work on the following issues during the next 2-3 years...

Check one box only!

	Totally unimportant	Not very important	Fairly important	Very important	Extremely important	No opinion
	1	2	3	4	5	6
- marketing	<input type="checkbox"/> 621					
- productivity/efficiency of production	<input type="checkbox"/> 622					
- management training	<input type="checkbox"/> 624					
- development of skills/staff training	<input type="checkbox"/> 625					
- efficiency of internal routines/administrative systems	<input type="checkbox"/> 626					
- ability to come up with new products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 627					
- further development of existing products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 633					
- profitability	<input type="checkbox"/> 628					
- international know-how/experience	<input type="checkbox"/> 629					
- working conditions	<input type="checkbox"/> 632					
- improvement of internal information systems	<input type="checkbox"/> 634					

Question 9

Have you and your supervisor held any planning discussions/performance evaluation discussions during the past 12 months?

How valuable have the discussions been where your work is concerned?

- 1 No \downarrow Yes, we have had
 2 one "Discussion"
 3 two "Discussions" or more \rightarrow

Very valuable	Quite valuable	Not particularly valuable	Not valuable at all
1	2	3	4
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

611

612

Question 10

How do you expect the following to develop...

- the entire Procordia Group
- your own company
- your own department/section
- you, yourself, within your own company

Very well	Quite well	Indifferently	Rather poorly	Very poorly	No opinion
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/> 641					
<input type="checkbox"/> 643					
<input type="checkbox"/> 644					
<input type="checkbox"/> 645					

Question 11

To facilitate comparison of leadership in different countries, please also answer the following questions. Please note that each question requires two checks: one for what your supervisor does and one for what you think your supervisor should do.

- ① To what extent does your supervisor...
 ② To what extent should your supervisor...

- delegate responsibility to you
- encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers
- make your department perform its utmost
- inform you about department/section plans and aims
- appreciate you taking the initiative
- make you do your utmost
- set a good example at work

① Does... (check one box)

not at all	↔		to a very large extent	
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

② Should do... (check one box)

not at all	↔		to a very large extent	
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

811

814

816

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836

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849

850

Hvad er du tilfreds med og hvad kan blive bedre?

"Din egen virksomhed " betyder den markedsvirksomhed/produktionsvirksomhed/driftvirksomhed, som du selv arbejder i.

Bygnd med at sætte et kryds ud for ...

Din egen virksomhed

- 0201 Kabi Pharmacia A/S (Hillerød)
- 0202 Kabi Pharmacia Operations A/S (Hillerød)
- 0203 Kabi Pharmacia Research Center A/S (Hillerød)
- 0204 Scan-Gum ApS (Esbjerg Ø)

Anden afdeling/sektion _____

Sæt desuden kryds ud for ...

Din afdeling/sektion

- | | |
|--|---|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltac |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking Cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-926

911-914

Hvilken slags afdeling/sektion arbejder du i?

(kun et kryds)

- 1 Fabrik/produktion
- 2 Laboratorie/forskning
- 3 Teknik
- 4 Salg/marked
- 5 Personale/organisation/kommunikationer
- 6 Økonomi/administration
- 7 Lager/distribution/transport
- 8 Anden afdeling/sektion

931-932

Hvad er din nuværende position?

- 1 Chef (for funktionærer)
- 2 Specialist/forsker
- 3 Arbejdsleder (for arbejdere)
- 4 Funktionær
- 5 Arbejder

930

ARBEJDSLIVET I KABI PHARMACIA

Hvad er du tilfreds med og hvad synes du kan blive bedre ...

(Kun et kryds pr. spørgsmål)

Hvad mener du om dine nuværende arbejdsopgaver med hensyn til at ...

- få opgaver som svarer til dine evner/kompetence
- få varierende opgaver
- få mulighed for at tage ansvar
- kunne påvirke indholdet i arbejdet
- have en acceptabel arbejdsbelastning/stressbelastning
- idéer og initiativer bliver værdsat
- føle tilfredsstillelse med arbejdet

Hvad mener du om din nærmest foresatte med hensyn til at ...

- planlægge og opfølge arbejdsopgaver
- være tilgængelig/let at nå
- anbringe ret person på rette sted
- delegere ansvar
- give tydelig information
- medvirke aktivt til medarbejdernes personlige udvikling
- være åben og ærlig
- være retfærdig
- give konstruktiv kritik
- opmuntre medarbejdere
- være leder for et team
- være et godt eksempel

- have et godt forhold til hans/hendes nærmest foresatte
- have et godt forhold til andre chefer/arbejdsledere
- have stor viden inden for det pågældende arbejdsområde

	Er særdeles godt tilfreds i dag	Er godt tilfreds i dag	Bør forbedres noget	Bør forbedres meget	Bør forbedres særdeles meget	Ved ikke
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145

Har din nærmeste chef/arbejdsleder haft en planlægnings-/udviklings samtale med dig inden for de seneste 12 måneder?

1 Nej ↙ 2 Ja →

611

Hvordan har samtalerne påvirket din arbejdssituation?

Meget negativt	Temmelig negativt	Slet ikke	Temmelig positivt	Meget positivt
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				

612

For at gøre det lettere at sammenligne lederskabet i de forskellige lande bedes du desuden besvare følgende spørgsmål. Læg mærke til, at der skal sættes to kryds ved hvert spørgsmål, et der betegner, hvad din nærmest foresatte gør og et, der betegner, hvad du synes han/hun burde gøre.

- ① I hvilken udstrækning gør din nærmest foresatte følgende...
 ② I hvilken udstrækning burde din nærmest foresatte gøre følgende...

- delegerer ansvar til dig
- tilbyder dig belønning der opmuntrer til en større arbejdsindsats
- påvirker din måde at se på arbejdet
- opmuntrer til samarbejde mellem kolleger
- råber højt for at udtrykke utilfredshed
- får din afdeling til at yde det maksimale

① Gør det... (sæt et kryds)

slet ikke ← i vældig stor udstrækning

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

② Burde gøre det... (sæt et kryds)

slet ikke ← i vældig stor udstrækning

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

- følger op dine arbejdspræstationer
- roses dine anstrengelser (ikke kun resultatet)
- oplyser om afdelingens/sektionens planer og mål
- tager imod råd fra dig
- delagtiggør dig i beslutningsprocesser
- leder din afdelings arbejde med regler og forordninger

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

- sætter pris på dine gode arbejdspræstationer
- prøver på at få dig til at føle dig som en del af et team
- giver en formel irrettesættelse p.g.a. et dårligt stykke arbejde
- værdsetter at du er initiativrig
- diskuterer virksomhedens strategier med dig
- er interesseret i din karriere/jobudvikling
- får dig til at yde det maksimale

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

- ① Hvor ofte hænder det at din nærmest foresatte ...
 ② Hvor ofte burde din nærmest foresatte ...

- og du taler/har kontakt med hinanden
- styrer dit arbejde i detaljer
- interesserer sig for og taler om dit privatliv
- får dig til at føle dig stolt over dit arbejde
- gennergår de resultater du opnår i forhold med virksomhedens mål og forventninger

① Gør det... (sæt et kryds)

hver dag hver uge hver måned hvert år aldrig

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

② Burde gøre det... (sæt et kryds)

hver dag hver uge hver måned hvert år aldrig

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

Procordia-gruppen stræber efter en større international udveksling af erfaringer inden for og mellem virksomhederne i gruppen. Det er derfor vigtigt for os at vide, i hvor stor udstrækning der allerede eksisterer international erfaring inden for gruppen.

Har du eller din nærmest foresatte boet og/eller arbejdet i et andet land end det, som du nu arbejder i, i en periode på mere end 2 år?

	Ja	Nej
Du	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Din nærmest foresatte	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Kommer du og din nærmest foresatte fra det land, hvor I arbejder i jeblikket?

	Ja	Nej
Du	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Din nærmest foresatte	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Hvor længe har du været ansat hos din nuværende arbejdsgiver? 1 Mindre end 1 år
 2 1-4 år
 3 5-10 år
 4 11 år eller længere

933

Uddannelsesmæssig baggrund? (sæt et kryds)

- 1 Folkeskole eller tilsvarende
 2 Gymnasium eller tilsvarende
 3 Universitet eller tilsvarende

936

Hvor længe har du haft din nuværende stilling?

- 1 Mindre end 1 år
 2 1-4 år
 3 5-10 år
 4 11 år eller længere

Arbejder du fuldtid eller deltid?

- 1 Fuldtid
 2 Deltid

935

Køn?

- 1 Mand
 2 Kvinde

937

Alder?

- 1 under 25
 2 25-35 år
 3 36-45 år
 4 46-55 år
 5 over 55

938

Waarover bent u tevreden en wat kan er verbeterd worden?

Opmerking: "Met uw (eigen) bedrijf" bedoelen we het marketingbedrijf/productiebedrijf/operationeel bedrijf waarvoor u werkt.

Begin met een kruisje te zetten bij...

Uw eigen bedrijf

- 1401 Kabi Pharmacia B. V. (Woerden)
- 1402 Kabi Pharmacia Produktion B. V. (Groningen)
- 1302 Kabi Pharmacia N. V. -S. A. (Brussels)

Andere bedrijf _____

Zet ook een kruisje bij

Uw bedrijfseenheid

- | | |
|--|---|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-929

In welke soort afdeling/sectie werkt u?

(Slechts één vakje aankruisen)

- 1 Fabriek/productie
- 2 Laboratorium/research
- 3 Techniek
- 4 Verkoop/marketing
- 5 Personeel/organisatie/communicatie
- 6 Economie/administratie
- 7 Voorraad/distributie/transport
- 8 Andere afdeling/sectie

911-914

Wat is uw huidige positie?

- 1 Manager (aan het hoofd van comm./admin. personeel)
- 2 Specialist/onderzoeker/senior administrateur
- 3 Supervisor (aan het hoofd van produktiemedewerkers)
- 4 Comm./admin. personeel
- 5 Handarbeider/productie

930

931-932

WERKEN BIJ KABI PHARMACIA

Waar bent u tevreden over en wat kan er volgens u verbeterd worden...

(slechts één antwoord per vraag aankruisen a.u.b.)

Wat vindt u van uw huidige taken wat betreft...

- het benutten van uw kennis/mogelijkheden
- de mogelijkheid tot afwisseling
- de mogelijkheid om verantwoordelijkheid te dragen
- de mogelijkheid om uw taakomschrijving te beïnvloeden en zelf in te vullen
- de aanvaardbaarheid van de werk/stressbelasting
- de manier waarop op uw ideeën/initiatieven wordt gereageerd
- het tevreden zijn met wat u doet

Hoe kijkt u tegen uw rechtstreekse chef aan wat betreft...

- het plannen en opvolgen van opdrachten
- het bereikbaar zijn
- het plaatsen van de juiste persoon op de juiste plaats
- het delegeren van verantwoordelijkheid
- het geven van duidelijke informatie
- het spelen van een actieve rol in de persoonlijke ontwikkeling van de medewerkers

- eerlijk zijn bij het praten en handelen
- het rechtvaardig behandelen van de medewerkers
- het geven van opbouwende kritiek
- het aanmoedigen van de medewerkers
- het leiden van het team/de afdeling
- het geven van een goed voorbeeld

- het op goede voet staan met zijn/haar onmiddellijke chef
- het op goede voet staan met andere managers/hoger management
- het bezitten van een goede vakkennis

	Erg tevreden met huidige stand van zaken	Vrij tevreden met huidige stand van zaken	Stand van zaken voor enige verbetering vatbaar	Stand van zaken voor veel verbetering vatbaar	Stand van zaken voor heel erg veel verbetering vatbaar	Geen mening
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145

Heeft uw rechtstreekse chef/supervisor gedurende de laatste 12 maanden een planning/evaluatie-gesprek met u gehouden?

1 Nee ↓ 2 Ja →

611

Welke invloed hebben deze gesprekken op uw werksituatie gehad?

Een erg slechte invloed	Een vrij slechte invloed	Geen invloed	Een vrij goede invloed	Een erg goede invloed
1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

612

Om de leiderschapsstijlen in de verschillende landen makkelijker met elkaar te kunnen vergelijken, willen we graag dat u ook de volgende vragen beantwoordt. Merk op dat u naast elke vraag twee kruisjes moet zetten: één voor wat uw rechtstreekse chef in werkelijkheid doet en één voor wat uw rechtstreekse chef volgens u zou moeten doen.

① In welke mate doet uw rechtstreekse chef het volgende...

② In welke mate zou uw rechtstreekse chef het volgende moeten doen...

- verantwoordelijkheid aan u overdragen
- u beloningen uitloven om u te stimuleren
- de manier waarop u tegen uw werk aankijkt, beïnvloeden
- samenwerking tussen medewerkers stimuleren
- zijn/haar stem verheffen om zijn/haar ontevredenheid uit te drukken
- het beste uit uw afdeling halen (wat prestaties betreft)

① Doet (kruis één vakje aan)

helemaal ← in erg hoge mate

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	811				
<input type="checkbox"/>	812				
<input type="checkbox"/>	813				
<input type="checkbox"/>	814				
<input type="checkbox"/>	815				
<input type="checkbox"/>	816				
<input type="checkbox"/>	817				
<input type="checkbox"/>	818				
<input type="checkbox"/>	819				
<input type="checkbox"/>	820				
<input type="checkbox"/>	821				
<input type="checkbox"/>	822				
<input type="checkbox"/>	823				
<input type="checkbox"/>	824				
<input type="checkbox"/>	825				
<input type="checkbox"/>	826				
<input type="checkbox"/>	827				
<input type="checkbox"/>	828				
<input type="checkbox"/>	829				

② Zou moeten doen (kruis één vakje aan)

helemaal ← in erg hoge mate

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	831				
<input type="checkbox"/>	832				
<input type="checkbox"/>	833				
<input type="checkbox"/>	834				
<input type="checkbox"/>	835				
<input type="checkbox"/>	836				
<input type="checkbox"/>	837				
<input type="checkbox"/>	838				
<input type="checkbox"/>	839				
<input type="checkbox"/>	840				
<input type="checkbox"/>	841				
<input type="checkbox"/>	842				
<input type="checkbox"/>	843				
<input type="checkbox"/>	844				
<input type="checkbox"/>	845				
<input type="checkbox"/>	846				
<input type="checkbox"/>	847				
<input type="checkbox"/>	848				
<input type="checkbox"/>	849				

- uw prestaties volgen
- uw inspanningen prijzen (niet alleen de resultaten)
- u van de plannen & doelstellingen van de afdeling op de hoogte houden
- het in acht nemen van uw advies
- u mee laten beslissing
- het werk van uw afdeling sturen door middel van regels en voorschriften

- het goede werk dat u verricht op prijs stellen
- ervoor zorgen dat u voelt dat u deel uitmaakt van een team
- u formeel berispen als u slecht presteert
- waarderen dat u het initiatief neemt
- bedrijfsstrategieën met u bespreken
- interesse betonen voor uw carrière
- het beste uit u halen

① Hoe vaak doet uw rechtstreekse chef het volgende...

② Hoe vaak zou uw rechtstreekse chef het volgende moeten doen...

- met u contact hebben/communiceren
- gedetailleerd toezicht houden op uw werk
- interesse betonen voor uw privéleven en erover praten
- ervoor zorgen dat u trots bent op uw werk
- uw prestaties evalueren aan de hand van uw doelstellingen en verwachtingen

① Doet (kruis één vakje aan)

dage-lijks weke-lijks maande-lijks jaar-lijks nooit

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	855				
<input type="checkbox"/>	856				
<input type="checkbox"/>	857				
<input type="checkbox"/>	858				
<input type="checkbox"/>	859				

② Zou moeten doen (kruis één vakje aan)

dage-lijks weke-lijks maande-lijks jaar-lijks nooit

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	861				
<input type="checkbox"/>	862				
<input type="checkbox"/>	863				
<input type="checkbox"/>	864				
<input type="checkbox"/>	865				

De Procordia Groep wil het Internationaal uitwisselen van ervaringen tussen en binnen de bedrijven van de Groep nog meer bevorderen. Daarom is het erg belangrijk dat we op de hoogte zijn van bestaande internationale ervaring binnen de Groep.

Heeft u of heeft uw rechtstreekse chef langer dan 2 jaar gewoond en/of gewerkt in een ander land dan datgene waarin u nu werkt.

Ja Nee
U 871
Uw rechtstreekse chef 872

Behoren u en uw rechtstreekse chef tot de inheemse bevolking van het land waarin u nu werkt?

Ja Nee
U 873
Uw rechtstreekse chef 874

Hoe lang werkt u al in uw bedrijf?

- 1 minder dan 1 jaar
2 1 - 4 jaar
3 5 - 10 jaar
4 11 jaar of meer

833

Opleiding?

- 1 Basisschool of gelijkwaardig
2 Middelbare school of gelijkwaardig
3 Universiteit/hogere opleiding of gelijkwaardig

836

Hoe lang heeft u uw huidige baan al?

- 1 minder dan 1 jaar
2 1 - 4 jaar
3 5 - 10 jaar
4 11 jaar of meer

834

Werkt u voltijds of deeltijds?

- 1 full-time
2 part-time

835

Geslacht?

- 1 mannelijk
2 vrouwelijk

837

Leeftijd?

- 1 jonger dan 25 jaar
2 25-35 jaar
3 36-45 jaar
4 46-55 jaar
5 ouder dan 55 jaar

838



Kabi Pharmacia

Mihin olet tyytyväinen ja missä mielestäsi on parantamisen varaa?

Huom: "Oma yritys" tarkoittaa sitä markkinointiyhtiötä/tuotantoyhtiötä/muuta yritystä, jonka palveluksessa työskentelet.

Aloita rastiittamalla ...

Oma yrityksesi

0301 Oy Kabi Pharmacia

Muu oma yrityksesi _____

Rastita lisäksi ...

Toimintayksikkösi

- | | |
|--|---|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-929

911-914

Mikä on nykyinen asemasi?

- 1 Johtaja (ylempi toimihenkilö)
 2 Asiantuntija/tutkija
 3 Työnjohtaja (työnjohtotehtävät)
 4 Toimihenkilö
 5 Työntekijä

930

Minkä tyyppisellä osastolla/tehtävässä työskentelet?

(Rastita vain yksi ruutu)

- 1 Tehdastyö/tuotanto
 2 Laboratorio/tutkimus
 3 Tekniikka
 4 Myynti/markkinointi
 5 Henkilöstö/organisaatio/tiedotus
 6 Talous/hallinto
 7 Varasto/jakelu/kuljetus
 8 Muu osasto/tehtävä

931-932

TYÖ KABI PHARMACIASSA

Mihin olet tyytyväinen ja missä mielestäsi on parantamisen varaa...

(Vain yksi rasti kuhunkin kysymykseen)

Mitä mieltä olet nykyisistä työtehtävistäsi ...

- vastaavat kykyläsi/taitojasi
- tarjoavat vaihtelua
- antavat mahdollisuuden kantaa vastuuta
- antavat mahdollisuuden vaikuttaa työn sisältöön
- työn rasittavuus/stressi on kohtuullinen
- ajatuksiasi ja aloitteitasi arvostetaan
- työtyytyväisyys

Mitä mieltä olet lähimmästä esimiehestäsi...

- osallistuminen töiden suunnitteluun ja seurantaan
- esimiehen tavoitettavuus
- esimiehen kyky asettaa oikeat henkilöt oikeisiin tehtäviin
- esimiehen kyky jakaa vastuuta
- esimiehen kyky antaa selkeitä tietoja
- esimiehen aktiivisuus työntekijöiden henkilökohtaisessa kehittämisessä

- avoimuus ja rehellisyys
- oikeudenmukaisuus
- rakentavan kritiikin antaminen
- työntekijöiden kannustaminen
- kyky toimia joukkueen johtajana
- esimerkin antaminen

- suhteet lähimpään esimieheen
- suhteet muihin esimiehiin/työnjohtajiin
- hyvä ammattitaito toiminta-alueella

	Hyvin tyytyväinen tällä hetkellä	Melko tyytyväinen tällä hetkellä	Hieman parantamisen varaa	Paljon parantamisen varaa	Enittäin paljon parantamisen varaa	Ei mieltä
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145

Onko lähin esimiehesi/työnjohtajasi keskustellut kanssasi suunnitelmiin/kehittämiseen liittyvistä asioista viimeisten 12 kuukauden aikana?

1 Ei ↓ 2 Kyllä → 611

Miten nämä keskustelut ovat vaikuttaneet työhösi?

Erittäin negatiivisesti	Melko negatiivisesti	Eivät lainkaan	Melko positiivisesti	Erittäin positiivisesti
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				

612

Jotta yritysjohton vertaaminen eri maiden välillä olisi helpompaa, pyydämme sinua vastaamaan myös seuraaviin kysymyksiin. Huomaa, että kuhunkin kysymykseen on rästittettävä kaksi vastausta: miten lähin esimiehesi toimii ja miten hänen mielestäsi pitäisi toimia.

- ① Missä määrin lähimmällä esimiehelläsi on tapana...
 ② Missä määrin lähimmän esimiehesi pitäisi...

- jakaa vastuuta sinulle
- kannustaa työtäsi palkitsemalla
- vaikuttaa työasenteisiisi
- kannustaa työntekijöitä yhteistyöhön
- ilmaista tyytymättömyytensä ääntä korottamalla
- saada osastosi tekemään parhaansa

① On tapana... (rastita yksi ruutu)

ei lainkaan ← → erittäin usein				
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

611

② Pitäisi... (rastita yksi ruutu)

ei lainkaan ← → erittäin usein				
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

631

- seurata edistymistäsi työssäsi
- kiittää ponnistelujasi (ei ainoastaan tuloksia)
- informoida sinua osastosi/tehtäväsi suunnitelmista ja tavoitteista
- pyytää sinulta neuvoja
- antaa sinulle päätösvaltaa
- ohjata osastosi työtä sääntöjä käyttämällä

<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

617

<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

637

- antaa sinulle tunnustusta hyvästä työsuorituksesta
- yrittää saada sinut tuntemaan itsesi osaksi ryhmää
- moitii heikosta työsuorituksesta
- arvostaa aloitteitasi
- keskustella yrityksen strategioista kanssasi
- tuntee kiinnostusta uraasi kohtaan
- saada sinut tekemään parhaasi

<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

623

<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

643

- ① Kuinka usein lähimmällä esimiehelläsi on tapana...
 ② Kuinka usein lähimmän esimiehesi pitäisi...

- keskustella kanssasi
- ohjata työtäsi yksityiskohtaisesti
- tuntee kiinnostusta ja keskustella kanssasi henkilökohtaisista asioistasi
- saada sinut tuntemaan ylipyyttä työstäsi
- vertailla saavutuksiasi työsi tavoitteisiin ja odotuksiin

① On tapana... (rastita yksi ruutu)

päivittäin	viikoittain	kuukausittain	vuosittain	ei koskaan
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

655

② Pitäisi... (rastita yksi ruutu)

päivittäin	viikoittain	kuukausittain	vuosittain	ei koskaan
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				

661

Procordia-konserni pyrkii laajentamaan kansainvälistä kokemusten vaihtoa sekä konsernin yritysten sisällä että niiden välillä. Sen vuoksi on tärkeää, että tiedämme konsernin nykyisten kansainvälisen kokemustason.

Oletko sinä tai lähin esimiehesi asunut ja/tai työskennellyt yli 2 vuotta nykyisen sijaintimaasi ulkopuolella?

	Kyllä	Ei	
Sinä itse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	871
Lähin esimiehesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	872

Onko sinun ja esimiehesi nykyinen sijaintimaa myös isaiinmaanne?

	Kyllä	Ei	
Sinä itse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	873
Lähin esimiehesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	874

Kulunka kauan olet työskennellyt omissa yrityksessäsä?

1 alle 1 vuoden
 2 1 - 4 vuotta
 3 5 - 10 vuotta
 4 11 vuotta tai kauemmin

933

Koulutustausta?

1 Peruskoulu tai vastaava
 2 Lukio tai vastaava
 3 Korkeakoulu/yliopisto tai vastaava

936

Kulunka kauan olet ollut nykyisessä tehtävässä?

1 alle 1 vuoden
 2 1 - 4 vuotta
 3 5 - 10 vuotta
 4 11 vuotta tai kauemmin

934

Teetkö koko- vai osa-alkatyötä?

1 Kokoaika
 2 Osa-aika

935

Sukupuoll?

1 Mies
 2 Nainen

937

Ikä?

1 alle 25 vuotta
 2 25-35 vuotta
 3 36-45 vuotta
 4 46-55 vuotta
 5 yli 55 vuotta

938

De quoi êtes-vous content actuellement, et que peut-on améliorer à l'avenir ?

