School of Management and Marketing

Leadership and Culture:
international perceptions of organizational leadership

by
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A thesis presented as part of the requirements
for the award of the degree of
Master of Commerce in Management
Curtin University of Technology
1995

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Abstract

This study is a comparative investigation of organizational leadership internationally in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. The thesis developed is largely based on the "PM" (Performance/Maintenance) model of leadership developed by Misumi over the last three or four decades in Japan.

The Misumi model sets a precedent interesting for its Eastern juxtaposition with Hofstede and for the tension it recognizes between behaviours general to all situations of organizational leadership and those which are context-specific. In addition to the focus on this theory in particular, the study examines the relationship of national and personal values to perceptions and interpretation of organizational leadership behaviour. The underlying purpose is to increase understanding of cross-cultural variables in the field of organizational leadership.

For its premise, the research undertaken makes the suggestion that leadership behaviours are influenced by national cultural variables and therefore national similarities or differences are, at least to some extent, culturally determined. It is the scope of this cultural imperative which becomes the focus for the thesis. Hypotheses developed, and the data gathered to test them, centre on the perceptions of consistency between organizational leadership in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia

I declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in respect of any other academic award.

Pamela M Hedges

Acknowledgments

My work on this project has been made possible through the assistance and encouragement of many people, and I should like to recognize their contribution and offer them my grateful thanks.

Associate Professor Samir Chatterjee, my supervisor, who inspired the whole project by igniting my enthusiasm for leadership, encouraged me to think globally and provided a source of thoughtful perception and great wisdom.

Professor Geoff Soutar, whose understanding of research provided me with boundless knowledge in the areas of statistical analysis, whose willingness to make himself available to talk, advise and encourage never failed, and whose ability to get to the heart of a problem in the shortest time I have ever experienced left me dazed on many occasions.

Dr Malcolm Innes-Brown, who constantly and consistently throughout the long and often tedious time of working on the project acted as an encouragement, a sounding-board, an adviser and a friend. He gave unstintingly of his time and skills in putting together the report, spent multiplied hours reading, proofing and suggesting improvements and helped me to refine my writing skills more, I think, than anyone has ever done.

Caron Molster, colleague and friend in the School of Management and Marketing and cooccupier of an office with me, who helped me to come to terms with the rigours of statistical analysis with patience, longsuffering and never-failing kindness.

Colleagues in the School of Management and Marketing, who offered frequent encouragement and interest over a long period of time.

Alan Hedges, my dear and valued husband, who gave unfailing support, comfort and confidence throughout the time devoted to this project and who always believed in both me and my work.

To all these, and others not specifically named, my sincere and heartfelt thanks.

Dedication

Dedicated to my daughters Rachel and Sarah and the inspiration they have been to me in their commitment to learning.

Chapter One

Introduction and Identification of the Problem

Chapter 1 Introduction and identification of the problem

1.1 Introduction

Leadership has been a feature of human interaction since the dawn of time, although the word 'leadership' seems not to have been coined until 1818 (Rost, 1991:40). The concept of leadership, however, with or without a word to describe it, has been recognized and understood, at least in part, for a very considerable time. Julius Caesar, Alexander the Great and Moses, to name but a few, represent the merest tip of the iceberg when considering those renowned as great leaders. Rost (1991) claims that a true study of leadership was impossible until there was a concrete concept to describe it, and certainly the area has been considerably explored by social scientists, management researchers and many others from a variety of academic disciplines only since the beginning of the twentieth century.

Even though study of leadership itself has followed many paths, thereby taking into consideration many facets of human interrelationships, the idea of taking into account national cultures of both leader and follower seems largely to have escaped academic scrutiny. Yet some, at least, of the ancient 'great men' understood and used national culture to advantage. Alexander the Great, so effective a leader that he became ruler of over half his known world

within less than ten years, ignored his teacher Aristotle's maxim that only Greeks were free, and all others were to be regarded as slaves, and actively appreciated the good qualities of conquered nations, ruling with rather than over them. Alexander frequently permitted local leaders to continue governing, recognizing the importance of permitting his new territories to maintain a separate national cultural identity because it was so very important to them. He knew *"nothing gains more upon men than in a conformity to their fashions and customs"* (Plutarch's 'Lives', quoted in Clemens and Mayer, 1987), and insisted upon his own leaders adopting national dress and adhering to local customs.