Veillez observer que : "Votre propre l'entreprise" signifie l'entreprise commerciale/l'entreprise de production/l'entreprise de gestion à laquelle vous appartenez.

<p>Faites d'abord une croix en face de ... Votre propre l'entreprise</p> <p>0801 <input type="checkbox"/> Kabi Pharmacia (Guyancourt) 0802 <input type="checkbox"/> Kabi Pharmacia S/A (Limoges) 1302 <input type="checkbox"/> Kabi Pharmacia N. V. -S. A (Brussels) 1701 <input type="checkbox"/> Kabi Pharmacia Canada (Quebec) 1501 <input type="checkbox"/> Kabi Pharmacia AG (Dübendorf)</p> <p>Autre département/section _____</p> <p style="text-align: right;">911-914</p>	<p>Faites aussi une croix... Votre unité d'affaires</p> <table style="width:100%;"> <tr> <td style="width:50%;"> 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking Cessation </td> <td style="width:50%;"> 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics </td> </tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right;">920-929</p>	00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking Cessation	08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics
00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking Cessation	08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics		
<p> Dans quel département travaillez-vous ? (un seul choix possible)</p> <p>1 <input type="checkbox"/> Usine/production 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Laboratoire/recherche 3 <input type="checkbox"/> Ingénierie 4 <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing/service des ventes 5 <input type="checkbox"/> Personnel/organisation/communication 6 <input type="checkbox"/> Finance/administration 7 <input type="checkbox"/> Magasin/distribution/transport 8 <input type="checkbox"/> Autre département/section</p> <p style="text-align: right;">931-932</p>			
<p>Quelle est votre situation actuelle ?</p> <p>1 <input type="checkbox"/> Directeur (responsable d'employés) 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Spécialiste/chercheur 3 <input type="checkbox"/> Chef de service (responsable de travailleurs manuels) 4 <input type="checkbox"/> Employé 5 <input type="checkbox"/> Ouvrier</p> <p style="text-align: right;">930</p>			

ACTIVITE PROFESSIONNELLE AU SEIN DE KABI PHARMACIA

De quoi êtes-vous content actuellement, et, selon vous, que peut-on améliorer à l'avenir ?
(Un seul choix possible)

Que pensez-vous de vos tâches actuelles, concernant...

- tâches mettant à profit vos talents/compétences
- variété dans le travail accompli
- occasion de prendre des responsabilités
- faculté d'influer sur le contenu de votre travail
- volume/intensité du travail acceptable
- compte tenu des idées ou initiatives personnelles
- satisfaction obtenue dans le travail effectué

Que pensez-vous de votre supérieur immédiat, concernant...

- plan et suivi des opérations
- disponibilité
- choix d'un personnel qualifié à la place adéquate
- faculté de déléguer ses responsabilités
- information non équivoque aux subordonnés
- participation active au développement personnel des collègues

- franchise des propos et des actes
- conduite équitable
- critique constructive
- encouragements aux collègues
- direction d'équipe
- bon exemple

- bons rapports avec son/sa supérieur(e) immédiat(e)
- bons rapports avec d'autres responsables/cadres supérieurs
- bonne expérience professionnelle dans la branche

	Très content actuellement	Assez content actuellement	Certaines améliorations nécessaires	Beaucoup d'améliorations nécessaires	De grands progrès sont indispensables	Sans opinion
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
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<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145

Votre directeur/chef de service immédiat a-t-il eu avec vous un entretien au plan/développement, au cours des 12 derniers mois ?

1 Non \downarrow 2 Oui \rightarrow

611

Dans quelle mesure ces discussions ont-elles affecté votre situation professionnelle ?

Très mal	Assez mal	Pas du tout	Assez bien	Très bien
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				

612

Afin de faciliter la comparaison entre les différents pays, veuillez également répondre aux questions suivantes. Remarquez que chaque question demande deux croix : l'une pour ce que fait réellement votre supérieur immédiat, et l'autre pour ce que, selon vous, votre supérieur immédiat devrait faire.

① **Dans quelle mesure votre supérieur immédiat ...**

② **Dans quelle mesure votre supérieur immédiat devrait ...**

- vous déléguer une part de ses responsabilités
- vous offrir des récompenses pour vous encourager au travail
- influencer votre façon de voir sur l'exécution de votre travail
- encourager la coopération entre les collègues
- hausser la voix pour exprimer son mécontentement
- encourager à votre département du faire de son mieux

① **Fait... (cochez une case)**

Pas du tout \leftrightarrow Dans une large mesure

1	2	3	4	5
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② **Devrait faire... (cochez une case)**

Pas du tout \leftrightarrow Dans une large mesure

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- suivre de près vos performances dans le travail
- louer vos efforts (et non seulement le résultat atteint)
- vous informer des projets et des buts relatifs à votre département/section
- tenir compte de votre avis et de vos suggestions
- partager avec vous la prise des décisions
- diriger les travaux de votre département au moyen de directives et de règlements

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- reconnaître la qualité de votre travail accompli
- essayer de vous donner le sentiment d'appartenir à une équipe
- réprimander formellement des résultats médiocres
- apprécier la pris d'initiative
- discuter avec vous les stratégies de votre entreprise
- s'intéresser à votre carrière
- vous encourager à faire de votre mieux

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① **Quand votre supérieur immédiat fait-il...**

② **Quand votre supérieur immédiat devrait-il...**

- être en rapport avec vous
- superviser votre travail en détail
- s'intéresser à votre vie privée et en parler avec vous
- vous rendre fier de votre travail
- comparer vos prestations à vos objectifs de travail et à vos ambitions

① **Fait... (cochez une case)**

Chaque jour Chaque semaine Chaque mois Chaque année Jamais

1	2	3	4	5
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<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
<input type="checkbox"/>				
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<input type="checkbox"/>				

② **Devrait faire... (cochez une case)**

Chaque jour Chaque semaine Chaque mois Chaque année Jamais

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665

Le Groupe Procordia cherche à développer l'échange d'expérience internationale au sein des sociétés membres du Groupe et entre celles-ci. C'est pourquoi il importe pour nous de savoir quel est le niveau d'expérience internationale au sein du Groupe.

Avez-vous vous-même, ou votre supérieur immédiat a-t-il, travaillé dans une autre pays que celui-ci où vous exercez actuellement pour une période de plus de deux ans ?

Oui Non

Vous-même 671
 Votre supérieur immédiat 672

Etes-vous vous-même, ou votre supérieur immédiat originaires du le pays où vous exercez actuellement ?

Oui Non

Vous-même 673
 Votre supérieur immédiat 674

Depuis quand êtes-vous employé dans votre entreprise ?

- 1 Moins d'un an
 2 de 1 à 4 ans
 3 de 5 à 10 ans
 7. 11 ans ou plus

933

Scolarité ?

- 1 Ecole obligatoire
 2 Ecole lycée
 3 Ecole supérieure/Université ou équivalent

936

Depuis quand occupez-vous votre poste actuel ?

- 1 Moins d'un an
 2 De 1 à 4 ans
 3 De 5 à 10 ans
 4 11 ans ou plus

934

Travaillez-vous à plein temps ou non ?

- 1 à plein temps
 2 à temps partiel

935

Sexe ?

- 1 masculin
 2 féminin

937

Age ?

- 1 moins de 25 ans
 2 de 25 à 35 ans
 3 de 36 à 45 ans
 4 de 46 à 55 ans
 5 plus de 55 ans

938



Kabi Pharmacia

Womit sind Sie zufrieden und was könnte verbessert werden?

Bitte beachten: "Eigenes Unternehmen" bedeutet Marktunternehmen/Produktionsunternehmen/Tätigkeitsbereich in dem Sie arbeiten.

Beginnen Sie damit, daß Sie Ihr eigenes Unternehmen ankreuzen...

Ihr eigenes Unternehmen

- 0501 Kabi Pharmacia GmbH (Erlangen)
- 0502 Kabi Pharmacia GmbH (Plattling)
- 0601 Kabi Pharmacia Ges. m. b. H (Wien)
- 1501 Kabi Pharmacia AG (Dübendorf)

Andere Unternehmen _____

Kreuzen Sie ebenfalls bitte...

Ihr Produktbereich

- | | |
|--|---|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltac |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-929

In welcher Abteilung/welchem Bereich arbeiten Sie?
(kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an)

- 1 Betrieb/Produktion
- 2 Labor/Forschung
- 3 Technischer Bereich
- 4 Verkauf/Marketing
- 5 Personal
- 6 Finanzwesen/Verwaltung
- 7 Lager/Vertrieb/Transport
- 8 Andere Abteilung/anderer Bereich

931-932

911-914

In welcher Position arbeiten Sie derzeitig?

- 1 Manager (verantwortlich für Angestellte)
- 2 Spezialist/Forscher
- 3 Vorarbeiter/Gruppenleiter (verantwortlich für Arbeiter)
- 4 Angestellter
- 5 Arbeiter

930

ARBEITEN BEI KABI PHARMACIA

Womit sind Sie zufrieden und was könnte Ihrer Ansicht nach verbessert werden ...

(kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an)

Wie denken Sie über Ihre derzeitigen Aufgaben, in bezug auf...

- Berücksichtigung Ihrer Fähigkeiten/Fertigkeiten
- Angebot an Abwechslung
- Angebot an verantwortungsvollen Tätigkeiten
- Möglichkeit, den Aufgabenbereich zu beeinflussen
- annehmbare Arbeits-/Streßbelastung
- Anerkennung von Ideen und Initiativen
- berufliche Befriedigung

Was denken Sie über Ihren direkten Vorgesetzten, in bezug auf...

- Planung und Weiterverfolgung von Aufgaben
- Zugänglichkeit
- geeignete Mitarbeiterinteilung
- Übertragung von Verantwortung
- Vermittlung klarer Informationen
- Einsatz für die persönliche Entwicklung von Mitarbeitern

- ehrliches Verhalten
- gerechtes Verhalten
- konstruktive Kritikausübung
- Ermutigung von Mitarbeitern
- Leitung des Teams
- gutes Beispiel geben

- gutes Verhältnis zu Ihrem/seinem direkten Vorgesetzten
- gutes Verhältnis zu anderen Managern/Führungskräften
- Beherrschung von solidem Fachwissen über Arbeitsabläufe

	Derzeit sehr zufriedenstellend	Derzeit ziemlich zufriedenstellend	Einige Verbesserungen erforderlich	Viele Verbesserungen erforderlich	Sehr viele Verbesserungen erforderlich	Keine Antwort möglich
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あなたは下記の事項に満足されていますか、それとも、改善が必要と考えられておられますか？

下記事項に注意してください： ここで「会社」という場合は、販売会社/製造会社/営業会社をさしています。

<p>会社名</p> <p style="text-align: right;">913-916</p>	<p>該当する欄にX印を付けて下さい。 あなたの所属は？</p> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>00 <input type="checkbox"/> 眼科</td> <td>09 <input type="checkbox"/> 非経口剤</td> </tr> <tr> <td>01 <input type="checkbox"/> プラズマ製品</td> <td>インフュージョン</td> </tr> <tr> <td>02 <input type="checkbox"/> 心臓系統</td> <td>10 <input type="checkbox"/> 麻酔</td> </tr> <tr> <td>03 <input type="checkbox"/> ペプチド・ホルモン</td> <td>11 <input type="checkbox"/> ファーマ</td> </tr> <tr> <td>04 <input type="checkbox"/> 自己免疫</td> <td>12 <input type="checkbox"/> セルフケア</td> </tr> <tr> <td>05 <input type="checkbox"/> オンコロジー</td> <td>13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS</td> </tr> <tr> <td>06 <input type="checkbox"/> 泌尿器・産婦人科</td> <td>14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec</td> </tr> <tr> <td>07 <input type="checkbox"/> 禁煙</td> <td>15 <input type="checkbox"/> 診断薬</td> </tr> <tr> <td>08 <input type="checkbox"/> 栄養ニュートリション</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right;">920-929</p>	00 <input type="checkbox"/> 眼科	09 <input type="checkbox"/> 非経口剤	01 <input type="checkbox"/> プラズマ製品	インフュージョン	02 <input type="checkbox"/> 心臓系統	10 <input type="checkbox"/> 麻酔	03 <input type="checkbox"/> ペプチド・ホルモン	11 <input type="checkbox"/> ファーマ	04 <input type="checkbox"/> 自己免疫	12 <input type="checkbox"/> セルフケア	05 <input type="checkbox"/> オンコロジー	13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS	06 <input type="checkbox"/> 泌尿器・産婦人科	14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec	07 <input type="checkbox"/> 禁煙	15 <input type="checkbox"/> 診断薬	08 <input type="checkbox"/> 栄養ニュートリション	
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08 <input type="checkbox"/> 栄養ニュートリション																			

<p>あなたの職種をお答え下さい。 (1項目にX印を付けて下さい)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 工場現場・製造 2 <input type="checkbox"/> ラボラトリー・研究 3 <input type="checkbox"/> エンジニアリング 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 販売・マーケティング 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 人事・組織・情報管理 6 <input type="checkbox"/> 財務・総務管理 7 <input type="checkbox"/> 在庫管理・流通・輸送 8 <input type="checkbox"/> 監査・法務 9 <input type="checkbox"/> その他の部・課 <p style="text-align: right;">931-932</p>	<p>現在の職位をお答え下さい。</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> マネジャー(一般職員を部下に持つ) 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 専門家・研究者・上級管理者 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 監督(工場労働者を部下に持つ) 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 一般職員 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 工場労働者・製造従事職員 <p style="text-align: right;">930</p>
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カビ・ファルマシアにおける労働環境

<p>あなたは下記の事項に満足されていますか、 それとも、改善が必要と考えられておられますか？ (各質問に一つだけX印を付けて下さい)</p> <p>現在の職務は下記の点から見てどうですか？</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 自分の能力・実力を発揮 ● 職務内容の多様性 ● 責任の遂行の機会 ● 職務内容を独自に工夫し計画できる自由裁量の余地 ● 仕事上の負担/ストレス ● アイデアやイニシアチブの上からの評価 ● 仕事面での満足度 <p>直属の上司は下記の点から見てどうですか？</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 仕事を与える際の計画性・フォローアップ ● 近付きやすさ ● 適材適所の配置 ● 責任委譲 ● 情報提供の明確度 ● 社員の能力開発に積極的に協力 ● 率直で誠実な人柄 ● 部下の処遇の公平性 ● 建設的な注意方法 ● 部下の仕事の適切な評価・奨励 ● 部下をまとめてリーダーシップを発揮 ● 良き模範となっている ● 直属の上司とうまくいっている ● 他の管理職とうまくいっている ● 仕事内容をよく把握している 	<table border="1"> <tr> <td style="width: 12.5%;">非常に満足している</td> <td style="width: 12.5%;">やや満足している</td> <td style="width: 12.5%;">やや改善が必要である</td> <td style="width: 12.5%;">かなり改善が必要である</td> <td style="width: 12.5%;">非常に改善が必要である</td> <td style="width: 12.5%;">分らない</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> <td>4</td> <td>5</td> <td>6</td> </tr> </table>	非常に満足している	やや満足している	やや改善が必要である	かなり改善が必要である	非常に改善が必要である	分らない	1	2	3	4	5	6																																																																																																																																														
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各国のリーダーシップに関する比較を簡易化するために、下記の質問にもお答えください。質問毎に二つの欄にX印を付けてください。④
 一つは直属の上司の現在の対処の仕方に関する欄、他の一つは直属の上司に望まれる対処の仕方に関する欄です。

- ① 直属の上司は、下記事項にどのように対処していますか？
 ② 直属の上司は、下記事項にどのように対処すべきですか？

① 現在の対処の仕方 (一つの欄にX印)					
対処し ← 極めて真剣に ない 対処している					
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	611
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	612
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	613
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	614
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	615
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	616
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	617
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	618
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	619
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	620
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	621
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	622
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	623
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	624
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	625
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	626
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	627
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	628
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	629

② 望まれる対処の仕方 (一つの欄にX印)					
対処し ← 極めて真剣に ない 対処している					
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	831
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	832
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	833
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	834
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	835
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	836
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	837
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	838
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	839
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	840
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	841
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	842
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	843
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	844
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	845
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	846
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	847
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	848
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	849

- あなたに責任を委譲
- あなたに仕事を奨励する報償を提供
- あなたの仕事に対する見解に影響を与える
- 同僚同士の協力を奨励
- 不満を示すためにあなたをどなる
- あなたの所属部門が最高の実績をあげるように努力する
- あなたの実績をフォローアップする
- あなたの努力を認める(結果だけではない)
- 所属部門・課の計画・目標を、あなたに知らせる
- あなたの意見をきく
- 決定に関してあなたと相談する
- 規則や規定にしたがってあなたの所属部門の仕事を指示する
- あなたの仕事が好成績であることを認める
- あなたがチームの一員であることを感じさせるようにする
- あなたの成績が悪いと、叱責する
- あなたがイニシアチブをとることを高く評価する
- 会社の企業戦略をあなたと話し合う
- あなたのキャリアに関心をもつ
- あなたが実力を発揮できるようにする

- ① 直属の上司は、下記事項にどの程度対処していますか？
 ② 直属の上司は、下記事項にどの程度対処すべきですか？

① 現在の対処の仕方 (一つの欄にX印)					
毎日	毎週	毎月	毎年	皆無	
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	855				
<input type="checkbox"/>	856				
<input type="checkbox"/>	857				
<input type="checkbox"/>	858				
<input type="checkbox"/>	859				

② 望まれる対処の仕方 (一つの欄にX印)					
毎日	毎週	毎月	毎年	皆無	
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	861				
<input type="checkbox"/>	862				
<input type="checkbox"/>	863				
<input type="checkbox"/>	864				
<input type="checkbox"/>	865				

- 互いに話をする(ファックス・電話)
- あなたの仕事に関して詳細に指導する
- あなたの私生活について関心を持ち、その話をする
- あなたが自分の仕事に誇りを感じさせるようにする
- あなたの仕事の成果を目標や予想と比較して評価する

プロコルディア・グループでは、グループ傘下の社内あるいはグループ各社間の、より一層の国際的な経験の交流をめざしています。その基礎条件をつくるために、現在、グループ内における国際的な経験交流がどの程度行われているかを知ることが大切です。

あなたまたはあなたの直属の上司は、過去に2年間以上、いま働いている国以外の国で生活したり働いた経験をお持ちですか？

	いいえ	はい	
あなた自身	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	871
あなたの直属の上司	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	872

あなたまたはあなたの直属の上司は、あなたが現在働いている国の人ですか？

	いいえ	はい	
あなた自身	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	873
あなたの直属の上司	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	874

勤務年数をお答えください。

1 <input type="checkbox"/> 1年未満	3 <input type="checkbox"/> 5~10年	
2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1~4年	4 <input type="checkbox"/> 11年以上	933

学歴に関してお答えください。

1 <input type="checkbox"/> 中卒またはそれに相当する教育	
2 <input type="checkbox"/> 高卒またはそれに相当する教育	
3 <input type="checkbox"/> 短大卒・大卒またはそれに相当する教育	936

現在の職位になって何年たちますか？

常勤ですかパートですか？		
1 <input type="checkbox"/> 1年未満	2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1年未満	
2 <input type="checkbox"/> 1~4年	1 <input type="checkbox"/> 1~4年	
3 <input type="checkbox"/> 5~10年	3 <input type="checkbox"/> 5~10年	
4 <input type="checkbox"/> 11年以上	4 <input type="checkbox"/> 11年以上	935

あなたの性別は？

1 <input type="checkbox"/> 男性	
2 <input type="checkbox"/> 女性	

あなたの年齢は？

1 <input type="checkbox"/> 25歳以下	4 <input type="checkbox"/> 46~55歳
2 <input type="checkbox"/> 25~35歳	5 <input type="checkbox"/> 55歳以上
3 <input type="checkbox"/> 36~45歳	

あなたとあなたの上司は、過去12か月の間に仕事の計画に関する話し合いをしたことがありますか？

1 <input type="checkbox"/> いいえ	2 <input type="checkbox"/> はい	
		611

その話し合いは、あなたの勤務状況にどのような影響を与えましたか？

非常に悪影響	やや悪影響	影響なし	やや好影響	非常に好影響
1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>



Hva er du fornøyd med og hva kan bli bedre?

Merk: "Ditt eget selskap" betyr det markedsføringselskapet/produksjonsselskapet/driftsselskapet som du selv arbeider for.

Start ved å sette kryss for ...

Ditt eget selskap

- 0101 Kabi Pharmacia A/S (Oslo)
 0102 Kabi Pharmacia Infusjon A/S (Halden)

Annet selskap _____

911-914

Sett også kryss for ...

Ditt forretningsområde

- | | |
|--|---|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltac |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-929

Hvilken avdeling/seksjon arbeider du i?

(kun ett kryss)

- 1 Fabrikk/produksjon
 2 Laboratorium/forskning
 3 Teknikk
 4 Salg/marked
 5 Personale/organisasjon/kommunikasjon
 6 Økonomi/administrasjon
 7 Lager/distribusjon/transport
 8 Annen avdeling/seksjon

931-932

Hva er din nåværende stilling?

- 1 Sjef (for funksjonærer)
 2 Spesialist/forsker
 3 Arbeidsleder (for produksjonsoperatør)
 4 Funksjonær/kontorassistent/sekretar
 5 Timelønnet/produksjonsoperatør

930

Å ARBEIDE FOR KABI PHARMACIA

Hva er du fornøyd med og hva synes du bør bli bedre ...

(Bare ett kryss pr. spørsmål)

Hva synes du om dine nåværende arbeidsoppgaver når det gjelder å ...

- få oppgaver som svarer til dine evner/din kompetanse
- få varierende oppgaver
- få ta ansvar
- kunne påvirke innholdet i arbeidet
- ha en akseptabel arbeidsbelastning/stress
- føle at man setter pris på idéer og initiativ
- føle tilfredsstillelse med arbeidet

Er meget fornøyd i dag	Er ganske fornøyd i dag	Bør forbedres noe	Bør skjedd store forbedringer	Bør skjedd svært store forbedringer	Ingen oppfatning
------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------------	-------------------------------------	------------------

1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/> 111					
<input type="checkbox"/> 112					
<input type="checkbox"/> 113					
<input type="checkbox"/> 114					
<input type="checkbox"/> 115					
<input type="checkbox"/> 116					
<input type="checkbox"/> 117					

Hva synes du om din nærmeste sjef når det gjelder å ...

- planlegge og følge opp arbeidet
- være tilgjengelig/lett å få tak i
- sette rett person på rett plass
- være dyktig til å delegere
- gi tydelig informasjon
- medvirke aktivt til medarbeidernes personlige utvikling

<input type="checkbox"/> 131					
<input type="checkbox"/> 132					
<input type="checkbox"/> 133					
<input type="checkbox"/> 134					
<input type="checkbox"/> 135					
<input type="checkbox"/> 136					

- være åpen og ærlig
- være rettfærdig
- gi konstruktiv kritikk
- oppmuntre medarbeiderne
- være en lagleder
- være et forbilde

<input type="checkbox"/> 137					
<input type="checkbox"/> 138					
<input type="checkbox"/> 139					
<input type="checkbox"/> 140					
<input type="checkbox"/> 141					
<input type="checkbox"/> 142					

- ha et godt forhold til sin egen nærmeste sjef
- ha et godt forhold til andre sjefer/arbeidsledere
- ha høy yrkeskunnskap innenfor eget virksomhetsområde

<input type="checkbox"/> 143					
<input type="checkbox"/> 144					
<input type="checkbox"/> 145					

¿Con qué está contento y qué puede mejorarse?

NOTA. "Empresa propia" es la empresa en la que trabaja Vd.

Empiece poniendo una marca junto... al nombre de su empresa
 1001 Kabi Pharmacia S. A. (Barcelona)

Otra empresa _____

911-914

¿Qué cargo tiene actualmente?

1 Dirección/Mandos con personal a cargo
 2 Técnico, especialista, investigador, administrativo cualificado
 3 Supervisor (en fábrica)
 4 Personal oficinas/Personal de ventas
 5 Personal de fábrica

930

Marque también... su unidad comercial

00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics	08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition
01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products	09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion
02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular	10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia
03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones	11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma
04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity	12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care
05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology	13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS
06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology	14 <input type="checkbox"/> Detec
07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking cessation	15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics

920-929

¿En qué departamento/sección trabaja?
 (marcar sólo una casilla)

1 Fábrica/producción
 2 Laboratorio/investigación
 3 Técnico
 4 Ventas/marketing
 5 Personal/organización/comunicación
 6 Finanzas/administración
 7 Almacén/distribución/compras/logística
 8 Otros departamentos/secciones

931-932

EL TRABAJO EN KABI PHARMACIA

Indique con lo que está satisfecho y lo que puede mejorarse. (Sólo una marca para cada pregunta)	Muy satisfecho actualmente	Bastante satisfecho actualmente	Podría mejorar	Necesaria una mejora	Muy necesaria una mejora	No opina
	1	2	3	4	5	6
¿Qué opina sobre sus tareas actuales en cuanto a...						
-el aprovechamiento de sus capacidades	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
-la variedad de tareas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
-el tener responsabilidad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
-el poder influir sobre el contenido del trabajo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
-nivel aceptable de volumen de trabajo/estrés	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
-que aprecien ideas e iniciativas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116
-la satisfacción en el trabajo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 117
¿Qué opina sobre su inmediato jefe en cuanto a...						
-la planificación y seguimiento de tareas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
-la accesibilidad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
-la persona correcta en el lugar correcto	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 133
-la delegación de responsabilidad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
-proporcionar información clara	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 135
-contribuir activamente al desarrollo personal de los compañeros de trabajo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 136
-comportamiento íntegro	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 137
-comportamiento justo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 138
-críticas constructivas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
-alentar a sus colegas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
-capacidad de liderazgo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
-ser un buen ejemplo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 142
-llevarse bien con el jefe más próximo	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 143
-llevarse bien con otros jefes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 144
-tener buenos conocimientos profesionales	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145



Vad är Du nöjd med och vad kan bli bättre?

Börja med att pricka för vilket enhet/företag som Du idag arbetar inom.

- 2401 Therapeutics
- 2402 Parenterals
- 2403 Peptide Hormones
- 2404 Ophthalmics
- 2405 Deltec
- 2406 Diagnostics
- 2407 Plasma Products
- 2408 Smoking Cessation/Rökavvänjning
- 2409 BioScience Center
- 2410 MB, Kabi Pharmacia Sverige
- 2411 Regional service, Uppsala
- 2412 Regional service, Stockholm
- 2413 Stabsfunktioner

Annat företag/enhet _____ 911-914

Nuvarande befattning?

- 1 Chef (över tjänstemän)
- 2 Specialist/forskare/högere stabstjänsteman
- 3 Arbetsledare (över arbetare/kollektivanställda)
- 4 Tjänsteman
- 5 Arbetare/kollektivanställd

930

Pricka även för den affärsenhet Du arbetar på (i de fall det är aktuellt)...

- | | |
|--|--|
| 00 <input type="checkbox"/> Ophthalmics | 08 <input type="checkbox"/> Nutrition |
| 01 <input type="checkbox"/> Plasma Products | 09 <input type="checkbox"/> Infusion |
| 02 <input type="checkbox"/> Cardiovascular | 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Anaesthesia |
| 03 <input type="checkbox"/> Peptide Hormones | 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Pharma |
| 04 <input type="checkbox"/> Autoimmunity | 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Self Care/Egenvård |
| 05 <input type="checkbox"/> Oncology | 13 <input type="checkbox"/> CNS |
| 06 <input type="checkbox"/> Urology/Gynecology | 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Deltec |
| 07 <input type="checkbox"/> Smoking Cessation | 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Diagnostics |

920-929

Vilken avdelning/funktion arbetar Du på?

(Endast ett kryss)

- 1 Fabrik/produktion
- 2 Laboratorium/forskning
- 3 Teknik
- 4 Marknad/försäljning
- 5 Personal/organisation/information
- 6 Ekonomi/administration/data
- 7 Lager/distribution/transport
- 8 Annan avdelning/funktion

931-932

ATT ARBETA INOM KABI PHARMACIA

Vad är Du nöjd med och vad tycker Du kan förbättras?

(Markera Ditt svar med endast ett kryss per fråga)

Vad tycker Du om Dina nuvarande arbetsuppgifter när det gäller att...

- ha arbetsuppgifter som tillvaratar det Du är bra på/Din kompetens
- ha varierande arbetsuppgifter
- få ta ansvar
- kunna påverka arbetets innehåll
- ha en acceptabel arbetsbelastning/stress
- känna att idéer och initiativ uppskattas
- känna tillfredsställelse med arbetet

Är mycket nöjd med idag	Är ganska nöjd med idag	Bör förbättras något	Bör ske stora förbättringar	Bör ske avsevärda förbättringar	Ingen uppfattning
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Hur är Din närmaste chef/arbetsledare när det gäller att...

- planera och följa upp arbetet
- vara tillgänglig/lätt att nå
- sätta rätt person på rätt plats
- vara bra på att delegera ansvar
- ge tydlig information
- medverka aktivt till medarbetarnas personliga utveckling
- vara öppen och ärlig
- vara rättvis
- ge konstruktiv kritik
- uppmuntra sina medarbetare
- vara en lagledare
- vara ett föredöme
- ha bra förankring hos närmaste chef
- ha bra förankring bland andra chefer/arbetsledare
- ha hög yrkeskunskap inom verksamhetsområdet

<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
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<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					
<input type="checkbox"/>					

Har Du och Din närmaste chef/arbetsledare haft något planeringssamtal under de senaste 12 månaderna?

1 Nej ↓ 2 Ja →

611

På vilket sätt har planeringssamtalen påverkat Din arbetssituation?

Mycket negativt	Ganska negativt	Har ej påverkat	Ganska positivt	Mycket positivt
1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>				

612

För att underlätta jämförelser av ledarskap mellan olika länder, ber vi Dig att också besvara följande frågor. OBS! Varje fråga skall besvaras med två kryss, ett för vad Din närmaste chef gör idag och ett för vad Du anser att Din närmaste chef borde göra.

① I vilken omfattning gör Din närmaste chef följande ...

② I vilken omfattning borde Din närmaste chef göra följande ...

- delegera(r) ansvar till Dig
- erbjuder/erbjuder Dig belöningar för att uppmuntra till bättre arbetsprestationer
- påverka(r) Ditt sätt att se på Ditt arbete
- uppmuntra(r) samarbete mellan kollegor/medarbetare
- höjer/höja rösten för att visa sitt missnöje
- får(r) avdelningen att prestera sitt allra bästa
- följer/följa upp Dina arbetsprestationer
- berömmar/berömma ansträngningen i Din arbetsinsats (inte bara resultatet)
- informera(r) Dig om avdelningens planer och målsättningar
- ta(r) hänsyn till Dina råd/förslag
- låter/låta Dig delta i beslutsfattandet
- leder/leda Din avdelnings arbete med regler och förordningar
- uppmärksammar(r) när Du gjort ett bra jobb
- försöker/försöka få Dig att känna delaktighet i ett lag/team
- ge(r) en skarp tillsägelse vid dåligt utfört arbete
- uppskatta(r) att Du tar egna initiativ
- diskuterar(r) företagets strategier med Dig
- visa(r) intresse för Din utveckling i arbetet/karriär
- får(r) Dig att prestera Ditt allra bästa

① Gör... (ett kryss)

inte alls ← i mycket stor omfattning

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	811				
<input type="checkbox"/>	812				
<input type="checkbox"/>	813				
<input type="checkbox"/>	814				
<input type="checkbox"/>	815				
<input type="checkbox"/>	816				
<input type="checkbox"/>	817				
<input type="checkbox"/>	818				
<input type="checkbox"/>	819				
<input type="checkbox"/>	820				
<input type="checkbox"/>	821				
<input type="checkbox"/>	822				
<input type="checkbox"/>	823				
<input type="checkbox"/>	824				
<input type="checkbox"/>	825				
<input type="checkbox"/>	826				
<input type="checkbox"/>	827				
<input type="checkbox"/>	828				
<input type="checkbox"/>	829				

② Borde göra... (ett kryss)

inte alls ← i mycket stor omfattning

1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	831				
<input type="checkbox"/>	832				
<input type="checkbox"/>	833				
<input type="checkbox"/>	834				
<input type="checkbox"/>	835				
<input type="checkbox"/>	836				
<input type="checkbox"/>	837				
<input type="checkbox"/>	838				
<input type="checkbox"/>	839				
<input type="checkbox"/>	840				
<input type="checkbox"/>	841				
<input type="checkbox"/>	842				
<input type="checkbox"/>	843				
<input type="checkbox"/>	844				
<input type="checkbox"/>	845				
<input type="checkbox"/>	846				
<input type="checkbox"/>	847				
<input type="checkbox"/>	848				
<input type="checkbox"/>	849				

① Hur ofta händer det att Din närmaste chef ...

② Hur ofta bör Din närmaste chef ...

- och Du samtala(r) / ha(r) kontakt med varandra
- detaljstyr(a) Ditt arbete
- intressera(r) sig för och tala(r) med Dig om mer personliga saker
- får(r) Dig att känna Dig stolt över Ditt arbete
- utvärdera(r) Dina arbetsinsatser i jämförelse med förväntningar och mål

① Gör... (ett kryss)

Någon gång ...

varje dag	i veckan	i månaden	om året	aldrig	
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	855				
<input type="checkbox"/>	856				
<input type="checkbox"/>	857				
<input type="checkbox"/>	858				
<input type="checkbox"/>	859				

② Borde göra... (ett kryss)

Någon gång ...

varje dag	i veckan	i månaden	om året	aldrig	
1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	861				
<input type="checkbox"/>	862				
<input type="checkbox"/>	863				
<input type="checkbox"/>	864				
<input type="checkbox"/>	865				

Procordiakoncernen strävar efter ett ökat internationellt erfarenhetsutbyte inom och mellan olika Procordiabolag. Det är därför viktigt att få reda på vilken internationell erfarenhet som finns inom koncernen idag.

Har Du eller Din närmaste chef bott och/eller arbetat, i mer än två år, i ett annat land än där Du nu arbetar?

Ja Nej

Du själv 871
Din närmaste chef 872

Är Du och Din närmaste chef födda i det land där Du nu arbetar?

Ja Nej

Du själv 873
Din närmaste chef 874

Hur länge har Du varit anställd hos Din nuvarande arbetsgivare? 1 Mindre än ett år

2 1 - 4 år
3 5 - 10 år
4 11 år eller mer

933

Formell utbildning? (ett kryss)

- 1 Grundskola eller motsvarande
2 Gymnasium eller motsvarande
3 Högskola/Universitet eller motsvarande

936

Hur länge har Du innehaft Din nuvarande befattning?

1 Mindre än ett år
2 1 - 4 år
3 5 - 10 år
4 11 år eller mer

934

Arbetar Du hel- eller deltid?

1 Heltid
2 Deltid

935

Kön?

1 Man
2 Kvinna

937

Ålder?

1 Under 25 år
2 25-35 år
3 36-45 år
4 46-55 år
5 Över 55 år

938


PROCORDIA
PULSE

0000

911-914

Em que tipo de departamento/secção trabalha?
Assinale só um quadrado!

- 01 Fábrica/Produção
- 02 Laboratório/Pesquisa
- 03 Engenharia
- 11 Marketing
- 12 Vendas
- 13 Pessoal
- 14 Informação
- 06 Finanças/Administração/Processamento de dados
- 07 Armazenagem/Distribuição/Transporte
- 99 Outro departamento/secção

931-932

Qual é o seu cargo actual?

- 1 Gestor (a cargo de pessoal assalariado)
- 2 Especialista/Investigador
- 3 Supervisor (a cargo de operários)
- 4 Pessoal assalariado/Profissional
- 5 Operário/Empregado no sector de produção 930

Há quanto tempo trabalha para a sua empresa?

- 1 Menos de 1 ano
- 2 1 - 4 anos
- 3 5 - 10 anos
- 4 11 ou mais anos 933

Há quanto tempo desempenha o seu cargo actual?

- 1 Menos de 1 ano
- 2 1 - 4 anos
- 3 5 - 10 anos
- 4 11 ou mais anos 934

Sexo?

- 1 Masculino
- 2 Feminino

Idade?

- 1 Menos de 25 anos
- 2 25-35 anos
- 3 36-45 anos
- 4 46-55 anos
- 5 Mais de 55 anos 938

Com o que é que está satisfeito e o que é que poderia ser melhorado?

Pergunta 1

O que pensa das suas tarefas actuais relativamente aos pontos seguintes...

- permitem utilizar as suas capacidades/qualificações
- proporcionam variedade
- proporcionam oportunidades de responsabilidade
- proporcionam oportunidade de influenciar/modelar o conteúdo das suas tarefas
- volume de trabalho/stress aceitável

- apreço pelas suas ideias e iniciativas
- qualidade dos dados/materiais que lhe são fornecidos por outras pessoas/departamentos
- os dados/materiais que lhe são fornecidos por outras pessoas/departamentos são-lhe fornecidos na altura devida?

Pergunta 2

O que acha do seu superior hierárquico imediato relativamente aos pontos seguintes...

- planeamento e acompanhamento de tarefas atribuídas
- acessibilidade
- delegação de responsabilidade
- críticas construtivas

- apoio a colegas/colaboradores
- chefia da equipa, liderança da equipa/departamento
- posse de conhecimento sólido e profissional das operações

Só um sinal para cada pergunta!

Muito satisfeito presente-mente	Bast-ante satisfeito presente-mente	Algum melhora-mento neces-sário	Muito melhora-mento neces-sário	Muitis-simo melhora-mento neces-sário	Sem opinião formada
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 111
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 112
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 113
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 114
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 115
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 116
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 118
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 119
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 131
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 132
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 134
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 139
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 140
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 141
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 145

Com o que é que está satisfeito e o que é que poderia ser melhorado?

Pergunta 3

Como é que descreveria o clima de trabalho no seu departamento relativamente a...

- conhecimento de outros departamentos com os quais tem que contactar em virtude do seu trabalho
- conhecimento da forma como os resultados do seu departamento afectam as condições de outros departamentos
- capacidade de adaptar o seu trabalho a novas condições
- relações entre colegas/colaboradores
- relações com o seu superior hierárquico imediato (gestor/supervisor)
- relações entre os empregados e a gestão
- orgulho em trabalhar para a sua empresa
- orgulho em trabalhar para o Grupo Procordia

Pergunta 4

O que pensa da sua empresa relativamente a...

- segurança de emprego
- remuneração (salário, horas extraordinárias e gratificações)
- instalações agradáveis
- oportunidades para continuar a receber formação profissional
- oportunidades de rotação de tarefas
- actividades para o pessoal fora das horas de trabalho/actividades patrocinadas pela empresa
- rentabilidade/resultados financeiros
- consciência de custos/eficiência
- marketing
- desenvolvimento de novos produtos/serviços
- continuação de desenvolvimento dos produtos/serviços existentes
- definição de objectivos e estratégias
- marcas registadas fortes e bem estabelecidas
- capacidade de fazer face à concorrência internacional
- capacidade de satisfazer as necessidades dos clientes em matéria de qualidade/serviço
- eficiência de organização
- eficiência das rotinas internas/sistemas administrativos
- disponibilidade de equipamento técnico auxiliar que aumente a eficiência
- capacidade da gestão de desempenhar um papel activo e enérgico
- capacidade da gestão para tomar decisões correctas

Pergunta 5

O que pensa das informações que recebe sobre...

- as estratégias e planos da sua empresa para o futuro
- tratamento de questões relativas a política de pessoal e organização
- a rentabilidade/resultados financeiros da sua empresa
- actividades das outras empresas Procordia

Pergunta 6

O que acha das informações que lhe são proporcionadas por...

- o seu superior hierárquico imediato
- a gestão da sua empresa
- a gestão do Grupo Procordia
- o jornal da sua empresa
- o jornal do Grupo Procordia, Panorama International
- quadros de afixação de notícias da sua empresa

Pergunta 7

O que pensa do Grupo Procordia relativamente a...

- intercâmbio de experiências entre empresas no interior do Grupo Procordia
- oportunidades de troca de empregos, mediante transferência de uma empresa Procordia para outra

Só um sinal para cada pergunta!

	Muito satisfeito presente-mente	Bastante satisfeito presente-mente	Algum melhora-mento neces-sário	Muito melhora-mento neces-sário	Muitis-simo melhora-mento necessário	Sem opinião formada
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 166
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 167
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 168
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 161
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 162
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 163
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 165
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 371
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 211
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 214
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 216
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 218
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 219
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 220
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 242
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 243
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 244
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 246
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 247
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 248
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 250
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 251
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 252
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 253
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 254
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 257
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 311
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 313
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 331
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 333
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 334
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 373
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 351
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 352
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 374
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 354
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 375
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 356
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 380
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 372

Pergunta 8

Qual é a importância, dentro da sua empresa, de trabalhar nas seguintes áreas durante os próximos 2-3 anos...

- marketing
 - produtividade/eficiência da produção
 - formação em gestão
 - desenvolvimento de técnicas/formação de pessoal
 - eficiência de rotinas internas/sistemas administrativos
 - desenvolvimento de novos produtos/serviços
-
- continuação do desenvolvimento dos produtos/serviços existentes
 - rentabilidade
 - know-how/experiência internacionais
 - condições de trabalho
 - melhoria dos sistemas de informação interna

Assinale só uma resposta a cada pergunta!

Não é muito importante	Bastante importante	Muito importante	Extremamente importante	Uma das questões mais importantes	Sem opinião formada
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 621				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 622				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 624				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 625				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 626				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 627				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 633				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 628				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 629				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 632				
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 634				

Pergunta 9

Você e o seu gestor/supervisor tiveram algumas trocas de "Impressões/diálogos" sobre planeamento nos últimos 12 meses?

- 1 Não ↓ Sim, tivemos
 2 uma vez
 3 duas ou mais vezes

Até que ponto é que estas trocas de "Impressões/diálogos" foram proveitosos para o seu trabalho?

Muito proveitosos	Bastante proveitosos	Não foram especialmente proveitosos	Não foram nada proveitosos
1	2	3	4
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

611

612

Pergunta 10

Como pensa que irá continuar a desenvolver-se...

- todo o Grupo Procordia
- a sua empresa
- o seu departamento/secção
- você próprio, dentro da sua empresa

Muito bem	Bastante bem	Mais ou menos	Bastante mal	Muito mal	Sem opinião formada
1	2	3	4	5	6
<input type="checkbox"/> 641					
<input type="checkbox"/> 643					
<input type="checkbox"/> 644					
<input type="checkbox"/> 645					

Pergunta 11

Por favor note que para cada pergunta precisa de assinalar duas respostas: uma para o que o seu superior hierárquico faz e a outra para o que você pensa que o seu superior hierárquico devia fazer.

- ① Até que ponto é que o seu superior hierárquico imediato (faz) o seguinte...
 ② Até que ponto é que o seu superior hierárquico imediato (devia fazer) o seguinte

- delegar-lhe responsabilidade
- encorajar cooperação entre colegas/colaboradores
- fazer o seu departamento alcançar o melhor desempenho possível
- informá-lo sobre os planos e objectivos do departamento/secção
- gostar que você tome iniciativas
- fazê-lo dar o seu máximo
- dar um bom exemplo no trabalho

① Faz... (assinale um quadrado)					② Devia fazer... (assinale um quadrado)					
não faz de todo ← faz de uma maneira geral					não faz de todo ← faz de uma maneira geral					
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	811
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	814
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	816
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	819
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	826
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	829
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	830

APPENDIX 5.1: Ordering Effect (MAIN SAMPLE)

Table 5.1.1: Intensity Orders - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (country*)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	84.3	initiative	78.5	initiative	82.8	delegate	81.8
advice	77.8	advice	71.6	delegate	82.8	initiative	77.4
delegate	76.7	delegate	67.9	decision-making	80.0	decision-making	75.8
decision-making	68.1	decision-making	65.4	strategies	56.7	strategies	64.5
strategies	51.0	strategies	56.4	advice	46.4	advice	57.6

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
decision-making	73.9	initiative	74.7	initiative	83.3	initiative	88.9
delegate	73.9	advice	69.5	decision-making	80.6	delegate	81.6
advice	69.9	decision-making	69.9	strategies	80.0	advice	78.4
initiative	65.0	delegate	62.8	delegate	78.9	strategies	68.6
strategies	51.6	strategies	60.2	advice	63.9	decision-making	69.4

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Spain</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	81.8	initiative	80.3	initiative	67.9	advice	80.5
strategies	76.7	advice	75.8	delegate	67.8	delegate	73.5
delegate	76.7	strategies	68.9	decision-making	50.9	decision-making	72.2
advice	68.3	decision-making	62.2	strategies	49.7	initiative	70.5
decision-making	68.2	delegate	51.6	advice	45.7	strategies	58.3

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>Australia**</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Canada**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	86.9	delegate	84.4	initiative	82.4	initiative	83.3
delegate	80.4	initiative	77.8	delegate	75.1	advice	71.0
strategies	74.0	strategies	71.4	decision-making	70.0	decision-making	69.0
decision-making	71.3	decision-making	64.3	strategies	68.6	strategies	64.5
advice	59.3	advice	59.3	advice	64.9	delegate	59.5

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale, **n<100

Table 5.1.2: Intensity Orders - Influence and Control (country)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
follow-up	68.7	follow-up	55.6	follow-up	76.7	reward	75.8
reward	54.4	influence	49.1	reward	71.0	follow-up	72.2
influence	40.9	reward	44.1	influence	71.0	influence	48.5
rules	26.2	rules	41.4	supervise	20.7	supervise	25.0
supervise	21.2	review	39.5	rules	16.7	rules	18.8
review	14.3	supervise	28.4	review	10.7	review	12.1

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
follow-up	59.4	reward	54.6	reward	56.8	follow-up	63.9
supervise	52.0	supervise	38.9	follow-up	54.1	reward	54.1
influence	46.3	influence	50.8	influence	48.6	rules	51.4
reward	41.5	follow-up	55.3	rules	41.7	supervise	54.4
rules	24.2	rules	48.5	supervise	33.3	influence	36.1
review	18.3	review	25.0	review	13.5	review	24.2

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Spain</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
follow-up	75.0	follow-up	71.9	follow-up	65.2	follow-up	76.3
reward	60.0	reward	59.6	supervise	64.2	reward	67.5
influence	45.5	supervise	44.7	rules	58.3	influence	67.3
supervise	44.4	influence	33.6	reward	49.8	rules	64.9
rules	18.2	rules	30.1	review	41.5	supervise	50.3
review	14.0	review	10.9	influence	39.1	review	14.7

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>Australia**</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Canada**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
follow-up	79.5	follow-up	64.3	follow-up	76.8	follow-up	90.3
reward	67.5	reward	42.9	reward	57.9	reward	83.9
influence	54.5	influence	39.3	influence	56.9	influence	67.7
supervise	30.6	supervise	35.7	rules	48.0	rules	50.0
rules	26.0	rules	14.3	supervise	46.2	supervise	39.4
review	10.7	review	3.7	review	17.2	review	15.6

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale, **n<100

Table 5.1.3: Intensity Orders - Positive and Negative Feedback (country)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
recognise	77.3	effort	69.9	effort	90.0	recognise	75.0
effort	71.2	recognise	66.3	recognise	80.0	effort	66.7
proud	43.9	proud	52.9	proud	48.0	proud	36.4
reprimand	29.9	reprimand	50.9	reprimand	23.3	reprimand	27.3
dissatisfaction	21.2	dissatisfaction	9.6	dissatisfaction	23.3	dissatisfaction	12.1

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
recognise	66.4	recognise	73.4	recognise	72.2	recognise	75.7
effort	60.3	effort	67.9	effort	65.7	effort	73.0
dissatisfaction	26.0	dissatisfaction	31.1	dissatisfaction	41.7	dissatisfaction	50.0
proud	44.2	proud	28.9	reprimand	40.5	proud	45.5
reprimand	32.2	reprimand	24.7	proud	36.1	reprimand	27.0

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Spain</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
recognise	77.8	recognise	77.5	recognise	74.0	effort	85.8
effort	66.7	effort	61.3	effort	60.6	recognise	73.8
proud	42.9	reprimand	36.1	proud	56.1	reprimand	48.5
dissatisfaction	13.3	proud	26.8	reprimand	29.2	dissatisfaction	37.9
reprimand	6.8	dissatisfaction	18.6	dissatisfaction	10.4	proud	25.9

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>Australia*</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Canada**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
recognise	89.4	recognise	75.0	recognise	79.7	recognise	84.4
effort	89.4	effort	72.4	effort	76.1	effort	83.9
proud	47.6	proud	40.7	proud	65.9	proud	66.7
reprimand	38.3	reprimand	21.4	reprimand	38.9	reprimand	33.3
dissatisfaction	9.8	dissatisfaction	3.6	dissatisfaction	7.4	dissatisfaction	0.0