> *He more and more accommodated himself in his way of living to that of the natives, and tried to bring them also as near as he could to the Macedonian customs.*
>
> (Plutarch's 'Lives', quoted in Clemens and Mayer, 1987)

Far from condescending towards those whom he had conquered, Alexander recognized the importance of blending cultures together. He looked for the particular strengths of each nation and tried to adopt them. The organizational ability of the Persians, for example, was something he greatly admired and tried to emulate (Clemens and Mayer, 1987).

Nebuchadnezzar, another of the truly great ancient leaders, also recognized the importance of national culture. He adopted a campaign strategy designed, on the one hand, to enrich his own nation's culture and skills, while at the same time to demoralize the nations he had conquered, and take from them their will to rebel. His habit was to remove from the conquered city or nation its

outstanding leaders (or young people with leadership potential) and deliver them to his own capital, with the intention of incorporating their skills, intellect and capacity into his own resources. He likewise simultaneously removed from the conquered nation or city a considerable proportion of its inhabitants and resettled them in another conquered city, replacing them by expatriates from yet another subjugated ethnic group. By this means national culture, national pride, identity and cohesion of the conquered people were, at least, diluted, and very probably extinguished altogether.

These two examples serve as an illustration of the immense importance of national culture, recognized, acclaimed and used by two of history's outstanding leaders. It is surprising that our century's preoccupation with the study of leadership has largely ignored such a consequential factor. Part of the objective in undertaking this project was to suggest that organizational leaders need to be able to appreciate the advantages of adapting leadership behaviour to the studied perceptions of followers, recognizing that national cultural values have a deep and abiding influence upon those perceptions (Bedi, 1991). The undertaking of the project also springs, in part, from a conviction that the national cultural heritage of organizational leaders plays a vital role in the way they manage and relate to others (Maruyama, 1985; Ali,1988). A deeper level of understanding of the culturally-based perceptions of employees could lead to a significant advance towards the ideal of each leader valuing each subordinate as unique and precious, and a notable increase in effective leadership. In the late twentieth century, the

escalating globalization of the world is increasing the demands upon organizations to perform and to compete, with accompanying pressures upon those who lead such organizations. It will be a contention of this thesis that any means of improving organizational leadership could well be a step towards greater functionalism in international and global contexts.

From the generic notion of leadership handed down through the ages, academic study of the nature and scope of leadership proliferated during the twentieth century and, from this body of study, many schools of thought developed. In an attempt to reach some consensus about what could be generalized from factors common to 'greatness', for instance, the *'great man'* idea looked at prominent leaders. This led to *'trait'* theories of leadership. Such theories sought to describe specific attributes shared among leaders, their very presence being accounted as suggestive of leadership potential. Researchers working under this paradigm pointed to characteristics essential for effective leadership, but every list of such characteristics propounded was different, and no common set of traits was able to be determined. Without such consensus, the paradigm was essentially flawed. Stogdill (in a classic work, originally published in 1974, and which has since been expanded and amended by Bass) compared many studies on traits, but ultimately concluded that they were contradictory and produced no consistent result (Bass, 1990). Perhaps as a result of this inconclusive line of thinking, the emphasis was transferred to behaviour associated with leadership, as distinct from leader personality characteristics.

Following this line of thought, universalist models were suggested, arguing that one or other approach to leadership was, in every circumstance, superior to others: the so-called *'one-best-way'* models. Subsequent *'situational'* theorists have refuted these ideas, judging that either the situation must be amended in order to render a particular leader effective, or else leaders must modify their practices to suit their specific situational context. It can be seen that the *'leader behaviour'* and *'situational'* leadership models involved a paradigmatic shift in thinking away from concentration on the leader only and towards the relationship potential between leader and followers.

Contemporary views of leadership tend to move even further along this leader/follower relationship continuum, and emphasise those who are led, rather than leaders themselves. This has given rise to an emphasis on the interactive nature of leadership, the social and psychological linkages between individuals. This includes the way in which 'followers' attribute leadership powers, characteristics, abilities, competencies, and rights to a leader, how leaders attribute characteristics of success or failure to their subordinates rather than to the situation or their own leadership, and the mutual influence of leaders and followers (Bass, 1990).