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale, **n<100

Table 5.1.4: Intensity Orders - Individual and Team Concerns (country)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	95.1	communication	92.9	communication	93.8	communication	90.9
information	83.5	information	82.9	information	83.3	co-operation	90.9
department	80.9	department	82.2	career	83.3	department	87.9
you	80.1	team	75.9	department	77.4	information	87.5
career	77.4	you	74.1	team	76.7	you	81.8
team	74.2	co-operation	65.5	co-operation	64.5	team	78.1
co-operation	65.9	career	64.2	you	82.8	career	72.7
personal	50.4	personal	28.0	personal	39.3	personal	41.4

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	92.1	communication	85.8	team	80.6	communication	94.6
information	77.6	information	79.9	communication	80.0	information	86.1
you	75.2	team	70.6	information	77.1	team	83.8
department	73.0	career	68.6	co-operation	73.5	career	73.5
team	69.9	co-operation	64.0	career	73.0	you	64.9
co-operation	67.2	department	62.4	you	68.4	department	63.9
career	61.5	you	60.4	department	77.4	co-operation	61.1
personal	39.7	personal	21.0	personal	21.6	personal	31.4

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Spain</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	93.5	communication	92.1	communication	89.3	communication	86.5
team	84.4	information	80.8	information	75.5	department	81.5
information	84.1	team	73.0	team	73.2	information	81.0
co-operation	79.5	you	72.5	co-operation	63.9	team	72.0
department	79.5	co-operation	71.1	department	62.0	you	71.4
career	72.7	department	68.7	you	61.9	co-operation	70.5
you	70.5	career	66.7	career	57.3	career	53.0
personal	20.0	personal	11.0	personal	53.6	personal	16.2

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>Australia**</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Canada**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	94.4	communication	90.0	communication	94.2	communication	97.0
information	88.4	team	85.7	information	84.0	information	93.3
team	87.8	you	78.6	department	84.2	department	90.6
career	84.6	information	75.0	team	82.4	co-operation	90.6
department	84.2	career	71.4	you	75.5	team	87.5
you	83.6	department	70.4	co-operation	75.0	you	83.9
co-operation	75.4	co-operation	60.7	career	71.6	career	68.8
personal	57.7	personal	57.1	personal	39.1	personal	9.4

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale, **n<100

APPENDIX 5.2: Scoring Effect (MAIN SAMPLE)

Items that vary significantly across country in the ANOVAs

Table 5.2.1: Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (country)

<i>delegate</i>			<i>decision-making</i>			<i>strategies</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Australia*	4.18	.75	Denmark*	4.16	.72	Switzerland*	4.09	.70
Finland*	4.15	.71	Switzerland*	4.06	.75	UK	4.06	.84
Denmark*	4.13	.75	Austria*	4.03	.80	Canada*	3.92	.87
Austria*	4.08	.85	Japan	3.99	.85	Austria*	3.89	.98
Switzerland*	4.08	.71	Finland*	3.97	.95	US	3.86	.90
UK	4.01	.71	Netherlands	3.93	.76	France	3.85	1.01
Sweden	3.98	.77	UK	3.90	.73	Belgium*	3.84	.91
US	3.98	.88	Germany	3.86	.91	Australia*	3.80	.92
Japan	3.95	.84	US	3.84	.82	Finland*	3.65	1.05
Netherlands	3.89	.80	Sweden	3.77	.87	Germany	3.62	1.07
Spain	3.89	1.05	Norway	3.77	.84	Netherlands	3.61	.93
Belgium*	3.88	.67	Belgium*	3.75	.65	Norway	3.57	.92
Norway	3.79	.83	France	3.72	1.01	Japan	3.57	1.09
Germany	3.71	.96	Canada*	3.68	.95	Sweden	3.49	.98
Canada*	3.68	1.08	Australia*	3.62	.83	Denmark*	3.47	1.08
France	3.39	1.05	Spain	3.51	1.10	Spain	3.44	1.21

*n<100

<i>advice</i>			<i>initiative</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Japan	4.10	.81	Austria*	4.43	.77
Austria*	4.05	.70	Switzerland*	4.25	.73
Sweden	3.99	.73	UK	4.20	.65
France	3.93	.75	Sweden	4.17	.73
Canada*	3.92	.89	US	4.17	.81
Norway	3.91	.72	Denmark*	4.13	.88
Germany	3.83	.90	France	4.11	.86
Switzerland*	3.83	.81	Canada*	4.11	.85
Netherlands	3.81	.75	Australia*	4.11	.75
US	3.78	.80	Norway	4.05	.81
Belgium*	3.74	.70	Belgium*	4.02	.66
UK	3.71	.81	Finland*	4.00	.68
Denmark*	3.67	.76	Germany	3.98	.88
Australia*	3.64	.75	Spain	3.96	.99
Finland*	3.45	.97	Japan	3.94	.83
Spain	3.42	1.03	Netherlands	3.89	.84

n<100

Table 5.2.2: Mean and Standard Deviation - Influence and Control (country)

<i>follow-up</i>			<i>rewards</i>			<i>influence</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Canada*	4.19	.79	Canada*	4.14	.86	Denmark*	3.97	.81
UK	4.15	.79	Finland*	3.94	.93	Canada*	3.97	.99
Denmark*	4.06	.95	Japan	3.88	.97	Japan	3.79	.85
US	4.02	.78	UK	3.77	.98	US	3.62	.91
Japan	3.99	.79	Denmark*	3.58	1.20	UK	3.58	.82
Belgium*	3.97	.66	US	3.57	1.06	Belgium*	3.48	.70
Australia*	3.96	.74	France	3.56	1.22	Australia*	3.47	.81
Austria*	3.92	.92	Belgium*	3.53	1.05	Finland*	3.45	1.18
Sweden	3.91	.74	Austria*	3.53	1.25	Norway	3.44	.92
France	3.89	.85	Germany	3.52	1.08	Germany	3.41	1.05
Spain	3.88	1.01	Switzerland*	3.49	1.30	Sweden	3.35	.82
Finland*	3.85	.87	Australia*	3.44	1.08	Switzerland*	3.32	1.16
Netherlands	3.63	.80	Sweden	3.43	1.10	Netherlands	3.31	.91
Germany	3.60	.92	Spain	3.34	1.30	Spain	3.18	1.14
Norway	3.58	.91	Norway	3.17	1.24	France	3.04	1.00
Switzerland*	3.51	.90	Netherlands	3.01	1.33	Austria*	3.03	1.14

<i>rules</i>			<i>supervise</i>			<i>review</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Austria*	3.47	1.29	Spain	78,28	91,48	Spain	50,30	78,45
Japan	3,87	,91	Germany	66,26	86,72	Norway	44,06	68,78
Spain	3,74	1,14	Netherlands	58,07	80,89	Austria*	39,00	75,82
Germany	3,49	1,02	Austria*	54,03	84,93	Germany	31,03	59,78
Canada*	3,45	1,03	Japan	50,42	70,89	Canada*	21,03	53,35
US	3,40	1,08	US	48,67	72,81	Netherlands	20,90	51,58
Switzerland*	3,33	,93	France	46,97	70,77	Japan	19,36	43,15
Norway	3,26	1,13	Australia*	40,65	67,13	US	18,74	38,02
Belgium*	2,90	1,04	Canada*	39,00	70,64	Finland*	17,97	41,85
UK	2,88	1,12	Norway	37,23	74,76	Sweden	17,96	39,69
Netherlands	2,85	,99	Belgium*	34,30	51,98	France	17,41	47,19
France	2,83	1,21	Switzerland*	31,97	54,38	Switzerland*	16,27	40,39
Sweden	2,76	1,14	UK	25,19	45,14	Belgium*	15,75	33,05
Finland*	2,75	1,22	Finland*	23,28	43,33	UK	15,72	40,68
Australia*	2,73	1,02	Sweden	22,24	50,25	Denmark*†‡	11,10	10,92
Denmark*	2,34	1,15	Denmark*	17,16	44,15	Australia*†‡	9,46	9,80

Table 5.2.3: Mean and Standard Deviation - Positive and Negative Feedback (country)

<i>recognise</i>			<i>effort</i>			<i>proud</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Canada*	4.32	.93	UK	4.24	.69	Spain	92.43	103.85
UK	4.29	.70	Japan	4.20	.74	US	85.15	93.79
Denmark*	4.19	.78	Canada*	4.19	.84	Canada*	79.00	92.58
Australia*	4.18	.72	Denmark*	4.16	.68	Norway	65.02	86.56
US	4.12	.80	US	4.04	.87	Austria*	64.41	92.43
Spain	4.11	.97	Austria*	4.03	.94	Netherlands	60.46	88.13
Japan	4.06	.79	Australia*	4.02	.77	Australia*	55.49	83.99
France	4.05	.85	Switzerland*	3.89	.90	Sweden	49.74	72.94
Austria*	4.05	.80	Sweden	3.86	.75	Belgium*	49.48	80.25
Sweden	4.00	.72	Germany	3.82	.97	Switzerland*	48.75	79.77
Belgium*	4.00	.66	Norway	3.81	.80	UK	47.87	69.22
Switzerland*	3.92	.77	Spain	3.78	1.05	Denmark*	47.58	73.17
Finland*	3.88	.79	Finland*	3.73	1.01	Finland*	44.94	75.76
Germany	3.86	.88	France	3.70	.97	France	43.34	78.94
Netherlands	3.79	.79	Belgium*	3.67	.85	Germany	37.31	66.20
Norway	3.72	.81	Netherlands	3.66	.82	Japan	29.77	58.50

<i>dissatisfaction</i>			<i>reprimand</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Austria*	3.49	.96	Norway	3.49	.95
Switzerland*	3.22	1.10	Japan	3.38	1.16
Germany	3.06	1.03	US	3.19	1.13
Japan	2.99	1.31	UK	3.12	1.05
Netherlands	2.70	1.22	France	3.10	1.22
Sweden	2.33	1.21	Netherlands	3.07	1.06
Denmark*	2.33	1.34	Canada*	3.06	1.01
France	2.29	1.28	Finland*	3.06	1.00
Belgium*	1.97	1.24	Austria*	2.95	1.01
UK	1.94	1.15	Spain	2.94	1.16
Spain	1.93	1.13	Australia*	2.93	.96
Norway	1.80	1.04	Sweden	2.90	1.15
Australia*	1.71	1.01	Germany	2.88	1.05
Finland*	1.70	1.21	Switzerland*	2.84	1.40
US	1.68	1.00	Belgium*	2.69	.90
Canada*	1.47	.65	Denmark*	2.47	1.29

*n<100

Table 5.2.4: Mean and Standard Deviation - Individual and Team Concerns (country)

<i>communication</i>			<i>co-operation</i>			<i>team</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Norway	177,28	93,75	Canada*	4,34	,71	Australia*	4,36	,68
US	168,92	95,68	Finland*	4,33	,85	UK	4,34	,72
Australia*	165,83	98,42	US	4,02	,83	Canada*	4,34	,88
Sweden	158,83	97,24	UK	4,01	,78	Austria*	4,21	,70
Austria*	152,16	99,27	Belgium*	4,00	,74	US	4,20	,80
UK	145,08	99,14	Spain	3,90	1,05	France	4,13	,86
Netherlands	143,86	99,14	France	3,89	,95	Switzerland*	4,11	,78
Spain	143,54	101,29	Australia*	3,89	,80	Spain	4,10	1,05
Denmark*	141,50	100,47	Japan	3,88	,87	Belgium*	4,10	,66
Canada*	140,59	98,33	Denmark*	3,85	1,00	Finland*	4,09	,82
France	139,45	100,18	Sweden	3,81	,74	Denmark*	4,03	,90
Japan	131,71	102,51	Norway	3,81	,88	Sweden	3,99	,77
Germany	130,56	101,79	Switzerland*	3,79	,84	Japan	3,93	,84
Belgium*	121,55	98,10	Netherlands	3,78	,85	Norway	3,90	,83
Finland*	102,82	92,46	Austria*	3,76	,93	Netherlands	3,87	,88
Switzerland*	95,46	93,84	Germany	3,75	,97	Germany	3,86	1,03

<i>personal</i>			<i>you</i>			<i>career</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Australia*	67.42	89.42	UK	4.26	.81	UK	4.28	.76
Spain	67.40	90.03	Finland*	4.24	.83	Denmark*	4.25	.80
UK	54.99	76.24	Sweden	4.19	.76	Sweden	4.05	.73
Sweden	49.52	69.81	Canada*	4.19	.89	Australia*	4.02	.84
Finland*	49.24	80.04	Australia*	4.18	.86	US	3.95	.89
Netherlands	44.44	72.35	Denmark*	4.16	.69	Switzerland*	3.95	.88
US	38.65	63.12	France	4.03	.88	Canada*	3.89	.99
Austria*	33.94	65.68	Japan	4.03	.87	Belgium*	3.86	.71
Norway	33.79	69.56	US	4.03	.86	Germany	3.83	.97
Denmark*	27.47	45.14	Netherlands	4.02	.91	France	3.83	.95
Switzerland*	25.16	54.59	Norway	3.90	.93	Austria*	3.83	1.01
Canada*	20.63	53.94	Spain	3.85	1.07	Netherlands	3.76	.84
Japan	18.11	46.74	Austria*	3.84	1.00	Finland*	3.76	.90
Germany	17.99	36.14	Switzerland*	3.84	.97	Spain	3.74	1.06
Belgium*	16.17	34.15	Belgium*	3.81	.80	Norway	3.70	.97
France	14.37	44.15	Germany	3.69	.91	Japan	3.59	.98

<i>department</i>			<i>information</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Canada*	4.43	.87	Canada*	4.37	.84
UK	4.34	.79	UK	4.36	.74
Finland*	4.33	.89	Finland*	4.34	.90
Japan	4.22	.80	Denmark*	4.25	.72
US	4.19	.83	US	4.23	.79
Sweden	4.18	.73	Australia*	4.20	.79
Denmark*	4.15	.94	Switzerland*	4.20	.80
Norway	4.09	.83	Sweden	4.18	.76
Australia*	4.09	1.00	Japan	4.16	.83
Belgium*	3.95	.96	Austria*	4.16	.73
France	3.92	.97	Spain	4.16	1.00
Austria*	3.92	.98	Belgium*	4.15	.63
Netherlands	3.89	1.00	France	4.15	.84
Spain	3.84	1.12	Norway	4.13	.72
Switzerland*	3.76	.80	Germany	4.05	.96
Germany	3.72	.87	Netherlands	4.01	.77

Items that vary by nationality and department in the ANOVAs

Table 5.2.5: Mean and Standard Deviation - Influence and Control (department)

<i>rewards</i>			<i>influence</i>			<i>follow-up</i>		
department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.
sales/mark...	3.81	1.01	sales/mark...	3.58	.95	sales/mark...	4.02	.79
other	3.39	1.14	prod/trspt...	3.36	1.04	R&D	3.87	.75
R&D	3.37	1.15	other	3.33	.92	adm/fin...	3.78	.84
adm/fin...	3.32	1.15	adm/fin...	3.33	.98	prod/trspt..	3.78	.93
prod/trspt...	3.26	1.31	R&D	3.32	.96	other	3.72	.87

Table 5.2.6: Mean and Standard Deviation - Positive and Negative Feedback (department)

<i>recognise good work</i>			<i>praise efforts</i>		
department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.
sales/mark...	4.17	.77	sales/mark	4.07	.83
			...		
R&D	4.04	.74	other	3.87	.88
adm/fin...	3.96	.77	R&D	3.86	.80
other	3.94	.83	prod/trspt...	3.78	.99
prod/trspt...	3.86	.95	adm/fin...	3.75	.85

Table 5.2.7: Mean and Standard Deviation - Individual and Team Concerns (department)

<i>co-operation</i>			<i>team</i>			<i>department</i>		
department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.
sales/mark...	4.02	.82	sales/mark...	4.23	.82	sales/mark...	4.18	.84
R&D	3.95	.79	adm/fin...	4.07	.79	R&D	4.01	.85
adm/fin...	3.83	.84	R&D	4.06	.78	adm/fin...	3.97	.93
other	3.80	.90	other	3.99	.85	other	3.96	.97
prod/trspt...	3.74	1.03	prod/trspt...	3.84	1.03	prod/trspt...	3.96	.97

<i>communication</i>			<i>career</i>		
department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.
adm/fin...	165.07	97.12	sales/mark...	4.05	.87
prod/trspt...	164.60	98.35	R&D	3.89	.85
other	160.38	98.33	adm/fin...	3.84	.83
R&D	159.55	96.64	other	3.76	.94
sales/mark...	118.40	96.07	prod/trspt...	3.68	1.04

Table 5.2.8: Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation*

<i>strategies</i>			<i>initiative</i>			<i>advice</i>		
department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.	department	mean	std. d.
sales/mark...	4.22	.76	R&D	3.94	.71	sales/mark...	4.22	.76
R&D	4.17	.70	sales/mark...	3.91	.78	R&D	4.17	.70
adm/fin...	4.15	.77	other	3.87	.86	adm/fin...	4.15	.77
other	4.07	.81	prod/trspt...	3.87	.86	other	4.07	.81
prod/trspt...	4.01	.87	adm/fin...	3.82	.79	prod/trspt...	4.01	.87

*items that vary by more background variables than nationality and department

Items that vary by nationality and position in the ANOVAs

Table 5.2.9 Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (position)

<i>delegate</i>			<i>decision-making</i>			<i>initiative*</i>			<i>strategies*</i>		
position	mean	std. d.	position	mean	std. d.	position	mean	std. d.	position	mean	std. d.
manager	4.29	.68	manager	4.12	.73	manager	4.28	.67	manager	4.03	.80
researcher	4.15	.77	supervisor	3.91	.75	researcher	4.17	.71	researcher	3.63	.98
supervisor	3.94	.85	researcher	3.86	.76	office staff	4.12	.77	supervisor	3.61	.97
office staff	3.85	.81	office staff	3.73	.88	supervisor	4.06	.83	office staff	3.52	.99
prod.	3.65	.95	prod.	3.60	1.01	prod.	3.93	.96	prod.	3.37	1.14
workers			workers			workers			workers		

*items that vary by more background variables than nationality and position

Table 5.2.10: Mean and Standard Deviation - Influence and Control (position)

<i>rules</i>			<i>supervision</i>			<i>review</i>		
position	mean	std. d.	position	mean	std. d.	position	mean	std. d.
prod. workers	3.42	1.17	prod. workers	80.65	97.84	prod. workers	48.39	75.72
supervisor	3.25	1.05	supervisor	41.72	71.62	supervisor	24.28	47.42
office staff	2.99	1.15	office staff	31.48	57.69	office staff	18.49	40.39
researcher	2.86	1.19	researcher	20.69	40.10	researcher	15.05	35.22
manager	2.83	1.19	manager	15.19	35.97	manager	12.22	30.04

Items that vary by nationality and gender in the ANOVAs

Table 5.2.11: Mean and Standard Deviation - Positive and Negative Feedback (gender)

<i>dissatisfaction</i>			<i>reprimand</i>		
gender	mean	std. d.	gender	mean	std. d.
male	2.48	1.22	male	3.09	1.09
female	2.22	1.26	female	2.85	1.21

Table 5.2.12: Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation*

<i>advice</i>			<i>strategies</i>		
gender	mean	std. d.	gender	mean	std. d.
male	3.95	.77	male	3.70	.97
female	3.83	.83	female	3.49	1.03

*items that vary by more background variables than nationality and gender.

APPENDIX 5.3: Ordering Effect (HOLD-OUT SAMPLE)

Table 5.3.1 Intensity Orders - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (country*)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	83.0	initiative	82.6	initiative	69.3	delegate	72.0
delegate	70.6	delegate	71.2	delegate	62.7	initiative	68.0

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	77.1	initiative	88.2	initiative	86.2	initiative	75.0
delegate	69.9	delegate	74.5	delegate	73.8	delegate	57.3

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	78.6	initiative	78.6	initiative	75.2
delegate	68.4	delegate	50.4	delegate	74.3

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Brazil</i>		<i>Philippines</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
initiative	80.2	initiative	91.2	initiative	70.8	initiative	54.9
delegate	57.6	delegate	78.8	delegate	70.0	delegate	44.6

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale. **n<100

Table 5.3.2: Intensity Orders - Influence and Control (country)

<i>Sweden</i>		<i>Norway</i>		<i>Denmark</i>		<i>Finland**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
supervise	30.5	review	42.0	supervise	38.7	review	46.2
review	30.0	supervise	28.9	review	35.1	supervise	42.3

<i>Netherlands</i>		<i>Germany</i>		<i>Switzerland**</i>		<i>Austria**</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
supervise	63.3	supervise	43.7	supervise	48.3	supervise	61.0
review	25.4	review	20.0	review	25.9	review	46.5

<i>Belgium**</i>		<i>France</i>		<i>Japan</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
supervise	75.2	supervise	59.2	supervise	44.6
review	49.6	review	26.5	review	18.4

<i>United Kingdom</i>		<i>United States</i>		<i>Brazil</i>		<i>Philippines</i>	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
supervise	55.1	supervise	46.0	supervise	81.4	supervise	81.9
review	26.0	review	18.3	review	56.7	review	53.2

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale. **n<100

Table 5.3.3: Intensity Orders - Positive and Negative Feedback (country)

Sweden		Norway		Denmark		Finland**	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
proud	54.3	proud	50.8	proud	59.4	proud	52.2

Netherlands		Germany		Switzerland**		Austria**	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
proud	43.9	proud	42.4		44.8	proud	62.1

Belgium**		France		Japan	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
proud	66.1	proud	51.4	proud	27.0

United Kingdom		United States		Brazil		Philippines	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
proud	57.1	proud	61.5	proud	70.0	proud	52.2

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale. **n<100

Table 5.3.4: Intensity Orders - Individual and Team Concerns (country)

Sweden		Norway		Denmark		Finland**	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	93.8	communication	95.4	communication	94.1	communication	96.2
information	82.0	department	86.6	department	68.3	co-operation	92.0
department	80.4	you	82.5	you	68.1	information	88.0
you	79.3	information	82.2	information	66.5	department	80.0
co-operation	75.7	co-operation	79.4	co-operation	66.1	you	72.0
personal	49.7	personal	49.7	personal	31.7	personal	46.2

Netherlands		Germany		Switzerland**		Austria**	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	89.7	communication	94.7	communication	96.6	communication	88.9
information	79.4	co-operation	80.6	information	82.8	information	75.3
department	76.5	information	79.5	co-operation	73.3	you	73.8
you	72.7	you	78.8	department	73.3	co-operation	71.3
co-operation	65.3	department	77.0	you	72.4	department	67.4
personal	35.0	personal	28.7	personal	29.6	personal	29.6

Belgium**		France		Japan	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	95.5	communication	94.4	communication	88.1
information	81.7	department	80.8	department	82.0
department	80.9	you	80.2	information	78.0
you	80.2	information	79.5	co-operation	70.3
co-operation	77.3	co-operation	74.4	you	76.2
personal	35.3	personal	14.2	personal	21.0

United Kingdom		United States		Brazil		Philippines	
Item	%	Item	%	Item	%	Item	%
communication	94.3	communication	95.9	communication	88.4	communication	78.3
department	85.1	information	88.7	department	73.9	department	57.6
information	83.6	department	87.9	co-operation	73.3	information	55.0
you	77.9	co-operation	86.1	you	70.0	you	52.6
co-operation	77.4	you	84.5	information	69.9	co-operation	49.0
personal	48.5	personal	43.8	personal	40.2	personal	40.2

Notes: *the response percentages are calculated by including the respondents who have answered "4" or "5" on the extent scale, and "daily" or "weekly" on the time scale. **n<100

APPENDIX 5.4: Scoring Effect (HOLD-OUT SAMPLE)

Table 5.4.1: An overview of the hold-out samples used in the ANOVA analyses

Country	Kabi Pharmacia sample	Hold-Out sample	the balanced sample	the unbalanced sample
Australia	48	-	-	-
Austria	45	112	-	112
Belgium	72	154	135	150
Brazil	-	1 540	135	150
Canada	39	-	-	-
Denmark	41	598	135	150
Finland	34	93	-	93
France	183	168	135	150
Germany	321	148	135	150
Japan	189	101	135	150
Netherlands	137	152	135	150
Norway	200	420	135	150
Philippines	-	340	135	150
Spain	361	9	omitted	omitted
Sweden	2 362	5 541	135	150
Switzerland	39	31	omitted	31
United Kingdom	144	312	135	150
United States	358	1 373	135	150
n	16	16	12	15

Table 5.4.2: Eleven separate ANOVAs with the balanced sample¹ combined into one table. One ANOVA for each interpersonal leadership item (F-values).