Most writers suggest there is a historical development in these theories, but a retrospective view over the work of the entire twentieth century suggests that many of these ways of thinking have co-existed, with one or other of them occupying the focus of

attention at any particular moment in time. During the last decade or so, for instance, the world has been regaled with stories of excellence in leadership, and the creation of 'heroes' in the business world. This is really a refocussing on the 'great man' idea of leadership, offering encouragement to study the attributes and achievements of strikingly successful leaders and to emulate their achievements by imitating their style, methods and behaviour. One has only to consider the acclaim and commentary which any successful business or sports hero commands to be reminded of just how many of these leadership successes have been displayed for scrutiny, admiration, inspiration and imitation. The upsurge of interest in charismatic leadership in recent years (Conger, 1989; Conger, 1991) is another example which confirms that 'earlier' theories have not really been supplanted, but coexist, coming in and out of focus according to the prevailing mood of the moment. For what is the study of charismatic leadership if not another version of a quest for a set of traits which signal a leader? Henry Mintzberg, an eminent researcher, thinker and writer on leadership and management, particularly in the area of the roles of leaders and managers, commented on the continuing recurrence of old ideas:*"Even the old ones endure . . . consideration and initiating structure are not dead - they come up repeatedly"* (quoted in Hunt, Sekaran and Schreisheim, 1982; 250).

This statement confirms the assertion that the varying schools of thought about leadership, far from being neatly arranged in a historical progression, as is so often stated in management texts, all

continue to exert an influence upon academic exploration and study of the discipline. While no theory or theoretical perspective has been found adequately to explain everything about leadership, none have been entirely refuted, and all might be viewed as facets of an intricately-cut precious gem, whose fullness of beauty still evades comprehensive scrutiny.

1.2 Background of the problem

A survey of the literature and research in the area of leadership in the first half of the century (in chapter two) will show that the vast majority of studies in this area were undertaken by Western, and in particular by North American, thinkers and researchers. Most of the studies, by inference, have been conducted in Western situations by Western researchers with Western values and mindsets. In the main, the results of these studies have been weighed, accepted or rejected, discussed, built upon and applied without realizing that there has been an underlying assumption that what is said, thought, researched, proved and practised in Western situations will be transferable to other, non-Western environments.

During the last ten years or so, this situation has begun to change, and the realization that such assumptions have unwittingly been made and acted upon is dawning internationally. Adler and Jelinek (1986) recognized the pressure on organizations everywhere to become international, and pointed out the need to think both from the macro perspective of structure, technology. resources, product and financial markets, and from the micro perspective of managing people within these structures. They believed that US companies

have for too long assumed that a strong organizational culture is easily transferable, and showed that the national cultural differences of employees cannot be ignored if internationalisation is to succeed. Writers and researchers from outside the USA, from totally non-Western cultures, are increasingly being heard, and the focus of attention, as in many other spheres of knowledge, is becoming more global and cross-cultural. Perhaps the impetus for this change of direction in thinking is the increased economic success of non-Western nations such as Japan and Korea, and the economic problems of many Western nations. Success always attracts analysis and imitation and recent years have seen attention given, for instance, to Japanese management and business methods, which would have seemed inconceivable even twenty years ago.

Geert Hofstede, whilst a psychologist working with a large multinational corporation, became an important figure in the growing awareness of the need for a more international focus on the sensitivities of conducting business between nations. He undertook extensive research over many years with thousands of subjects in many nations, all employed by the same international company. This company (IBM) is renowned for having its own strong corporate culture, which, it might be assumed, would diminish perceived differences between personnel. Hofstede (1980) found that the single most important difference between people's perceptions and attitudes is attributable to their national identity and the values connected with it. Irrespective of other differences between personnel, such as age, sex, job or status, national identity and

differences in cultural background were consistently the dominant factors.

Hofstede's findings have been challenged on the grounds that all his subjects were employed by the same company, thus producing a biased sample. However, this strengthens rather than weakens his findings, since the uniformity of the common corporate culture should act as a 'control', and differences between individuals would need to be deep-seated and strong to be distinguishable against such an equalizing background (Ronen and Shenkar, 1985). Other researchers also, such as Child (1981), Child and Tayeb (1983), England (1975), Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966), Hall (1959), Jackofsky, Slocum and McQuaid (1988), Kluckholn and Strodbeck (1961), Maruyama (1985), Rokeach (1973) and Tayeb (1988) have produced a compelling body of evidence to show the unwisdom of ignoring national culture and its associated values, thought patterns and ideals. The evidence from researchers such as those mentioned, indicates that national culture is an important, perhaps even a vital, factor to be considered in the area of human interrelationships as they impact on organizational leadership in international settings.