To what extent should your immediate manager... #How often should your immediate manager...	NAT	DEPT	POS	AGE	Gender
<i>Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation</i>					
..delegate responsibility to you	2.73**	.85	5.38**	3.41	1.62
..appreciate you taking the initiative	4.34**	4.35*	3.17*	.35	3.05
<i>Authority and Influence</i>					
#.supervise your job in detail	13.96**	4.35*	9.50**	1.15	.74
#.review your achievements in comparison with your objectives and expectations	8.67**	.90	4.27*	.48	1.57
<i>Positive and Negative Feedback</i>					
#.make you feel proud of your work	4.25**	.56	2.97	1.54	.74
<i>Individual and Team Concerns</i>					
..make your department perform its utmost	4.27**	1.08	1.27	.20	1.53
..encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers	3.54**	.55	1.64	1.31	1.78
..make you do your utmost	4.52**	2.21	1.81	.08	1.24
..inform you about department plans and aims	3.26**	3.84	1.25	.01	1.95
#.and you communicate with each other	6.30**	7.05**	3.86*	3.57	.63
#.take an interest in and talk about your personal life with you	3.38**	.46	1.11	2.21	.64

Note: * p<.01. **p<.001

¹The ANOVAs with the unbalanced sample generated almost identical results as those presented in table 5.4.2 above. Only two differences were identified. The first was that position had a significant main effect on “proud” in the unbalanced sample, and the second was that gender had a significant main effect on “communication” in the unbalanced sample. As a conservative measure, the results from the balanced country design was chosen and are presented in the table above.

Items that vary significantly across country in the ANOVAs

Table 5.4.3: Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (country)

country	<i>delegate</i>		country	<i>initiative</i>	
	mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.
US	4.08	.83	US	4.43	.72
Japan	4.01	.79	Germany	4.35	.83
Finland	3.97	.71	Spain	4.29	.76
Germany	3.93	.84	Sweden	4.22	.83
Canada	3.93	1.00	Switzerland	4.20	.81
Norway	3.91	.82	UK	4.20	.94
Sweden	3.88	.86	Norway	4.19	.84
Switzerland	3.87	.76	France	4.19	.96
Brazil	3.79	1.20	Japan	4.11	.86
Netherlands	3.78	.83	Belgium	4.08	.97
Belgium	3.77	.95	Canada	4.07	1.07
Denmark	3.72	1.06	Austria	4.06	1.08
Austria	3.69	.94	Netherlands	3.95	.84
UK	3.63	1.04	Finland	3.92	.85
Spain	3.57	.53	Denmark	3.91	1.02
France	3.53	1.03	Brazil	3.87	1.19
Philippines	3.36	1.17	Philippines	3.55	1.22

Table 5.4.4: Mean and Standard Deviation - Influence and Control (country)

country	<i>supervise</i>		country	<i>review</i>	
	mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.
Brazil	155.18	104.53	Brazil	101.73	107.60
Philippines	153.35	104.38	Philippines	91.48	105.98
Belgium	144.54	108.22	Belgium	85.29	103.47
UK	97.42	107.09	Austria	65.97	91.04
Netherlands	90.29	99.98	Spain	44.57	87.79
Austria	87.23	99.59	Denmark	42.97	71.46
France	79.27	94.92	Finland	40.63	61.47
Spain	65.83	87.90	UK	39.83	74.52
Denmark	58.84	92.45	France	39.38	75.91
US	57.22	82.88	Norway	37.82	56.82
Switzerland	53.00	77.14	Sweden	33.55	60.21
Germany	52.01	78.88	Netherlands	32.01	63.47
Japan	43.16	64.68	US	26.85	58.42
Sweden	35.15	67.48	Germany	23.44	50.13
Norway	33.29	67.67	Japan	21.63	47.82
Finland	30.46	49.48	Switzerland	18.32	19.60
Canada*	16.64	17.55	Canada*	9.36	12.19

*n<100

Table 5.4.5: Mean and Standard Deviation - Positive and Negative Feedback (country)

country	<i>proud</i>	
	mean	std. d.
Brazil	129.66	109.26
Belgium	100.84	102.99
Denmark	93.04	102.64
Spain [‡]	91.83	115.89
UK	88.63	100.94
Philippines	87.07	104.89
Austria	85.99	97.13
France	84.03	102.39
US	81.70	93.69
Sweden	66.04	85.48
Finland [‡]	63.68	84.30
Norway	57.60	79.90
Canada [‡]	55.50	80.48
Netherlands	51.02	77.69
Germany	48.75	74.73
Switzerland [‡]	46.41	69.42
Japan	31.59	60.45

Table 5.4.6: Mean and Standard Deviation - Individual and Team Concern (country)

<i>personal</i>			<i>you</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
UK	65.74	90.85	Spain	4.57	.53
Brazil	64.48	95.27	US	4.26	.82
Philippines	54.75	88.57	France	4.23	.97
Sweden	53.14	75.73	Norway	4.20	.85
Spain	51.67	93.95	Japan	4.18	.85
Belgium	48.75	82.67	UK	4.16	.95
US	46.35	71.95	Sweden	4.15	.87
Finland	42.70	64.70	Germany	4.06	.88
Austria	41.26	74.34	Belgium	4.05	.90
Canada	38.29	61.52	Finland	4.01	.89
Denmark	37.87	70.59	Canada	4.00	.71
Netherlands	35.25	63.03	Netherlands	3.96	.90
Germany	29.22	57.18	Switzerland	3.90	.88
Switzerland	26.75	46.08	Denmark	3.88	1.03
Japan	23.94	52.42	Austria	3.88	.99
Norway	22.51	48.14	Brazil	3.84	1.20
France	15.73	44.33	Philippines	3.58	1.18

<i>communication</i>			<i>co-operation</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
Spain#	201.60	85.87	Spain	4.86	.38
UK	194.85	84.73	US	4.30	.80
Denmark	191.60	86.55	Finland	4.22	.77
Brazil	188.04	91.90	Norway	4.12	.80
Belgium	183.66	90.26	France	4.12	1.03
France	172.63	94.96	Germany	4.10	.85
Norway	172.30	94.22	Canada	4.07	.92
US	162.29	96.20	Belgium	4.04	.90
Sweden	162.08	97.23	UK	4.04	1.00
Austria	162.08	100.69	Sweden	4.01	.84
Netherlands	151.25	100.87	Switzerland	4.00	1.03
Germany	143.86	99.11	Japan	3.97	.84
Philippines	142.97	106.29	Austria	3.93	.88
Finland#	140.63	97.95	Brazil	3.91	1.16
Canada#	127.64	101.43	Denmark	3.83	1.07
Switzerland#	117.17	95.29	Netherlands	3.78	.94
Japan	108.03	95.27	Philippines	3.44	1.16

<i>department</i>			<i>information</i>		
country	mean	std. d.	country	mean	std. d.
US	4.34	.76	Spain	4.57	.53
Norway	4.29	.80	US	4.40	.76
Spain	4.29	.49	Canada	4.36	.50
UK	4.27	.94	Germany	4.33	.80
France	4.23	.98	UK	4.27	.96
Sweden	4.18	.84	Norway	4.22	.85
Japan	4.18	.78	France	4.22	.98
Canada	4.14	.77	Sweden	4.19	.84
Finland	4.11	.95	Finland	4.19	.86
Belgium	4.10	.92	Switzerland	4.17	.75
Germany	4.03	.90	Japan	4.16	.83
Netherlands	4.01	.87	Belgium	4.12	.89
Brazil	3.95	1.16	Netherlands	4.04	.85
Denmark	3.91	1.04	Austria	3.99	1.01
Austria	3.82	.96	Denmark	3.85	1.09
Switzerland	3.81	.79	Brazil	3.83	1.23
Philippines	3.70	1.21	Philippines	3.53	1.21

Items that vary significantly across nationality and department in the ANOVAs*

Table 5.4.7: Mean and Standard Deviation - Mixed items (department)

department	<i>communication</i>		department	<i>initiative</i>		department	<i>supervision</i>	
	mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.
prod/trspt..	181.17	93.27	sales/mark	4.37	.79	prod/trspt...	91.48	104.72
adm/fin...	180.08	91.90	adm/fin	4.25	.83	other	83.21	102.06
other	176.10	93.54	R&D	4.20	.84	adm/fin..	39.35	71.83
R&D	165.84	95.14	other	4.20	.92	R&D	35.44	68.05
sales/mark...	125.11	96.71	prod/trspt	4.03	1.01	sales/mark...	26.79	53.55

*items that vary by more background variables than nationality and department

Items that vary significantly across nationality and position in the ANOVAs

Table 5.4.8: Mean and Standard Deviation - Participation in Decision-Making and Interpersonal Participation (position)

position	<i>delegate</i>		position	<i>initiative</i>	
	mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.
manager	4.31	.71	manager	4.45	.67
supervisor	4.03	.79	supervisor	4.29	.80
researcher	3.97	.87	office staff	4.26	.82
office staff	3.92	.84	researcher	4.22	.83
prod. workers	3.66	1.03	prod. workers	3.99	1.04

Table 5.4.9: Mean and Standard Deviation - Influence and Control (position)

position	<i>supervise</i>		position	<i>review</i>	
	mean	std. d.		mean	std. d.
manager	3.70	1.18	manager	3.23	.72
office staff	3.20	1.29	researcher	3.01	.89
researcher	3.13	1.28	office staff	3.00	.87
supervisor	3.02	1.42	supervisor	2.71	.97
prod. workers	2.45	1.48	prod. workers	2.62	1.20

Table 5.4.10: Mean and Standard Deviation - Individual and Team Concern (position)

position	<i>communication</i>	
	mean	std. d.
manager	4.41	.68
supervisor	4.30	.84
office staff	4.25	.82
researcher	4.20	.85
prod.worker	3.96	1.07

APPENDIX 6.1

Main analysis: AUSTRALIA

Correlations

		delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,213	,272	,303*	,087
		advice	,213	1,000	,419**	,494**	,363*
		decision making	,272	,419**	1,000	,419**	,532**
		initiative	,303*	,494**	,419**	1,000	,323*
		strategies	,087	,363*	,532**	,323*	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,164	,070	,043	,570
		advice	,164	,	,005	,001	,015
		decision making	,070	,005	,	,004	,000
		initiative	,043	,001	,004	,	,030
		strategies	,570	,015	,000	,030	,
N	delegate	45	44	45	45	45	
	advice	44	44	44	44	44	
	decision making	45	44	45	45	45	
	initiative	45	44	45	45	45	
	strategies	45	44	45	45	45	

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,306*	,454**	,114	,025	,122
		influence	,306*	1,000	,214	,388**	,091	,154
		reward	,454**	,214	1,000	-,105	-,225	,087
		rules	,114	,388**	-,105	1,000	,287	,089
		supervise	,025	,091	-,225	,287	1,000	,506**
		review	,122	,154	,087	,089	,506**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	follow-up	,	,041	,002	,461	,874	,441
		influence	,041	,	,157	,009	,567	,331
		reward	,002	,157	,	,499	,152	,585
		rules	,461	,009	,499	,	,069	,579
supervise		,874	,567	,152	,069	,	,001	
N	follow-up	45	45	45	44	42	42	
	influence	45	45	45	44	42	42	
	reward	45	45	45	44	42	42	
	rules	44	44	44	44	41	41	
	supervise	42	42	42	41	43	41	
	review	42	42	42	41	41	43	

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Australia continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,303*	-,012	-,191	-,137
		reprimand	,303*	1,000	,039	,123	-,065
		effort	-,012	,039	1,000	,620**	,129
		recognise	-,191	,123	,620**	1,000	,030
		proud	-,137	-,065	,129	,030	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,043	,939	,209	,387
		reprimand	,043	,	,801	,422	,683
		effort	,939	,801	,	,000	,417
		recognise	,209	,422	,000	,	,849
		proud	,387	,683	,417	,849	,
N		dissatisfaction	45	45	45	45	42
		reprimand	45	45	45	45	42
		effort	45	45	46	45	42
		recognise	45	45	45	45	42
		proud	42	42	42	42	43

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal			
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,551**	,576**	,484**	,545**	,383**	-,080	,151		
		team	,551**	1,000	,351*	,529**	,416**	,293	-,125	,128		
		department	,576**	,351*	1,000	,454**	,432**	,371*	-,179	-,030		
		you	,484**	,529**	,454**	1,000	,537**	,482**	,026	,084		
		cooperation	,545**	,416**	,432**	,537**	1,000	,399**	-,085	-,072		
		career	,383**	,293	,371*	,482**	,399**	1,000	-,053	-,102		
		communication	-,080	-,125	-,179	,026	-,085	-,053	1,000	,218		
		personal	,151	,128	-,030	,084	-,072	-,102	,218	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,000	,000	,000	,001	,000	,010	,605	,327
				team	,000	,000	,018	,000	,004	,050	,418	,406
department	,000			,018	,000	,002	,003	,012	,246	,849		
you	,001			,000	,002	,000	,000	,001	,866	,589		
cooperation	,000			,004	,003	,000	,000	,007	,585	,641		
career	,010			,050	,012	,001	,007	,000	,730	,510		
communication	,605			,418	,246	,866	,585	,730	1,000	,154		
personal	,327			,406	,849	,589	,641	,510	,154	1,000		
N				inform	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44
				team	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44
		department	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44		
		you	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44		
		cooperation	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44		
		career	45	45	45	45	45	45	44	44		
		communication	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	44		
		personal	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	45		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: AUSTRIA

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,647**	,652**	,360*	,491**	
		advice	,647**	1,000	,764**	,487**	,452**	
		decision making	,652**	,764**	1,000	,420**	,438**	
		initiative	,360*	,487**	,420**	1,000	,400*	
		strategies	,491**	,452**	,438**	,400*	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate		,	,000	,000	,029	,002
		advice		,000		,000	,002	,006
		decision making		,000	,000		,010	,008
		initiative		,029	,002	,010		,017
		strategies		,002	,006	,008	,017	
	N	delegate		38	38	37	37	36
advice			38	38	37	37	36	
decision making			37	37	37	37	35	
initiative			37	37	37	37	35	
strategies			36	36	35	35	36	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,359*	,391*	,428**	,163	,260	
		influence	,359*	1,000	,502**	,349*	-,041	,068	
		reward	,391*	,502**	1,000	,183	-,076	,258	
		rules	,428**	,349*	,183	1,000	,125	,284	
		supervise	,163	-,041	-,076	,125	1,000	,689**	
		review	,260	,068	,258	,284	,689**	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	follow-up			,032	,018	,008	,342	,143
		influence		,032		,002	,034	,813	,705
		reward		,018	,002		,277	,660	,147
		rules		,008	,034	,277		,460	,104
		supervise		,342	,813	,660	,460		,000
N	follow-up		37	36	36	37	36	33	
	influence		36	37	36	37	36	33	
	reward		36	36	38	37	36	33	
	rules		37	37	37	38	37	34	
	supervise		36	36	36	37	37	34	
review		33	33	33	34	34	34		

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,524**	,238	,254	,166
		reprimand	,524**	1,000	,220	,146	,083
		effort	,238	,220	1,000	,719**	,398*
		recognise	,254	,146	,719**	1,000	,567**
		proud	,166	,083	,398*	,567**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,001	,156	,130	,357
		reprimand	,001	,	,184	,383	,641
		effort	,156	,184	,	,000	,020
		recognise	,130	,383	,000	,	,000
		proud	,357	,641	,020	,000	,
N		dissatisfaction	37	37	37	37	33
		reprimand	37	38	38	38	34
		effort	37	38	38	38	34
		recognise	37	38	38	38	34
		proud	33	34	34	34	34

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,466**	,349*	,446**	,311	,674**	,030	,091
		team	,466**	1,000	,499**	,576**	,508**	,470**	,021	,486**
		department	,349*	,499**	1,000	,643**	,595**	,353*	,023	,179
		you	,446**	,576**	,643**	1,000	,500**	,628**	,020	,382*
		cooperation	,311	,508**	,595**	,500**	1,000	,191	,165	,462**
		career	,674**	,470**	,353*	,628**	,191	1,000	,322	,286
		communication	,030	,021	,023	,020	,165	,322	1,000	,307
		personal	,091	,486**	,179	,382*	,462**	,286	,307	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,004	,040	,006	,069	,000
team	,004			,	,002	,000	,002	,004	,902	,003
department	,040			,002	,	,000	,000	,044	,893	,311
you	,006			,000	,000	,	,002	,000	,906	,022
cooperation	,069			,002	,000	,002	,	,280	,336	,006
career	,000			,004	,044	,000	,280	,	,059	,107
communication	,860			,902	,893	,906	,336	,059	,	,068
personal	,603			,003	,311	,022	,006	,107	,068	,
N				inform	37	37	35	37	35	34
		team	37	38	36	38	36	35	38	36
		department	35	36	37	36	36	33	36	34
		you	37	38	36	38	36	35	38	36
		cooperation	35	36	36	36	37	34	36	34
		career	34	35	33	35	34	35	35	33
		communication	37	38	36	38	36	35	38	36
		personal	35	36	34	36	34	33	36	36

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: BELGIUM

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,191	,373**	,245	,203
		advice	,191	1,000	,384**	,353**	,615**
		decision making	,373**	,384**	1,000	,279*	,477**
		initiative	,245	,353**	,279*	1,000	,402**
		strategies	,203	,615**	,477**	,402**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,158	,004	,063	,130
		advice	,158	,	,003	,008	,000
		decision making	,004	,003	,	,033	,000
		initiative	,063	,008	,033	,	,002
		strategies	,130	,000	,000	,002	,
N		delegate	59	56	59	58	57
		advice	56	57	57	56	56
		decision making	59	57	60	59	58
		initiative	58	56	59	59	58
		strategies	57	56	58	58	58

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,316*	,135	,113	-,046	-,183
		influence	,316*	1,000	,289*	,325*	-,046	,152
		reward	,135	,289*	1,000	,345**	-,033	-,188
		rules	,113	,325*	,345**	1,000	,126	-,058
		supervise	-,046	-,046	-,033	,126	1,000	,336*
		review	-,183	,152	-,188	-,058	,336*	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,014	,308	,389
influence	,014			,	,027	,011	,734	,269
reward	,308			,027	,	,008	,806	,166
rules	,389			,011	,008	,	,352	,672
supervise	,735			,734	,806	,352	,	,011
review	,182			,269	,166	,672	,011	,
N		follow-up	60	60	59	60	57	55
		influence	60	60	59	60	57	55
		reward	59	59	60	59	58	56
		rules	60	60	59	60	57	55
		supervise	57	57	58	57	59	56
		review	55	55	56	55	56	57

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,349**	,402**	,029	,015
		reprimand	,349**	1,000	,274*	-,144	-,151
		effort	,402**	,274*	1,000	,570**	,221
		recognise	,029	-,144	,570**	1,000	,275*
		proud	,015	-,151	,221	,275*	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	dissatisfaction	,	,007	,001	,825	,914
		reprimand	,007	,	,036	,276	,277
		effort	,001	,036	,	,000	,105
		recognise	,825	,276	,000	,	,042
		proud	,914	,277	,105	,042	,
N	dissatisfaction	61	59	61	61	55	
	reprimand	59	59	59	59	54	
	effort	61	59	61	61	55	
	recognise	61	59	61	61	55	
	proud	55	54	55	55	56	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal		
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,494**	,255	,252	,502**	,321*	,092	-,028	
		team	,494**	1,000	,619**	,630**	,376**	,496**	-,079	,212	
		department	,255	,619**	1,000	,597**	,269*	,461**	,111	,361**	
		you	,252	,630**	,597**	1,000	,163	,640**	-,128	,241	
		cooperation	,502**	,376**	,263*	,163	1,000	,253	,035	-,229	
		career	,321*	,496**	,461**	,640**	,253	1,000	,085	,187	
		communication	,092	-,079	,111	-,128	,035	,085	1,000	,234	
		personal	-,028	,212	,361**	,241	-,229	,187	,234	1,000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,052	,055	,000	,014	,491	,838
			team	,000	,	,000	,000	,003	,000	,553	,110
department	,052		,000	,	,000	,044	,000	,406	,006		
you	,055		,000	,000	,	,216	,000	,338	,071		
cooperation	,000		,003	,044	,216	,	,056	,792	,087		
career	,014		,000	,000	,000	,056	,	,526	,164		
communication	,491		,553	,406	,338	,792	,526	,	,075		
personal	,838		,110	,006	,071	,087	,164	,075	,		
N	inform		60	59	59	59	60	58	58	57	
	team		59	60	59	59	59	58	59	58	
	department	59	59	60	58	59	57	58	57		
	you	59	59	58	59	59	58	58	57		
	cooperation	60	59	59	59	60	58	58	57		
	career	58	58	57	58	58	58	58	57		
	communication	58	59	58	58	58	58	60	59		
	personal	57	58	57	57	57	57	59	59		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: CANADA

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,461**	,324	,465**	,526**
		advice	,461**	1,000	,740**	,517**	,698**
		decision making	,324	,740**	1,000	,373*	,507**
		initiative	,465**	,517**	,373*	1,000	,392*
		strategies	,526**	,698**	,507**	,392*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,005	,061	,005	,001
		advice	,005	,	,000	,001	,000
		decision making	,061	,000	,	,030	,003
		initiative	,005	,001	,030	,	,020
		strategies	,001	,000	,003	,020	,
N		delegate	37	36	34	35	35
		advice	36	37	35	36	35
		decision making	34	35	35	34	33
		initiative	35	36	34	36	35
		strategies	35	35	33	35	36

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,364*	,433**	,463**	,466**	,059
		influence	,364*	1,000	,528**	,215	,221	-,231
		reward	,433**	,528**	1,000	,039	,068	,017
		rules	,463**	,215	,039	1,000	,335*	,026
		supervise	,466**	,221	,068	,335*	1,000	,136
		review	,059	-,231	,017	,026	,136	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,032	,009	,004	,004	,735
		influence	,032	,	,001	,201	,190	,176
		reward	,009	,001	,	,820	,688	,919
		rules	,004	,201	,820	,	,040	,880
		supervise	,004	,190	,688	,040	,	,414
		review	,735	,176	,919	,880	,414	,
N		follow-up	36	35	35	36	36	35
		influence	35	37	37	37	37	36
		reward	35	37	37	37	37	36
		rules	36	37	37	38	38	37
		supervise	36	37	37	38	39	38
		review	35	36	36	37	38	38

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,122	,043	-,043	,177
		reprimand	,122	1,000	,123	,212	,151
		effort	,043	,123	1,000	,506**	,203
		recognise	-,043	,212	,506**	1,000	-,009
		proud	,177	,151	,203	-,009	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,478	,802	,798	,295
		reprimand	,478	,	,482	,214	,388
		effort	,802	,482	,	,001	,235
		recognise	,798	,214	,001	,	,958
		proud	,295	,388	,235	,958	,
N		dissatisfaction	38	36	37	38	37
		reprimand	36	36	35	36	35
		effort	37	35	37	37	36
		recognise	38	36	37	38	37
		proud	37	35	36	37	38

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal			
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,548**	,563**	,357*	,460**	,493**	,098	-,278		
		team	,548**	1,000	,324	,356*	,307	,314	,200	,085		
		department	,563**	,324	1,000	,443**	,376*	,413*	,150	-,041		
		you	,357*	,356*	,443**	1,000	,269	,378*	,046	-,011		
		cooperation	,460**	,307	,376*	,269	1,000	,332*	,164	,019		
		career	,493**	,314	,413*	,378*	,332*	1,000	-,218	,166		
		communication	,098	,200	,150	,046	,164	-,218	1,000	,000		
		personal	-,278	,085	-,041	-,011	,019	,166	,000	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,001	,001	,041	,005	,003	,575	,111
				team	,001	,	,051	,033	,061	,058	,229	,617
department	,001			,051	,	,008	,022	,012	,377	,810		
you	,041			,033	,008	,	,113	,023	,789	,948		
cooperation	,005			,061	,022	,113	,	,044	,328	,910		
career	,003			,058	,012	,023	,044	,	,198	,333		
communication	,575			,229	,377	,789	,326	,196	,	,998		
personal	,111			,617	,810	,948	,910	,333	,998	,		
N				inform	35	35	34	33	35	34	35	34
				team	35	38	37	36	38	37	38	37
		department	34	37	37	35	37	36	37	36		
		you	33	36	35	36	36	36	36	35		
		cooperation	35	38	37	36	38	37	38	37		
		career	34	37	36	36	37	37	37	36		
		communication	35	38	37	36	38	37	39	38		
		personal	34	37	36	35	37	36	38	38		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: DENMARK

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,403*	,206	-,006	,419*
		advice	,403*	1,000	,407*	,397*	,506**
		decision making	,206	,407*	1,000	,583**	,167
		initiative	-,006	,397*	,583**	1,000	,155
		strategies	,419*	,506**	,167	,155	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,027	,265	,974	,019
		advice	,027	,	,025	,030	,004
		decision making	,265	,025	,	,001	,362
		initiative	,974	,030	,001	,	,406
		strategies	,019	,004	,362	,406	,
N		delegate	32	30	31	30	31
		advice	30	30	30	30	30
		decision making	31	30	32	31	32
		initiative	30	30	31	31	31
		strategies	31	30	32	31	32

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,651**	,380*	-,114	-,063	,059
		influence	,651**	1,000	,461**	,217	,048	,067
		reward	,380*	,461**	1,000	,469**	,193	,337
		rules	-,114	,217	,469**	1,000	,285	,392*
		supervise	-,063	,048	,193	,285	1,000	,068
		review	,059	,067	,337	,392*	,068	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,032	,534	,736	,762
		influence	,000	,	,007	,234	,796	,729
		reward	,032	,007	,	,007	,298	,074
		rules	,534	,234	,007	,	,120	,035
		supervise	,736	,796	,298	,120	,	,722
		review	,762	,729	,074	,035	,722	,
N		follow-up	32	32	32	32	31	29
		influence	32	33	33	32	31	29
		reward	32	33	33	32	31	29
		rules	32	32	32	32	31	29
		supervise	31	31	31	31	32	30
		review	29	29	29	29	30	30

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Denmark continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,431*	,338	,065	,363
		reprimand	,431*	1,000	,087	-,115	,306
		effort	,338	,087	1,000	,600**	,339
		recognise	,065	-,115	,600**	1,000	,468*
		proud	,363	,306	,339	,468*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,014	,059	,724	,075
		reprimand	,014	,	,635	,532	,137
		effort	,059	,635	,	,000	,097
		recognise	,724	,532	,000	,	,018
N		dissatisfaction	33	32	32	32	25
		reprimand	32	32	32	32	25
		effort	32	32	32	32	25
		recognise	32	32	32	32	25
		proud	25	25	25	25	26

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,296	,513**	,303	,308	,422*	,257	-,028
		team	,296	1,000	,494**	,844**	,616**	,385*	,128	,281
		department	,513**	,494**	1,000	,677**	,459**	,605**	,044	,248
		you	,303	,844**	,677**	1,000	,594**	,577**	,138	,288
		cooperation	,308	,616**	,459**	,594**	1,000	,339	,040	,196
		career	,422*	,385*	,605**	,577**	,339	1,000	,100	,036
		communication	,257	,128	,044	,138	,040	,100	1,000	,280
		personal	-,028	,281	,248	,288	,196	,036	,280	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,100	,003	,098	,088	,016	,156
		team	,100	,	,004	,000	,029	,485	,140	,
		department	,003	,004	,	,000	,007	,000	,808	,195
		you	,098	,000	,000	,	,000	,001	,460	,138
		cooperation	,088	,000	,007	,000	,	,058	,826	,307
		career	,016	,029	,000	,001	,058	,	,587	,851
		communication	,156	,485	,808	,460	,826	,587	,	,134
		personal	,887	,140	,195	,138	,307	,851	,134	,
N			inform	32	32	32	31	32	32	32
		team	32	32	32	31	32	32	32	29
		department	32	32	33	31	33	32	33	29
		you	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	28
		cooperation	32	32	33	31	33	32	33	29
		career	32	32	32	31	32	32	32	29
		communication	32	32	33	31	33	32	34	30
		personal	29	29	29	28	29	29	30	30

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: FINLAND

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,378*	,648**	,694**	,655**	
		advice	,378*	1,000	,604**	,624**	,655**	
		decision making	,648**	,604**	1,000	,818**	,695**	
		initiative	,694**	,624**	,818**	1,000	,687**	
		strategies	,655**	,655**	,695**	,687**	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate		,	,030	,000	,000	,000
		advice		,030	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making		,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative		,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies		,000	,000	,000	,000	,
	N	delegate		33	33	33	31	31
advice			33	33	33	31	31	
decision making			33	33	33	31	31	
initiative			31	31	31	31	29	
strategies			31	31	31	29	31	

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,674**	,388*	,342	,299	,430*	
		influence	,674**	1,000	,367*	,428*	,492**	,588**	
		reward	,388*	,367*	1,000	,141	,312	,408*	
		rules	,342	,428*	,141	1,000	,154	,097	
		supervise	,299	,492**	,312	,154	1,000	,470**	
		review	,430*	,588**	,408*	,097	,470**	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	follow-up		,	,000	,026	,055	,096	,013
		influence		,000	,	,036	,014	,004	,000
		reward		,026	,036	,	,443	,083	,019
		rules		,055	,014	,443	,	,408	,599
		supervise		,096	,004	,083	,408	,	,007
N	follow-up		33	33	33	32	32	33	
	influence		33	33	33	32	32	33	
	reward		33	33	33	32	32	33	
	rules		32	32	32	32	31	32	
	supervise		32	32	32	31	32	32	
	review		33	33	33	32	32	33	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000				
		reprimand	,590**	1,000			
		effort	,142	,088	1,000		
		recognise	,200	,213	,530**	1,000	
		proud	,210	,268	,328	,213	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,431	,273	,240
		reprimand	,000	,	,625	,242	,132
		effort	,431	,625	,	,002	,063
		recognise	,273	,242	,002	,	,242
		proud	,240	,132	,063	,242	,
N		dissatisfaction	33	33	33	32	33
		reprimand	33	33	33	32	33
		effort	33	33	33	32	33
		recognise	32	32	32	32	32
		proud	33	33	33	32	33

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal			
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,529**	,467**	,489**	,463**	,382*	,419*	,159		
		team	,529**	1,000	,502**	,619**	,183	-,017	,230	,158		
		department	,467**	,502**	1,000	,398*	,651**	,175	,139	-,112		
		you	,489**	,619**	,398*	1,000	,286	,278	,351*	,102		
		cooperation	,463**	,183	,651**	,286	1,000	,448**	-,039	,172		
		career	,382*	-,017	,175	,278	,448**	1,000	,179	,151		
		communication	,419*	,230	,139	,351*	-,039	,179	1,000	,468*		
		personal	,159	,158	-,112	,102	,172	,151	,468*	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,002	,007	,004	,008	,031	,017	,419
				team	,002	,	,003	,000	,316	,924	,206	,414
department	,007			,003	,	,022	,000	,329	,439	,563		
you	,004			,000	,022	,	,107	,117	,045	,600		
cooperation	,008			,316	,000	,107	,	,009	,830	,372		
career	,031			,924	,329	,117	,009	,	,318	,434		
communication	,017			,206	,439	,045	,830	,318	,	,010		
personal	,419			,414	,563	,600	,372	,434	,010	,		
N				inform	32	31	32	32	32	32	32	28
				team	31	32	32	32	32	32	32	29
		department	32	32	33	33	33	33	33	29		
		you	32	32	33	33	33	33	33	29		
		cooperation	32	32	33	33	33	33	33	29		
		career	32	32	33	33	33	33	33	29		
		communication	32	32	33	33	33	33	33	29		
		personal	28	29	29	29	29	29	29	29		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: FRANCE

Correlations

		delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,377**	,362**	,373**	,212*
		advice	,377**	1,000	,683**	,505**	,328**
		decision making	,362**	,683**	1,000	,494**	,452**
		initiative	,373**	,505**	,494**	1,000	,620**
		strategies	,212*	,328**	,452**	,620**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,011
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,011	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	157	145	142	143	144
		advice	145	153	144	144	143
		decision making	142	144	148	141	140
		initiative	143	144	141	151	144
		strategies	144	143	140	144	151

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,377**	,359**	,129	,051	,127
		influence	,377**	1,000	,340**	,139	-,062	-,027
		reward	,359**	,340**	1,000	,107	-,121	-,006
		rules	,129	,139	,107	1,000	,117	,163
		supervise	,051	-,062	-,121	,117	1,000	,224**
		review	,127	-,027	-,006	,163	,224**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,000	,119	,542	,130
		influence	,000	,	,000	,095	,455	,750
		reward	,000	,000	,	,199	,139	,942
		rules	,119	,095	,199	,	,167	,056
		supervise	,542	,455	,139	,167	,	,006
		review	,130	,750	,942	,056	,006	,
N		follow-up	158	152	155	148	147	144
		influence	152	156	154	146	146	143
		reward	155	154	160	147	151	146
		rules	148	146	147	149	140	137
		supervise	147	146	151	140	154	147
		review	144	143	146	137	147	150

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

France continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,400**	,052	,040	,150	
		reprimand	,400**	1,000	,246**	,226**	,068
		effort	,052	,246**	1,000	,514**	,094
		recognise	,040	,226**	,514**	1,000	,157
		proud	,150	,068	,094	,157	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,522	,628	,081
		reprimand	,000	,	,003	,006	,445
		effort	,522	,003	,	,000	,277
		recognise	,628	,006	,000	,	,069
		proud	,081	,445	,277	,069	,
N		dissatisfaction	160	146	152	151	136
		reprimand	146	149	144	144	130
		effort	152	144	155	150	135
		recognise	151	144	150	154	135
		proud	136	130	135	135	142

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,573**	,401**	,436**	,361**	,333**	,014	-,113	
		team	,573**	1,000	,443**	,501**	,484**	,274**	-,058	-,011
		department	,401**	,443**	1,000	,375**	,265**	,284**	-,065	-,040
		you	,436**	,501**	,375**	1,000	,387**	,635**	-,142	-,051
		cooperation	,361**	,484**	,265**	,387**	1,000	,144	,019	,097
		career	,333**	,274**	,284**	,635**	,144	1,000	-,057	-,093
		communication	,014	-,058	-,065	-,142	,019	-,057	1,000	,107
		personal	-,113	-,011	-,040	-,051	,097	-,093	,107	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,867
		team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,001	,485	,895
		department	,000	,000	,000	,000	,001	,000	,436	,639
		you	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,087	,544
		cooperation	,000	,000	,001	,000	,	,079	,821	,246
		career	,000	,001	,000	,000	,079	,	,498	,272
		communication	,867	,485	,436	,087	,821	,498	,	,201
		personal	,185	,895	,639	,544	,246	,272	,201	,
N			inform	152	147	145	147	149	148	142
		team	147	155	147	152	151	152	147	142
		department	145	147	154	147	150	147	144	143
		you	147	152	147	154	150	152	147	143
		cooperation	149	151	150	150	157	150	147	144
		career	148	152	147	152	150	155	146	142
		communication	142	147	144	147	147	146	154	146
		personal	139	142	143	143	144	142	146	150

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: GERMANY

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,411**	,403**	,498**	,395**
		advice	,411**	1,000	,634**	,553**	,487**
		decision making	,403**	,634**	1,000	,511**	,474**
		initiative	,498**	,553**	,511**	1,000	,564**
		strategies	,395**	,487**	,474**	,564**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	266	253	252	253	246
		advice	253	262	253	254	248
		decision making	252	253	259	254	247
		initiative	253	254	254	261	250
		strategies	246	248	247	250	261

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,394**	,257**	,412**	-,007	,048
		influence	,394**	1,000	,336**	,267**	,042	,115
		reward	,257**	,336**	1,000	,189**	,045	,106
		rules	,412**	,267**	,189**	1,000	,096	,058
		supervise	-,007	,042	,045	,096	1,000	,468**
		review	,048	,115	,106	,058	,468**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,000	,000	,913	,456
		influence	,000	,	,000	,000	,508	,073
		reward	,000	,000	,	,003	,477	,100
		rules	,000	,000	,003	,	,135	,374
		supervise	,913	,508	,477	,135	,	,000
		review	,456	,073	,100	,374	,000	,
N		follow-up	262	257	258	256	247	242
		influence	257	266	261	255	247	243
		reward	258	261	271	254	248	242
		rules	256	255	254	262	246	241
		supervise	247	247	248	246	261	250
		review	242	243	242	241	250	256

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Germany continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,369**	,110	,111	-,082
		reprimand	,369**	1,000	,121	,200**	-,146*
		effort	,110	,121	1,000	,574**	,212**
		recognise	,111	,200**	,574**	1,000	,209**
		proud	-,082	-,146*	,212**	,209**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,080	,079	,209
		reprimand	,000	,	,051	,001	,024
		effort	,080	,051	,	,000	,001
		recognise	,079	,001	,000	,	,001
		proud	,209	,024	,001	,001	,
N		dissatisfaction	257	251	254	253	234
		reprimand	251	263	260	261	238
		effort	254	260	268	262	242
		recognise	253	261	262	267	242
		proud	234	238	242	242	253

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal			
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,565**	,353**	,302**	,409**	,603**	,119	,182**		
		team	,565**	1,000	,403**	,450**	,453**	,572**	,096	,152*		
		department	,353**	,403**	1,000	,564**	,438**	,302**	,097	,041		
		you	,302**	,450**	,564**	1,000	,316**	,514**	,128*	,003		
		cooperation	,409**	,453**	,438**	,316**	1,000	,491**	,126*	,081		
		career	,603**	,572**	,302**	,514**	,491**	1,000	,191**	,088		
		communication	,119	,096	,097	,128*	,126*	,191**	1,000	,392**		
		personal	,182**	,152*	,041	,003	,081	,088	,392**	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,058	,005
				team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,131	,019
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,128	,526		
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,042	,957		
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,049	,218		
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,002	,176		
communication	,058			,131	,128	,042	,049	,002	,	,000		
personal	,005			,019	,526	,957	,218	,176	,000	,		
N				inform	268	259	258	260	255	257	253	239
				team	259	269	256	262	257	259	250	239
		department	258	256	263	257	254	253	249	236		
		you	260	262	257	265	253	258	250	240		
		cooperation	255	257	254	253	267	247	246	233		
		career	257	259	253	258	247	261	249	236		
		communication	253	250	249	250	246	249	268	248		
		personal	239	239	236	240	233	236	248	252		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: JAPAN

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,527**	,463**	,469**	,401**
		advice	,527**	1,000	,709**	,489**	,493**
		decision making	,463**	,709**	1,000	,666**	,578**
		initiative	,469**	,489**	,666**	1,000	,568**
		strategies	,401**	,493**	,578**	,568**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate		,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice		,000	,000	,000	,000
		decision making		,000	,000	,000	,000
		initiative		,000	,000	,000	,000
		strategies		,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	delegate		181	181	180	178
advice			181	181	180	178	180
decision making			180	180	180	177	179
initiative			178	178	177	178	178
strategies			180	180	179	178	180

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,420**	,495**	,520**	,119	,057
		influence	,420**	1,000	,421**	,478**	,179*	,187**
		reward	,495**	,421**	1,000	,437**	,063	,210**
		rules	,520**	,478**	,437**	1,000	,180*	,144
		supervise	,119	,179*	,063	,180*	1,000	,296**
		review	,057	,187**	,210**	,144	,296**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	follow-up		,000	,000	,000	,114	,448
		influence		,000	,000	,000	,017	,013
		reward		,000	,000	,000	,402	,005
		rules		,000	,000	,000	,017	,057
		supervise		,114	,017	,402	,017	,000
N	follow-up		181	179	181	179	179	178
	influence		179	179	179	177	178	177
	reward		181	179	181	179	179	178
	rules		179	177	179	179	177	176
	supervise		179	178	179	177	183	181
	review		178	177	178	176	181	182

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Japan continued...

Correlations

			dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,558**	,091	,144	,157*
		reprimand	,558**	1,000	,236**	,274**	,136
		effort	,091	,236**	1,000	,651**	,078
		recognise	,144	,274**	,651**	1,000	,209**
		proud	,157*	,136	,078	,209**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,236	,061	,042
		reprimand	,000	,	,002	,000	,074
		effort	,236	,002	,	,000	,302
		recognise	,061	,000	,000	,	,005
		proud	,042	,074	,302	,005	,
N		dissatisfaction	170	167	170	169	167
		reprimand	167	177	177	177	174
		effort	170	177	181	180	178
		recognise	169	177	180	180	177
		proud	167	174	178	177	182

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal		
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,571**	,570**	,458**	,521**	,446**	,081	,043		
		team	,571**	1,000	,513**	,601**	,549**	,457**	,053	,156*		
		department	,570**	,513**	1,000	,468**	,492**	,359**	,107	,028		
		you	,458**	,601**	,468**	1,000	,344**	,627**	,039	,087		
		cooperation	,521**	,549**	,492**	,344**	1,000	,395**	,024	,057		
		career	,446**	,457**	,359**	,627**	,395**	1,000	,035	,137		
		communication	,081	,053	,107	,039	,024	,035	1,000	,250**		
		personal	,043	,156*	,028	,087	,057	,137	,250**	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,284	,568
				team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,481	,037
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,156	,710		
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,607	,247		
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,752	,452		
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,648	,068		
communication	,284			,481	,156	,607	,752	,648	,	,001		
personal	,568			,037	,710	,247	,452	,068	,001	,		
N				inform	180	179	179	179	174	179	177	179
				team	179	180	179	180	174	180	177	179
		department	179	179	180	179	174	179	177	179		
		you	179	180	179	180	174	180	177	179		
		cooperation	174	174	174	174	175	174	172	174		
		career	179	180	179	180	174	180	177	179		
		communication	177	177	177	177	172	177	182	181		
		personal	179	179	179	179	174	179	181	184		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: THE NETHERLANDS

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,307**	,368**	,383**	,256**
		advice	,307**	1,000	,597**	,561**	,481**
		decision making	,368**	,597**	1,000	,635**	,517**
		initiative	,383**	,561**	,635**	1,000	,601**
		strategies	,256**	,481**	,517**	,601**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,001	,000	,000	,004
		advice	,001	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,004	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	127	124	120	124	122
		advice	124	129	123	127	126
		decision making	120	123	124	123	121
		initiative	124	127	123	128	126
		strategies	122	126	121	126	127

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,391**	,195*	,342**	,173	,016
		influence	,391**	1,000	,391**	,490**	,246**	,174
		reward	,195*	,391**	1,000	,292**	,069	,178*
		rules	,342**	,490**	,292**	1,000	,302**	,203*
		supervise	,173	,246**	,069	,302**	1,000	,325**
		review	,016	,174	,178*	,203*	,325**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,028	,000	,051	,858
		influence	,000	,	,000	,000	,006	,055
		reward	,028	,000	,	,001	,446	,048
		rules	,000	,000	,001	,	,001	,023
		supervise	,051	,006	,446	,001	,	,000
		review	,858	,055	,048	,023	,000	,
N		follow-up	132	126	128	130	128	125
		influence	126	127	126	126	124	122
		reward	128	126	129	128	125	124
		rules	130	126	128	130	127	125
		supervise	128	124	125	127	128	123
		review	125	122	124	125	123	125

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The Netherlands continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,427**	,212*	,015	,085
		reprimand	,427**	1,000	,138	,108	,026
		effort	,212*	,138	1,000	,626**	,229*
		recognise	,015	,108	,626**	1,000	,284**
		proud	,085	,026	,229*	,284**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,017	,871	,358
		reprimand	,000	,	,125	,229	,777
		effort	,017	,125	,	,000	,011
		recognise	,871	,229	,000	,	,002
		proud	,358	,777	,011	,002	,
N		dissatisfaction	127	122	126	125	119
		reprimand	122	126	126	126	119
		effort	126	126	131	128	123
		recognise	125	126	128	130	121
		proud	119	119	123	121	123

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal			
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,422**	,371**	,460**	,505**	,351**	,093	-,106		
		team	,422**	1,000	,434**	,571**	,515**	,551**	-,114	-,027		
		department	,371**	,434**	1,000	,501**	,536**	,372**	-,112	,004		
		you	,460**	,571**	,501**	1,000	,633**	,628**	-,028	-,070		
		cooperation	,505**	,515**	,536**	,633**	1,000	,503**	-,086	-,174		
		career	,351**	,551**	,372**	,628**	,503**	1,000	-,052	-,010		
		communication	,093	-,114	-,112	-,028	-,086	-,052	1,000	,148		
		personal	-,106	-,027	,004	-,070	-,174	-,010	,148	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,295	,245
				team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,204	,771
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,207	,962		
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,753	,437		
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,357	,065		
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,563	,910		
communication	,295			,204	,207	,753	,357	,563	,	,102		
personal	,245			,771	,962	,437	,065	,910	,102	,		
N				inform	130	125	128	128	117	125	128	123
				team	125	127	127	127	117	124	126	121
		department	128	127	130	130	119	127	128	124		
		you	128	127	130	130	119	127	128	124		
		cooperation	117	117	119	119	119	116	117	114		
		career	125	124	127	127	116	127	125	121		
		communication	128	126	128	128	117	125	131	123		
		personal	123	121	124	124	114	121	123	125		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: NORWAY

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,367**	,413**	,346**	,387**
		advice	,367**	1,000	,608**	,530**	,460**
		decision making	,413**	,608**	1,000	,378**	,447**
		initiative	,346**	,530**	,378**	1,000	,388**
		strategies	,387**	,460**	,447**	,388**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	193	183	176	182	182
		advice	183	185	177	180	181
		decision making	176	177	179	176	176
		initiative	182	180	176	185	182
		strategies	182	181	176	182	185

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,256**	,126	,318**	,185*	,127
		influence	,256**	1,000	,341**	,154*	,064	,166*
		reward	,126	,341**	1,000	-,029	,104	,084
		rules	,318**	,154*	-,029	1,000	,203**	,199**
		supervise	,185*	,064	,104	,203**	1,000	,137
		review	,127	,166*	,084	,199**	,137	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,089	,000	,013	,093
		influence	,000	,	,000	,041	,391	,025
		reward	,089	,000	,	,700	,162	,261
		rules	,000	,041	,700	,	,007	,009
		supervise	,013	,391	,162	,007	,	,066
		review	,093	,025	,261	,009	,066	,
N		follow-up	185	183	183	176	178	177
		influence	183	191	188	177	181	181
		reward	183	188	193	178	183	181
		rules	176	177	178	180	173	171
		supervise	178	181	183	173	185	180
		review	177	181	181	171	180	185

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Norway continued...

Correlations

			dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,133	-,082	-,046	-,091
		reprimand	,133	1,000	,157*	,112	,047
		effort	-,082	,157*	1,000	,485**	,300**
		recognise	-,046	,112	,485**	1,000	,006
		proud	-,091	,047	,300**	,006	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,074	,273	,535	,232
		reprimand	,074	,	,034	,130	,539
		effort	,273	,034	,	,000	,000
		recognise	,535	,130	,000	,	,938
		proud	,232	,539	,000	,938	,
N		dissatisfaction	189	182	182	183	175
		reprimand	182	186	182	183	175
		effort	182	182	186	182	174
		recognise	183	183	182	186	177
		proud	175	175	174	177	180

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,349**	,254**	,367**	,086	,419**	,015	,096
		team	,349**	1,000	,475**	,564**	,281**	,448**	,068	,111
		department	,254**	,475**	1,000	,485**	,240**	,354**	,076	-,043
		you	,367**	,564**	,485**	1,000	,184*	,513**	,052	,017
		cooperation	,086	,281**	,240**	,184*	1,000	,183*	,000	,152*
		career	,419**	,448**	,354**	,513**	,183*	1,000	-,008	,078
		communication	,015	,068	,076	,062	,000	-,008	1,000	,197**
		personal	,096	,111	-,043	,017	,152*	,078	,197**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,248	,000
team	,000			,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,361	,139
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,001	,000	,299	,559
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,013	,000	,408	,819
cooperation	,248			,000	,001	,013	,	,013	,995	,041
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,013	,	,915	,298
communication	,837			,361	,299	,408	,995	,915	,	,007
personal	,198			,139	,559	,819	,041	,298	,007	,
N				inform	187	182	186	182	183	182
		team	182	185	184	182	181	181	183	180
		department	186	184	192	184	188	184	188	185
		you	182	182	184	185	182	183	183	180
		cooperation	183	181	188	182	190	182	186	182
		career	182	181	184	183	182	185	182	180
		communication	184	183	188	183	186	182	192	185
		personal	182	180	185	180	182	180	185	187

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: SPAIN

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,404**	,372**	,398**	,401**
		advice	,404**	1,000	,661**	,494**	,493**
		decision making	,372**	,661**	1,000	,515**	,550**
		initiative	,398**	,494**	,515**	1,000	,466**
		strategies	,401**	,493**	,550**	,466**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	318	314	311	314	312
		advice	314	319	314	316	316
		decision making	311	314	317	312	311
		initiative	314	316	312	318	315
		strategies	312	316	311	315	316

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,324**	,250**	,440**	,087	,114
		influence	,324**	1,000	,356**	,336**	-,008	,008
		reward	,250**	,356**	1,000	,128*	-,118*	-,013
		rules	,440**	,336**	,128*	1,000	,057	,111
		supervise	,087	-,008	-,118*	,057	1,000	,492**
		review	,114	,008	-,013	,111	,492**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,000	,000	,132	,053
		influence	,000	,	,000	,000	,889	,895
		reward	,000	,000	,	,024	,040	,821
		rules	,000	,000	,024	,	,322	,060
		supervise	,132	,889	,040	,322	,	,000
		review	,053	,895	,821	,060	,000	,
N		follow-up	315	310	309	310	305	287
		influence	310	317	311	312	305	287
		reward	309	311	317	310	305	285
		rules	310	312	310	318	306	288
		supervise	305	305	305	306	315	292
		review	287	287	285	288	292	294

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Spain continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,249**	-,028	-,157**	,000
		reprimand	,249**	1,000	,185**	,234**	,051
		effort	-,028	,185**	1,000	,624**	,210**
		recognise	-,157**	,234**	,624**	1,000	,210**
		proud	,000	,051	,210**	,210**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,622	,005	,997
		reprimand	,000	,	,001	,000	,408
		effort	,622	,001	,	,000	,001
		recognise	,005	,000	,000	,	,001
		proud	,997	,408	,001	,001	,
N		dissatisfaction	318	311	313	312	270
		reprimand	311	313	310	310	267
		effort	313	310	316	312	269
		recognise	312	310	312	316	268
		proud	270	267	269	268	274

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,620**	,454**	,483**	,448**	,509**	-,025	-,042
		team	,620**	1,000	,483**	,564**	,452**	,528**	-,065	,128*
		department	,454**	,483**	1,000	,574**	,411**	,410**	,044	,076
		you	,483**	,564**	,574**	1,000	,391**	,578**	,013	,119*
		cooperation	,448**	,452**	,411**	,391**	1,000	,410**	-,008	,042
		career	,509**	,528**	,410**	,578**	,410**	1,000	-,032	,118*
		communication	-,025	-,065	,044	,013	-,008	-,032	1,000	,352**
		personal	-,042	,128*	,076	,119*	,042	,118*	,352**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
team	,000			,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,251	,028
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,443	,190
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,824	,042
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,890	,472
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,576	,044
communication	,663			,251	,443	,824	,890	,576	,	,000
personal	,469			,028	,190	,042	,472	,044	,000	,
N				inform	318	313	315	313	315	312
		team	313	319	315	315	315	314	310	295
		department	315	315	321	317	318	316	311	296
		you	313	315	317	317	315	315	309	294
		cooperation	315	315	318	315	322	314	312	294
		career	312	314	316	315	314	316	308	294
		communication	309	310	311	309	312	308	319	299
		personal	283	295	296	294	294	294	299	301

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: SWEDEN

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,386**	,411**	,381**	,331**
		advice	,386**	1,000	,589**	,490**	,383**
		decision making	,411**	,589**	1,000	,409**	,417**
		initiative	,381**	,490**	,409**	1,000	,382**
		strategies	,331**	,383**	,417**	,382**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	2193	2151	2137	2151	2143
		advice	2151	2181	2145	2156	2148
		decision making	2137	2145	2165	2139	2133
		initiative	2151	2156	2139	2180	2154
		strategies	2143	2148	2133	2154	2177

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,361**	,294**	,173**	,058**	,145**
		influence	,361**	1,000	,350**	,220**	,128**	,145**
		reward	,294**	,350**	1,000	,132**	,073**	,141**
		rules	,173**	,220**	,132**	1,000	,250**	,192**
		supervise	,058**	,128**	,073**	,250**	1,000	,338**
		review	,145**	,145**	,141**	,192**	,338**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,000	,000	,008	,000
		influence	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		reward	,000	,000	,	,000	,001	,000
		rules	,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		supervise	,008	,000	,001	,000	,	,000
		review	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		follow-up	2163	2112	2130	2123	2092	2087
		influence	2112	2155	2131	2116	2083	2084
		reward	2130	2131	2193	2137	2112	2111
		rules	2123	2116	2137	2168	2098	2094
		supervise	2092	2083	2112	2098	2188	2130
		review	2087	2084	2111	2094	2130	2184

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Sweden continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,487**	,093**	,043*	,065**
		reprimand	,487**	1,000	,166**	,192**	,076**
		effort	,093**	,166**	1,000	,616**	,258**
		recognise	,043*	,192**	,616**	1,000	,255**
		proud	,065**	,076**	,258**	,255**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	dissatisfaction	,	,000	,000	,049	,003
		reprimand	,000	,	,000	,000	,001
		effort	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		recognise	,049	,000	,000	,	,000
		proud	,003	,001	,000	,000	,
N	dissatisfaction	2188	2132	2140	2134	2071	
	reprimand	2132	2158	2119	2118	2054	
	effort	2140	2119	2169	2125	2056	
	recognise	2134	2118	2125	2162	2054	
	proud	2071	2054	2056	2054	2144	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal		
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,448**	,385**	,436**	,355**	,446**	,087**	,104**	
		team	,448**	1,000	,402**	,486**	,418**	,447**	,061**	,120**	
		department	,385**	,402**	1,000	,495**	,375**	,348**	,022	,053*	
		you	,436**	,486**	,495**	1,000	,373**	,570**	,036	,093**	
		cooperation	,355**	,418**	,375**	,373**	1,000	,341**	-.012	,042	
		career	,446**	,447**	,348**	,570**	,341**	1,000	,047*	,117**	
		communication	,087**	,061**	,022	,036	-.012	,047*	1,000	,399**	
		personal	,104**	,120**	,053*	,093**	,042	,117**	,399**	1,000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
			team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,005	,000
department	,000		,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,309	,014		
you	,000		,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,097	,000		
cooperation	,000		,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,564	,054		
career	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,030	,000		
communication	,000		,005	,309	,097	,564	,030	,	,000		
personal	,000		,000	,014	,000	,054	,000	,000	,		
N	inform		2187	2139	2157	2153	2154	2156	2149	2128	
	team		2139	2163	2133	2140	2130	2143	2130	2112	
	department	2157	2133	2181	2149	2148	2149	2141	2125		
	you	2153	2140	2149	2179	2142	2168	2145	2130		
	cooperation	2154	2130	2148	2142	2179	2145	2138	2120		
	career	2156	2143	2149	2168	2145	2182	2148	2128		
	communication	2149	2130	2141	2145	2138	2148	2240	2186		
	personal	2128	2112	2125	2130	2120	2128	2186	2206		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: SWITZERLAND

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,305	,514**	,592**	,693**
		advice	,305	1,000	,635**	,456**	,536**
		decision making	,514**	,635**	1,000	,674**	,464**
		initiative	,592**	,456**	,674**	1,000	,576**
		strategies	,693**	,536**	,464**	,576**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,070	,001	,000	,000
		advice	,070	,	,000	,006	,001
		decision making	,001	,000	,	,000	,007
		initiative	,000	,006	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,001	,007	,000	,
N		delegate	38	36	36	36	35
		advice	36	36	35	35	34
		decision making	36	35	36	34	33
		initiative	36	35	34	36	34
		strategies	35	34	33	34	35

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,335*	,615**	,369*	-,114	,384*
		influence	,335*	1,000	,471**	,280	-,074	-,097
		reward	,615**	,471**	1,000	,328	-,185	,281
		rules	,369*	,280	,328	1,000	,181	,265
		supervise	-,114	-,074	-,185	,181	1,000	,117
		review	,384*	-,097	,281	,265	,117	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,046	,000	,027	,514	,021
		influence	,046	,	,004	,103	,673	,575
		reward	,000	,004	,	,054	,288	,097
		rules	,027	,103	,054	,	,297	,123
		supervise	,514	,673	,288	,297	,	,497
		review	,021	,575	,097	,123	,497	,
N		follow-up	37	36	36	36	35	36
		influence	36	37	36	35	35	36
		reward	36	36	37	35	35	36
		rules	36	35	35	36	35	35
		supervise	35	35	35	35	36	36
		review	36	36	36	35	36	37

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Switzerland continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,500**	,310	,055	,218
		reprimand	,500**	1,000	,339	,237	-,035
		effort	,310	,339	1,000	,727**	,216
		recognise	,055	,237	,727**	1,000	,325
		proud	,218	-,035	,216	,325	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,002	,075	,756	,216
		reprimand	,002	,	,050	,170	,843
		effort	,075	,050	,	,000	,227
		recognise	,756	,170	,000	,	,061
		proud	,216	,843	,227	,061	,
N		dissatisfaction	36	35	34	35	34
		reprimand	35	37	34	35	35
		effort	34	34	35	33	33
		recognise	35	35	33	36	34
		proud	34	35	33	34	36

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,520**	,481**	,395*	,541**	,439**	,095	,227
		team	,520**	1,000	,294	,552**	,647**	,526**	,020	,227
		department	,481**	,294	1,000	,543**	,277	,423*	,020	,193
		you	,395*	,552**	,543**	1,000	,442**	,555**	-,102	,147
		cooperation	,541**	,647**	,277	,442**	1,000	,368*	-,186	-,159
		career	,439**	,526**	,423*	,555**	,368*	1,000	,116	,221
		communication	,095	,020	,020	-,102	-,186	,116	1,000	,609**
		personal	,227	,227	,193	,147	-,159	,221	,609**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,002	,003	,019	,001	,009
team	,002			,	,082	,000	,000	,001	,910	,189
department	,003			,082	,	,001	,113	,010	,909	,260
you	,019			,000	,001	,	,009	,000	,561	,385
cooperation	,001			,000	,113	,009	,	,035	,309	,378
career	,009			,001	,010	,000	,035	,	,515	,195
communication	,598			,910	,909	,561	,309	,515	,	,000
personal	,197			,189	,260	,385	,378	,195	,000	,
N				inform	35	34	35	35	33	34
		team	34	36	36	36	33	35	34	35
		department	35	36	37	37	34	36	35	36
		you	35	36	37	38	34	37	35	37
		cooperation	33	33	34	34	34	33	32	33
		career	34	35	36	37	33	37	34	36
		communication	33	34	35	35	32	34	35	35
		personal	34	35	36	37	33	36	35	37

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: THE UNITED KINGDOM

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,416**	,414**	,321**	,442**
		advice	,416**	1,000	,490**	,463**	,384**
		decision making	,414**	,490**	1,000	,380**	,503**
		initiative	,321**	,463**	,380**	1,000	,481**
		strategies	,442**	,384**	,503**	,481**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	138	138	137	137	138
		advice	138	139	138	138	139
		decision making	137	138	138	137	138
		initiative	137	138	137	138	138
		strategies	138	139	138	138	139

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,274**	,100	,175*	,261**	,012
		influence	,274**	1,000	,244**	,323**	,100	,037
		reward	,100	,244**	1,000	,044	-,066	-,019
		rules	,175*	,323**	,044	1,000	,259**	,107
		supervise	,261**	,100	-,066	,259**	1,000	,374**
		review	,012	,037	-,019	,107	,374**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,001	,244	,040	,002	,895
		influence	,001	,	,004	,000	,248	,669
		reward	,244	,004	,	,605	,443	,827
		rules	,040	,000	,605	,	,002	,216
		supervise	,002	,248	,443	,002	,	,000
		review	,895	,669	,827	,216	,000	,
N		follow-up	138	136	138	138	137	134
		influence	136	137	137	137	136	133
		reward	138	137	139	139	138	135
		rules	138	137	139	139	138	135
		supervise	137	136	138	138	140	136
		review	134	133	135	135	136	137

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The United Kingdom continued...

Correlations

			dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,174*	-,079	-,174*	,145
		reprimand	,174*	1,000	,192*	,191*	-,003
		effort	-,079	,192*	1,000	,597**	,292**
		recognise	-,174*	,191*	,597**	1,000	,201*
		proud	,145	-,003	,292**	,201*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,042	,353	,040	,090
		reprimand	,042	,	,026	,026	,973
		effort	,353	,026	,	,000	,001
		recognise	,040	,026	,000	,	,018
		proud	,090	,973	,001	,018	,
N		dissatisfaction	139	136	139	139	138
		reprimand	136	136	136	136	135
		effort	139	136	139	139	138
		recognise	139	136	139	139	138
		proud	138	135	138	138	140

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal		
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,452**	,277**	-,367**	,285**	,331**	,066	,103		
		team	,452**	1,000	,416**	,516**	,545**	,407**	-,082	,011		
		department	,277**	,416**	1,000	,373**	,532**	,203*	-,006	-,036		
		you	-,367**	,516**	,373**	1,000	,469**	,606**	-,044	-,131		
		cooperation	,285**	,545**	,532**	,469**	1,000	,339**	-,055	,012		
		career	,331**	,407**	,203*	,606**	,339**	1,000	,015	-,040		
		communication	,066	-,082	-,006	-,044	-,055	,015	1,000	,500**		
		personal	,103	,011	-,036	-,131	,012	-,040	,500**	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,001	,000	,001	,000	,445	,234
				team	,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,340	,902
department	,001			,000	,	,000	,000	,018	,942	,684		
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,608	,127		
cooperation	,001			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,524	,894		
career	,000			,000	,018	,000	,000	,	,861	,643		
communication	,445			,340	,942	,608	,524	,861	,	,000		
personal	,234			,902	,684	,127	,894	,643	,000	,		
N				inform	137	137	134	136	136	137	137	135
				team	137	139	136	138	138	139	139	137
		department	134	136	136	135	135	136	136	134		
		you	136	138	135	138	137	138	138	136		
		cooperation	136	138	135	137	138	138	138	136		
		career	137	139	136	138	138	139	139	137		
		communication	137	139	136	138	138	139	141	139		
		personal	135	137	134	136	136	137	139	139		

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Main analysis: THE UNITED STATES

Correlations

			delegate	advice	decision making	initiative	strategies
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,384**	,331**	,412**	,421**
		advice	,384**	1,000	,636**	,487**	,469**
		decision making	,331**	,636**	1,000	,474**	,538**
		initiative	,412**	,487**	,474**	1,000	,503**
		strategies	,421**	,469**	,538**	,503**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000	,000	,000	,000
		advice	,000	,	,000	,000	,000
		decision making	,000	,000	,	,000	,000
		initiative	,000	,000	,000	,	,000
		strategies	,000	,000	,000	,000	,
N		delegate	325	320	320	319	319
		advice	320	322	321	317	317
		decision making	320	321	322	317	318
		initiative	319	317	317	320	318
		strategies	319	317	318	318	321

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			follow-up	influence	reward	rules	supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	follow-up	1,000	,386**	,309**	,253**	-,039	-,017
		influence	,386**	1,000	,474**	,258**	,023	,039
		reward	,309**	,474**	1,000	,074	,003	,011
		rules	,253**	,258**	,074	1,000	,256**	,138*
		supervise	-,039	,023	,003	,256**	1,000	,301**
		review	-,017	,039	,011	,138*	,301**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		follow-up	,	,000	,000	,000	,493	,759
		influence	,000	,	,000	,000	,680	,494
		reward	,000	,000	,	,185	,955	,843
		rules	,000	,000	,185	,	,000	,014
		supervise	,493	,680	,955	,000	,	,000
		review	,759	,494	,843	,014	,000	,
N		follow-up	323	316	321	320	314	316
		influence	316	320	318	316	312	314
		reward	321	318	324	320	315	317
		rules	320	316	320	321	314	316
		supervise	314	312	315	314	329	322
		review	316	314	317	316	322	328

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The United States continued...

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	dissatisfaction	1,000	,231**	-,186**	-,243**	,044
		reprimand	,231**	1,000	,075	,123*	-,015
		effort	-,186**	,075	1,000	,631**	,169**
		recognise	-,243**	,123*	,631**	1,000	,130*
		proud	,044	-,015	,169**	,130*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,	,000	,001	,000	,444
		reprimand	,000	,	,182	,029	,793
		effort	,001	,182	,	,000	,003
		recognise	,000	,029	,000	,	,022
		proud	,444	,793	,003	,022	,
N		dissatisfaction	323	316	319	318	312
		reprimand	316	319	316	316	307
		effort	319	316	322	317	310
		recognise	318	316	317	320	310
		proud	312	307	310	310	325

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,594**	,413**	,457**	,470**	,404**	,034	-,104
		team	,594**	1,000	,440**	,537**	,436**	,519**	-,029	-,004
		department	,413**	,440**	1,000	,513**	,504**	,360**	,069	,050
		you	,457**	,537**	,513**	1,000	,476**	,631**	,039	,028
		cooperation	,470**	,436**	,504**	,476**	1,000	,429**	,027	,054
		career	,404**	,519**	,360**	,631**	,429**	1,000	-,086	,102
		communication	,034	-,029	,069	,039	,027	-,086	1,000	,193**
		personal	-,104	-,004	,050	,028	,054	,102	,193**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
team	,000			,	,000	,000	,000	,000	,605	,940
department	,000			,000	,	,000	,000	,000	,220	,372
you	,000			,000	,000	,	,000	,000	,492	,617
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,000	,	,000	,631	,334
career	,000			,000	,000	,000	,000	,	,125	,071
communication	,541			,605	,220	,492	,631	,125	,	,000
personal	,064			,940	,372	,617	,334	,071	,000	,
N				inform	325	319	320	319	323	320
		team	319	320	316	317	318	319	319	316
		department	320	316	322	315	320	317	319	315
		you	319	317	315	319	317	318	317	314
		cooperation	323	318	320	317	325	319	321	317
		career	320	319	317	318	319	321	319	316
		communication	321	319	319	317	321	319	335	330
		personal	318	316	315	314	317	316	330	331

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		dissatisfaction	reprimand	effort	recognise	proud	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,231**	-,186**	-,243**	,044	
		reprimand	1,000	,075	,123*	-,015	
		effort	-,186**	,075	1,000	,631**	,169**
		recognise	-,243**	,123*	,631**	1,000	,130*
		proud	,044	-,015	,169**	,130*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		dissatisfaction	,000	,001	,000	,444	
		reprimand	,000	,182	,029	,793	
		effort	,001	,182	,000	,003	
		recognise	,000	,029	,000	,022	
		proud	,444	,793	,003	,022	,
N		dissatisfaction	323	316	319	318	312
		reprimand	316	319	316	316	307
		effort	319	316	322	317	310
		recognise	318	316	317	320	310
		proud	312	307	310	310	325

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	team	department	you	cooperation	career	communication	personal		
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,594**	,413**	,457**	,470**	,404**	,034	-,104		
		team	,594**	1,000	,440**	,537**	,436**	,519**	-,029	-,004	
		department	,413**	,440**	1,000	,513**	,504**	,360**	,069	,050	
		you	,457**	,537**	,513**	1,000	,476**	,631**	,039	,028	
		cooperation	,470**	,436**	,504**	,476**	1,000	,429**	,027	,054	
		career	,404**	,519**	,360**	,631**	,429**	1,000	-,086	,102	
		communication	,034	-,029	,069	,039	,027	-,086	1,000	,193**	
		personal	-,104	-,004	,050	,028	,054	,102	,193**	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,541	,064	
			team	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,605	,940	
		department	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,220	,372		
		you	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,492	,617		
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,631	,334		
		career	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,125	,071		
		communication	,541	,605	,220	,492	,631	,125	,000		
		personal	,064	,940	,372	,617	,334	,071	,000		
N			inform	325	319	320	319	323	320	321	318
			team	319	320	316	317	318	319	319	316
		department	320	316	322	315	320	317	319	315	
		you	319	317	315	319	317	318	317	314	
		cooperation	323	318	320	317	325	319	321	317	
		career	320	319	317	318	319	321	319	316	
		communication	321	319	319	317	321	319	335	330	
		personal	318	316	315	314	317	316	330	331	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.2

Table 6.2.1 Internal consistency measures within-countries of the patterning effects for each area of interpersonal leadership (Cronbach alphas)

<i>country</i>	<i>participation</i> all items	<i>concern</i> extent items ¹	<i>feedback</i>			<i>control and influence</i>		
			all items	positive	negative	all items	first order	last order
Sweden	.77	.81	.56	.75	.65	.56	.59	.49
Norway	.76	.75	.57	.71	.32	.55	.47	.47
Denmark	.74	.86	.70	.74	.58	.67	.68	.67
Finland	.91	.75	.67	.78	.77	.68	.63	.47
Netherlands	.80	.86	.55	.79	.64	.57	.58	.39
Germany	.84	.83	.55	.74	.54	.55	.60	.46
Austria	.81	.87	.66	.83	.72	.67	.68	.63
Switzerland ²	.84	.84	.55	.82	.66	.67	.78	.63
Belgium ²	.69	.79	.60	.61	.54	.46	.49	.42
France ²	.77	.79	.46	.64	.66	.43	.59	.49
Spain	.85	.86	.45	.79	.44	.49	.59	.39
Japan	.84	.85	.62	.79	.71	.72	.69	.57
United Kingdom	.78	.84	.44	.81	.34	.48	.34	.51
Australia	.83	.83	.21	.74	.43	.48	.48	.48
United States	.80	.84	.33	.78	.40	.48	.61	.40
Canada ²	.86	.89	.47	.69	.38	.67	.83	.50

notes: ¹= all items measured on the five point "extent scale" (see chapter 3).

²=n<100

Table 6.2.2 Internal consistency measures within-countries of the patterning effects for the influence and control, and the negative feedback items (Cronbach alphas)

<i>country</i>	<i>all items</i> ¹	<i>pattern I</i> ²
Sweden	.63	.65
Norway	.53	.47
Denmark	.70	.68
Finland	.71	.72
Netherlands	.68	.71
Germany	.54	.71
Austria	.62	.62
Switzerland ³	.59	.82
Belgium ³	.47	.56
France ³	.43	.47
Spain	.48	.58
Japan	.69	.70
United Kingdom	.47	.52
Australia	.42	.51
United States	.49	.49
Canada ³	.44	.54

notes ¹includes items: "rules", "influence", "reward", "dissatisfaction", and "reprimand"

²includes "supervise", and "review"; ³=n<100

APPENDIX 6.3: Factor Analysis

In this appendix, the results from the factor analysis conducted across countries at the individual level will first be presented. This will be followed by a discussion of two suggestions emerging from the results of the factor analysis. The first suggestion involved a re-examination of the items measuring negative feedback and those measuring influence and control by analysing them together. The second suggestion derived from the factor analysis was to analyse the items measured on the time-scale in more detail.

Factor analysis

A total of twenty-four variables were entered into a factor analysis that was conducted at the individual level with all the countries' data pooled into one database. The factor analysis generated four factors that account for 52.4 % of the total variance in the data (see Table 6.1). The *first factor* includes the earlier identified coaching items except the ones where managers should take an interest in the employees' "careers". In addition, the control item "follow-up" and the two positive feedback items "recognise" and "effort" also loaded into the first factor¹. The *second factor* includes the five items that operationalise empowerment and which were identified as internally consistent in all countries. "Career," the missing item from the coaching construct, loaded into this factor². The *third factor* consists of all the items measured on the time scale: "communication", "personal", "proud", "supervise" and "review". The first-mentioned two items were those that were omitted from the "coaching" construct since they reduced the alpha. The item "proud" was omitted from the positive feedback measure for the same reason. Finally, the two items "supervise" and "review" from the influence and control area were also included in

¹ The control item "influence" also loaded into the first factor. However, "influence" together with "reward" tend to differ on which factor they load into depending on the rotation technique used. Furthermore, if the items measured on the time scale are omitted from the analysis, "influence" and "reward" load into a factor together with "rules" and the two negative feedback items.

this third factor. The *fourth factor* includes only one control item, that is “rules,” which was joined with the two negative feedback items (that had similar correlation patterns in all countries, but did not receive satisfactory alphas in all countries). To be mentioned in this context is that when a second factor analysis was carried out omitting the items measured on the time scale, the factor solution was very similar to the first, apart from the fact that two additional “control” items, “reward” and “influence”, also loaded together with “rules” and the two negative feedback items.

Table 6.1 Four factors from the factor analysis at the individual level¹

Factor 1	Factor 1	Factor 3	Factor 4
To what extent should your immediate manager...	To what extent should your immediate manager...	How often should your immediate manager...	To what extent should your immediate manager...
...make the department perform its utmost (.75)	...share decision-making with you (.79)	...make you feel proud of your work (.72)	...raise his/her voice to you to express dissatisfaction (.71)
...follow up your work (.69)	...discuss company strategies with you (.72)	...review your work in comparison with objectives and expectations (-.68)	...formally reprimand poor performance (.69)
...try to make you feel part of a team (.65)	...take advice from you (.72)	...supervise your work in detail (.67)	...direct your department work by using rules and regulations (.61)
...make you do your utmost (.64)	...appreciate you taking the initiative (.67)	...and you communicate with each other (.63)	
...encourage co-operation between associates/co-workers (.61)	...take an interest in your career (.65)	...take an interest in and talk to you about your personal life (.60)	
...recognise your good work (.66)	...delegate responsibility to you (.51)		
...inform you about department/section plans and aims (.58)			
...praise your efforts (not only the outcome) (.53)			

¹Factor loadings are indicated within parentheses (see Chapter 3 for a discussion of the method for conducting the factor analysis across countries at the individual level).

In sum, four factors emerged from the factor analysis across countries at the individual level. The first factor was mainly a combination of the “coaching” construct and the positive feedback items, the second factor was the “empowering” construct with the additional item “career”, the third factor consisted of all five items measured on time scales, while the fourth factor joined “rules” from the “directing” construct with the negative feedback items. As discussed in Chapter 3, the factor solution from a factor analysis across countries will be dependent upon which countries are included in the factor analysis. In other words, if similar correlation patterns are found among a majority of respondents, then this will influence the

²The authority item “reward” was not included in Table 6.1 since it had a loading of less than 0.30. See also Chapter 3 for a discussion of factor solutions, factor loadings and cut-off points for including items

analysis and “drive” the solution. Consequently, it is not certain that the factors generated by a factor analysis actually exist in all countries, nor is it certain that the generated factors are reliable constructs in all countries. The first and second factors generated by the factor analysis have Cronbach alphas above 0.70 in all countries, but this is not the case for the third and the fourth factor.

Studying the factor solution in table 6.1 leads to two suggestions. The first suggestion is to re-examine the negative feedback items and the control items together, since some of them loaded together into the same factor. The second suggestion is to examine the items measured on the time scale in more detail since all five loaded into the same factor. In addition, it is perhaps possible that positive feedback should not be a separate construct, since the items loaded into the second factor together with the coaching items. In the following section the control and negative feedback items will first be re-examined before venturing into a discussion of the five items measured on a time scale.

A re-examination of the negative feedback items and the influence and control items

In the factor analysis across countries, conducted at the individual level, the two negative items “reprimand” and “dissatisfaction” loaded into a factor together with the control item “rules”. In a second factor analysis, where the items measured on the time scale were omitted from the analysis, the control items “reward” and “influence” also loaded into the factor with “rules” and the two negative feedback items. The only control and influence item did not load into the above mentioned factors was “follow-up” that loaded highly in the factor that mainly consisted of coaching items. Consequently, this item will be left out of discussion below. *The purpose of the analysis below is to examine whether the negative feedback items relate to the control items in each country in such a way that reliable constructs can be created.*

It is possible that the negative feedback items are seen by the responding employees as a form of directing work. This would be a form of directing where poor

into factors.

or unsatisfactory performance is clearly indicated. However, adding the influence and control items together with the two negative feedback items resulted in Cronbach alphas that were satisfactory *only* in two countries in this study (see table 6.2.2. in appendix 6.2).

Studying the correlation patterns in all the countries resulted in the identification of one pattern that existed in six countries with alphas above 0.70 in five of those countries³ (see table 6.2.2 in appendix 6.2). No other pattern that generated reliable alphas could be detected. Thus, it seems as if employees' preferences regarding different forms of directing in terms of control related, influence-oriented or in the form of negative feedback vary in correlation patterns within the countries included in this study. This implies that the items measuring the directing of work are "etic", since the items do not pattern in the same way in all countries and consequently cannot be added into constructs that are comparable across all countries.

The second observation arising from the analysis of the factor solution was that all items measured on a time scale loaded together into one factor. This suggests that these items should be studied in further detail, which will be done in the following section.

Time frequency items

In the factor analysis conducted at the individual level the five items measured on a time frequency scale loaded together into the same factor. These items operationalise a diverse set of items such as how often the manager should "supervise" the employees' work in detail, "review" the employees' work in comparisons with job objectives and expectations, "communicate" with the subordinates, make them feel "proud" of their work, and take an interest in and talk about the employees' "personal life" with them.

The correlation patterns for the five items vary within the countries in the study, and measuring the internal consistency by using Cronbach's alpha (see table 6.2) *indicated that only in seven countries are the five items internally consistent*. This is not surprising given the diverse nature of the items. Consequently, it is surprising

³ The items were "reward", "influence", "rules", "dissatisfaction" and "reprimand". The countries were Japan, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, and Switzerland.

that they loaded together into the same factor in the factor analysis. However, as mentioned in chapter 3 the lack of comparable correlation patterns within countries, that is the patterning effect, can be overridden in a factor analytical procedure. In other words, the resulting factor solution does not necessarily display patterns of interrelated variables that exist in all countries included in the sample that was used in the analysis. *Thus, the items measured on a time frequency scale are not added together into a construct, since they do not have the same patterning effect in all the countries in the sample.*

The items can, however, be added together to serve as a proxy for *how time intensive the employees prefer that the interpersonal leadership should carried out.* The actual interaction between the employees and their managers can be related to any of the topics measured by the items. The mean preferred time intensity in each country

Table 6.2: The mean “time intensity”¹ and Cronbach alphas for the “time intensity”

Country ²	Mean ³	Cronbach’s Alpha
Spain	87,33	0.78
United States	72,15	0.61
Australia	68,93	0.56
Canada	67,50	0.75
Austria	65,52	0.85
Netherlands	60,30	0.51
United Kingdom	60,01	0.71
Belgium	57,90	0.63
Norway	56,45	0.66
Japan	56,08	0.83
Sweden	55,45	0.67
Finland	52,26	0.85
Denmark	51,58	0.67
France	50,90	0.59
Germany	48,32	0.72
Switzerland	46,60	0.54

Notes: ¹ The “time intensity” value is based on adding the items measured on the time scale together. ² Countries are presented in descending order with regard to the preferred mean interaction in each country. ³ Numbers indicate number of days (with one time per day) per year that something should be carried out.

is presented in table 6.2. There is a variation in the mean of preferred time intensity, on average, from 47 times a year (about once a week) to 87 days a year (almost twice a week). However, as was discussed in the preceding chapter, all five items measured on a time scale varied significantly across countries.

Finally, it should be observed that although all five items measured on a time scale

loaded together into one factor when conducting a factor analysis across all countries at the individual level, they did not have similar correlation patterns nor acceptable reliability measures in all countries. The five items cover a diversity of topics such as how often the manager should communicate with the employees, should supervise the employees’ work, should review the employees’ work, should make the employees proud of their work, and should talk about personal issues with the employees. In addition, the absolute level of the average preferred time intensity of interpersonal leadership varies significantly across the countries.

Concluding comments

A factor analysis across countries conducted at the individual level generated four factors. The first was comparable to the “empowering” construct, and the second was similar to the “coaching” construct. The third factor included all the items measured on a time-scale and the fourth combined the negative feedback items together with the control item denoted “rules”.

The discussion of the factor solution resulted in two suggestions. The *first suggestion* was to re-examine the control items together with the negative feedback items in an attempt to identify comparable constructs. The *second suggestion* was to examine the items measured on a time scale in more detail since they loaded into the same factor in the factor analysis. Regarding the first suggestion, *the control and negative feedback items were not found to have any comparable patterns*. Consequently, the items could not be added into constructs. An examination of the second suggestion indicated that *the items measured on the time scale did not display similar correlation patterns in all countries*. Thus, it was decided that the items measured on a time scale could not be added into reliable constructs.

APPENDIX 6.4

Hold-out analysis: AUSTRIA

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,451**
		initiative	,451**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	90	84
		initiative	84	89

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,520**
		review	,520**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	83	81
		review	81	87

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,518**	,550**	,389**	,036	-,101
		department	,518**	1,000	,719**	,571**	,087	-,005
		you	,550**	,719**	1,000	,408**	,024	-,221
		cooperation	,389**	,571**	,408**	1,000	,167	,042
		communication	,036	,087	,024	,167	1,000	,329**
		personal	-,101	-,005	-,221	,042	,329**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,747	,395
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,437	,965
		you	,000	,000	,	,000	,827	,064
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,130	,725
		communication	,747	,437	,827	,130	,	,003
		personal	,395	,965	,064	,725	,003	,
N		inform	90	87	85	87	84	73
		department	87	87	84	85	82	71
		you	85	84	85	84	82	71
		cooperation	87	85	84	88	83	73
		communication	84	82	82	83	92	77
		personal	73	71	71	73	77	78

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: BELGIUM

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate 1,000	initiative ,391**
		initiative ,391**	delegate 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate ,	initiative ,000
		initiative ,000	delegate ,
N		delegate 133	initiative 129
		initiative 129	delegate 131

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise 1,000	review ,643**
		review ,643**	supervise 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		supervise ,	review ,000
		review ,000	supervise ,
N		supervise 133	review 126
		review 126	supervise 129

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,423**	,521**	,433**	,121	-,019
		department	,423**	1,000	,578**	,414**	,034	,080
		you	,521**	,578**	1,000	,524**	,042	,076
		cooperation	,433**	,414**	,524**	1,000	,048	-,054
		communication	,121	,034	,042	,048	1,000	,149
		personal	-,019	,080	,076	-,054	,149	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,179
department	,000		,	,000	,000	,706	,373	
you	,000		,000	,	,000	,642	,401	
cooperation	,000		,000	,000	,	,596	,552	
communication	,179		,706	,642	,596	,	,093	
personal	,838		,373	,401	,552	,093	,	
N	inform		131	130	130	130	125	124
	department	130	131	130	130	126	125	
	you	130	130	131	130	125	124	
	cooperation	130	130	130	132	126	125	
	communication	125	126	125	126	134	128	
	personal	124	125	124	125	128	133	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: DENMARK

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate 1,000	initiative ,578**
		initiative ,578**	delegate 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate ,	initiative ,000
		initiative ,000	delegate ,
N		delegate 499	initiative 486
		initiative 486	delegate 492

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise 1,000	review ,303**
		review ,303**	supervise 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		supervise ,	review ,000
		review ,000	supervise ,
N		supervise 489	review 465
		review 465	supervise 482

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,593**	,630**	,604**	-.002	,044
		department	,593**	1,000	,704**	,607**	,002	,113*
		you	,630**	,704**	1,000	,620**	,010	,099*
		cooperation	,604**	,607**	,620**	1,000	,059	,079
		communication	-.002	,002	,010	,059	1,000	,225**
		personal	,044	,113*	,099*	,079	,225**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,973	,350
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,973	,016
		you	,000	,000	,	,000	,835	,036
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,197	,094
		communication	,973	,973	,835	,197	,	,000
		personal	,350	,016	,036	,094	,000	,
N		inform	502	494	495	496	480	454
		department	494	498	493	493	478	452
		you	495	493	498	494	479	453
		cooperation	496	493	494	501	479	454
		communication	480	478	479	479	512	475
		personal	454	452	453	454	475	480

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: FINLAND

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,384**
		initiative	,384**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	87	87
		initiative	87	88

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,480**
		review	,480**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	90	88
		review	88	89

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,639**	,532**	,538**	,171	,065
		department	,639**	1,000	,559**	,655**	,163	,182
		you	,532**	,559**	1,000	,522**	-,048	,145
		cooperation	,538**	,655**	,522**	1,000	,078	,096
		communication	,171	,163	-,048	,078	1,000	,279**
		personal	,065	,182	,145	,096	,279**	1,000
			Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000
department	,000			,	,000	,000	,130	,088
you	,000			,000	,	,000	,660	,176
cooperation	,000			,000	,000	,	,471	,372
communication	,110			,130	,660	,471	,	,008
personal	,547			,088	,176	,372	,008	,
N				inform	89	89	89	89
		department	89	89	89	89	88	89
		you	89	89	89	89	88	89
		cooperation	89	89	89	89	88	89
		communication	88	88	88	88	90	90
		personal	89	89	89	89	90	91

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: FRANCE

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,364**
		,364**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
	initiative	,000	,
N	delegate	131	122
	initiative	122	126

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,389**
		,389**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
	review	,000	,
N	supervise	120	110
	review	110	117

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,557**	,583**	,521**	-,060	,038
		department	,557**	1,000	,626**	,692**	-,045	-,036
		you	,583**	,626**	1,000	,595**	-,007	,111
		cooperation	,521**	,692**	,595**	1,000	,007	,008
		communication	-,060	-,045	-,007	,007	1,000	,216*
		personal	,038	-,036	,111	,008	,216*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,528	,689	
	department	,000	,	,000	,000	,637	,708	
	you	,000	,000	,	,000	,939	,247	
	cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,942	,934	
	communication	,528	,637	,939	,942	,	,020	
	personal	,689	,708	,247	,934	,020	,	
N	inform	127	122	121	124	113	112	
	department	122	125	121	123	114	110	
	you	121	121	126	122	112	111	
	cooperation	124	123	122	129	116	114	
	communication	113	114	112	116	124	115	
	personal	112	110	111	114	115	120	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: GERMANY

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,440**
		initiative	,440**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	138	137
		initiative	137	137

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,346**
		review	,346**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	127	123
		review	123	131

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,311**	,293**	,346**	,054	,114
		department	,311**	1,000	,641**	,358**	,113	,002
		you	,293**	,641**	1,000	,267**	,085	-,025
		cooperation	,346**	,358**	,267**	1,000	,187*	,065
		communication	,054	,113	,085	,187*	1,000	,297**
		personal	,114	,002	-,025	,065	,297**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,001	,000	,546	,204
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,201	,987
		you	,001	,000	,	,002	,341	,784
		cooperation	,000	,000	,002	,	,034	,472
		communication	,546	,201	,341	,034	,	,001
		personal	,204	,987	,784	,472	,001	,
N		inform	134	132	129	133	129	126
		department	132	136	132	133	130	127
		you	129	132	133	131	128	125
		cooperation	133	133	131	135	129	126
		communication	129	130	128	129	133	129
		personal	126	127	125	126	129	130

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: JAPAN

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate 1,000	initiative ,440**
		initiative ,440**	delegate 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate ,	initiative ,000
		initiative ,000	delegate ,
N		delegate 138	initiative 137
		initiative 137	delegate 137

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise 1,000	review ,346**
		review ,346**	supervise 1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		supervise ,	review ,000
		review ,000	supervise ,
N		supervise 127	review 123
		review 123	supervise 131

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,311**	,293**	,346**	,054	,114
		department	,311**	1,000	,641**	,358**	,113	,002
		you	,293**	,641**	1,000	,267**	,085	-,025
		cooperation	,346**	,358**	,267**	1,000	,187*	,065
		communication	,054	,113	,085	,187*	1,000	,297**
		personal	,114	,002	-,025	,065	,297**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,000	,001	,000	,546	,204	
		department	,000	,000	,000	,201	,987	
		you	,001	,000	,002	,341	,784	
		cooperation	,000	,000	,002	,034	,472	
		communication	,546	,201	,341	,034	,001	
		personal	,204	,987	,784	,472	,001	
N		inform	134	132	129	133	129	126
		department	132	136	132	133	130	127
		you	129	132	133	131	128	125
		cooperation	133	133	131	135	129	126
		communication	129	130	128	129	133	129
		personal	126	127	125	126	129	130

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: THE NETHERLANDS

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,450**
		initiative	,450**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	143	139
		initiative	139	140

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,456**
		review	,456**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	140	124
		review	124	126

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,447**	,528**	,512**	,037	-.093
		department	,447**	1,000	,550**	,577**	,102	,004
		you	,528**	,550**	1,000	,506**	-.010	-.024
		cooperation	,512**	,577**	,506**	1,000	,028	-.053
		communication	,037	,102	-.010	,028	1,000	,269**
		personal	-.093	,004	-.024	-.053	,269**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)		inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,671	,281
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,240	,963
		you	,000	,000	,	,000	,914	,784
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,745	,535
		communication	,671	,240	,914	,745	,	,002
		personal	,281	,963	,784	,535	,002	,
N		inform	141	139	137	141	132	136
		department	139	141	137	141	133	136
		you	137	137	139	139	132	135
		cooperation	141	141	139	144	135	139
		communication	132	133	132	135	136	134
		personal	136	136	135	139	134	140

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: NORWAY

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,501**
		,501**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
	initiative	,000	,
N	delegate	389	382
	initiative	382	385

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,382**
		,382**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
	review	,000	,
N	supervise	377	371
	review	371	381

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal	
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,488**	,550**	,466**	-,002	,085
		department	,488**	1,000	,563**	,599**	,039	,092
		you	,550**	,563**	1,000	,506**	-,045	,049
		cooperation	,466**	,599**	,506**	1,000	,040	,069
		communication	-,002	,039	-,045	,040	1,000	,077
		personal	,085	,092	,049	,069	,077	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,962	,109	
	department	,000	,	,000	,000	,457	,080	
	you	,000	,000	,	,000	,388	,355	
	cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,439	,191	
	communication	,962	,457	,388	,439	,	,141	
	personal	,109	,080	,355	,191	,141	,	
N	inform	387	385	383	384	372	360	
	department	385	388	384	383	373	360	
	you	383	384	389	384	375	362	
	cooperation	384	383	384	388	373	360	
	communication	372	373	375	373	388	368	
	personal	360	360	362	360	368	371	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: SWEDEN

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,508**
		initiative	,508**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N	delegate	5168	5101	
	initiative	5101	5142	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,330**
		review	,330**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N	supervise	5044	4883	
	review	4883	4973	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,570**	,569**	,486**	,045**	,038**
		department	,570**	1,000	,640**	,545**	,008	,052**
		you	,569**	,640**	1,000	,521**	,029*	,063**
		cooperation	,486**	,545**	,521**	1,000	,009	,048**
		communication	,045**	,008	,029*	,009	1,000	,384**
		personal	,038**	,052**	,063**	,048**	,384**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,001	,007
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,561	,000
		you	,000	,000	,	,000	,044	,000
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,534	,001
		communication	,001	,561	,044	,534	,	,000
		personal	,007	,000	,000	,001	,000	,
N	inform	5164	5102	5103	5127	4998	4945	
	department	5102	5134	5075	5098	4975	4923	
	you	5103	5075	5128	5098	4972	4923	
	cooperation	5127	5098	5098	5160	4997	4950	
	communication	4998	4975	4972	4997	5153	5022	
	personal	4945	4923	4923	4950	5022	5070	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hold out analysis : SWITZERLAND

Correlations

		delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,279
		,279	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,136
	initiative	,136	,
N	delegate	31	30
	initiative	30	30

Correlations

		supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,407*
		,407*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,031
	review	,031	,
N	supervise	30	28
	review	28	28

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,457*	,631**	,226	,119	-,132
		,457*	1,000	,566**	,504**	-,134	-,115
		,631**	,566**	1,000	,330	,118	-,148
		,226	,504**	,330	1,000	-,091	-,085
		,119	-,134	,118	-,091	1,000	,474*
		-,132	-,115	-,148	-,085	,474*	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,011	,000	,229	,539	,512
	department	,011	,	,001	,004	,480	,560
	you	,000	,001	,	,075	,536	,451
	cooperation	,229	,004	,075	,	,632	,666
	communication	,539	,480	,536	,632	,	,011
	personal	,512	,560	,451	,666	,011	,
N	inform	30	30	29	30	29	27
	department	30	31	30	31	30	28
	you	29	30	30	30	30	28
	cooperation	30	31	30	31	30	28
	communication	29	30	30	30	30	28
	personal	27	28	28	28	28	28

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold-out analysis: THE UNITED KINGDOM

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,417**
		initiative	,417**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	278	267
		initiative	267	273

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,484**
		review	,484**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	265	254
		review	254	265

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,496**	,451**	,434**	,087	,081
		department	,496**	1,000	,640**	,573**	,034	,024
		you	,451**	,640**	1,000	,467**	-.015	,092
		cooperation	,434**	,573**	,467**	1,000	-.051	,097
		communication	,087	,034	-.015	-.051	1,000	,198**
		personal	,081	,024	,092	,097	,198**	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,155
department	,000		,	,000	,000	,577	,700	
you	,000		,000	,	,000	,811	,146	
cooperation	,000		,000	,000	,	,402	,124	
communication	,155		,577	,811	,402	,	,001	
personal	,198		,700	,146	,124	,001	,	
N	inform		275	273	272	273	266	252
	department	273	275	272	274	266	252	
	you	272	272	276	273	268	252	
	cooperation	273	274	273	279	268	254	
	communication	266	266	268	268	282	259	
	personal	252	252	252	254	259	262	

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Hold out analysis: THE UNITED STATES

Correlations

			delegate	initiative
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	delegate	1,000	,438**
		initiative	,438**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	delegate	,	,000
		initiative	,000	,
N		delegate	1313	1300
		initiative	1300	1304

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			supervise	review
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	supervise	1,000	,326**
		review	,326**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	supervise	,	,000
		review	,000	,
N		supervise	1285	1243
		review	1243	1271

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

			inform	department	you	cooperation	communication	personal
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	inform	1,000	,548**	,500**	,473**	,069*	,113**
		department	,548**	1,000	,575**	,537**	,051	,080**
		you	,500**	,575**	1,000	,463**	,045	,121**
		cooperation	,473**	,537**	,463**	1,000	,010	,064*
		communication	,069*	,051	,045	,010	1,000	,309**
		personal	,113**	,080**	,121**	,064*	,309**	1,000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	inform	,	,000	,000	,000	,013	,000
		department	,000	,	,000	,000	,069	,004
		you	,000	,000	,	,000	,104	,000
		cooperation	,000	,000	,000	,	,732	,022
		communication	,013	,069	,104	,732	,	,000
		personal	,000	,004	,000	,022	,000	,
N		inform	1304	1299	1296	1300	1285	1250
		department	1299	1307	1298	1303	1288	1252
		you	1296	1298	1306	1301	1286	1252
		cooperation	1300	1303	1301	1311	1291	1255
		communication	1285	1288	1286	1291	1314	1267
		personal	1250	1252	1252	1255	1267	1278

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.5

Table 6.5.1 Internal consistency measures within-countries of the patterning effects for each area of interpersonal leadership in the hold-out sample (Cronbach alphas)

<i>country</i>	<i>empowering</i>	<i>coaching</i>	<i>supervision and review</i>
Sweden	.69	.85	.57
Norway	.65	.81	.55
Denmark	.72	.88	.49
Finland	.47	.85	.79
Netherlands	.69	.83	.62
Germany	.64	.73	.42
Austria	.52	.83	.73
Switzerland	.55	.76	.22
Belgium	.58	.80	.67
France	.45	.89	.49
Brazil	.62	.82	.38
Philippines	.65	.85	.59
Japan	.77	.87	.65
United Kingdom	.63	.80	.57
United States	.63	.82	.59

Table 6.5.2 Two separate ANOVAs one for each construct.

<i>background variable</i>	<i>empowering</i>	<i>coaching</i>
country	4.49 ^{***}	4.454 ^{**}
department	7.353 ^{***}	1.90
position	2.74 ^{**}	6.40 ^{**}
gender	2.74	0.04
age	1.61	2.86

Table 6.5.3 Cronbach alphas for the two constructs of interpersonal leadership within each work position

<i>work position</i>	<i>empowering</i>	<i>coaching</i>
managers	.65	.79
researchers	.66	.83
supervisors	.64	.87
salaried staff	.66	.84
factory workers	.65	.84

Table 6.5.4 Cronbach alphas for the three constructs of interpersonal leadership within each department

<i>department</i>	<i>empowering</i>	<i>coaching</i>
research & development	.63	.79
sales & marketing	.69	.83
administration & finance	.66	.85
production and transport	.63	.84

APPENDIX 8

Table 8.1 Countries included in the Spearman rank correlation analysis

Elements of IPL measured in the following countries	Cultural dimensions measured in the following countries:				
<i>Zander (1997)</i>	<i>Maznevski (1996-1997)</i>	<i>Trompenaars (1993)</i>	<i>Schwartz (1994)</i>	<i>Hofstede (1980/1984)</i>	<i>Laurent (1983)</i>
Australia ¹	Australia	Australia	Australia	Australia	
Austria		Austria		Austria	
Belgium		Belgium		Belgium	Belgium
Brazil ²		Brazil	Brazil	Brazil	
Canada ¹	Canada	Canada		Canada	
Denmark		Denmark	Denmark	Denmark	Denmark
Finland		Finland		Finland	
France		France	France	France	France
Germany		Germany	Germany	Germany	Germany
Japan		Japan	Japan	Japan	
Netherlands	Netherlands	Netherlands	Netherlands	Netherlands	Netherlands
Norway		Norway		Norway	
Philippines ²		Philippines		Philippines	
Spain ¹		Spain	Spain	Spain	
Sweden		Sweden		Sweden	Sweden
Swiss		Swiss	Swiss	Swiss	Swiss
UK	UK	UK		UK	UK
USA	USA	USA	USA	USA	USA
	+5 additional countries	+20 additional countries	+27 additional countries	+22 additional countries (later 13 countries where added)	+1 additional country

Note: ¹only included in the main analysis, ² only included in the hold-out analysis

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