If it is true, as the following literature survey will suggest, that national culture strongly influences the personal values of its members, then in an increasingly multicultural world the influence of national culture in any area of social, political, business or educational interaction could be profound. The relationship between leader and follower is a crucial sphere for the recognition of

such a powerful influence. Australia is undeniably a multicultural society, and increasingly involved in interactions with other nations, particularly with the non-Western nations of South-East Asia. It is an imperative of this thesis to determine whether the process of leadership and the behaviour of leaders is perceived differently by those with different national cultural backgrounds. It is possible that one manner of leadership or type of leader-follower interaction may prove effective in one country but disastrous in another. It is possible that employee perceptions, influenced by the personal values which relate to their national culture, will attribute effective leadership more readily to a leader who behaves in one way rather than another. It is possible that awareness of perceptions influenced by national cultures could help leaders to adapt to the needs of their followers in ways which would lead to more effective leadership. Possibilities such as these have been the background to the undertaking of this project.

1.3 Statement of the problem

The dominance of Western leadership research and, in particular, American research, has led to possibly flawed conclusions. The first questionable conclusion to be drawn was more of an unwitting assumption: that since certain results were confirmed by research, they were true in all situations. Such a conclusion ignored the possibility that national culture might be a moderating factor which would alter results. However, just as in many sociological situations, paradigmatic thinking may lead to extremes in leadership research. National culture, far from having no influence at all, may

be suspected of providing the explanation for all observed differences between groups of people in different cultures. Several writers warn against this tendency, and point out that national culture, while a significant factor, is only one of a number of important features in the consideration of any aspect of cross-cultural interrelations (Child, 1981; Everett, Stening and Longton, 1982; Mansfield and Poole, 1981; Tayeb, 1988).

With the growth of interest in leadership from a cross-cultural perspective comes a need to determine whether theories of leadership are universal or whether they are culture-specific. This project attempts to clarify that situation with respect to organizational leader behaviour, in particular as shown in the 'PM leadership theory', Jyuji Misumi's Japanese situational leadership model. As with the other major contingency-based situational leadership theories, the PM theory sees leader behaviour as being either *task-oriented, people-oriented,* or some interaction between both. A point of departure in Misumi's model lies in the tension between some universal and some situation-specific behaviours which display these characteristics. This theory will be more fully explained later.

1.4 Purpose of the study

Leadership is fundamentally a relationship-based influence between people, and therefore is considerably dependent upon the quality of understanding between the interactive parties. Australia is very much a multi-cultural nation, deriving national characteristics from the varied origins of her early settlers. In post-war years, a flood of

immigrants produced a society of even greater heterogeneity. Not only have many sources fused to produce a unique national character, but recent arrivals, who have not yet become fully integrated into their new nationality, have retained their ethnic characteristics, habits and lifestyle, producing an even greater wealth of diversity. Today, Australian ethnicity reflects one of the world's greatest cosmopolitan mixes of peoples, with over a third of the population owing its origin to countries outside Australia. Census figures over the last two census periods (1986 and 1991) reveal this clearly. The chart below shows the proportion of Australians born in Australia and overseas, and also the origins of the parents of Australian-born citizens for the last ten years.

year	country of birth		parents' country of birth Australian born persons only	
	Australia (%)	Overseas (%)	Australia (%)	Overseas (%)
1986	77.6	22.4	79.8	20.2
1991	75.5	24.5	80.8	19.2

source: Australian Bureau of Statistics 1986 and 1991 census of Population and Housing

As can be seen from the statistics, approximately one quarter of Australia's population were born outside Australia: if the proportion of the parents of those born in Australia whose parents were born elsewhere are added into this, the proportion of people with a strong national culture from outside the country is over 40% and has increased a little even in the last ten years. This represents a very large crosscultural contingent within the country, and supports the claim that Australia is a truly multicultural nation.

Australian managers who wish to be fully effective as leaders require sensitivity to the needs, feelings and customs of the many minorities for whom they are responsible, and an awareness of those patterns of speech, behaviour, appearance, work habits and many other factors which would give rise to leader confidence among those with whom they mix. This is true just as much for those who never set foot outside Australia as for those who frequently work or have dealings internationally.

In recent years, scandals, corruption and sudden downfall have plagued Australian political and business life, causing a lowering in confidence and the escalation of suspicion among the Australian people towards their leaders; there are considerable grounds for believing that these attitudes may extend worldwide. There have been, for example, Royal Commissions to examine political corruption and questionable business practices in almost every state in the last five years. The need now for strong, effective, ethical and trusted leaders has become important. Additionally, Australia is emerging from the worst recession since the 1930s, making it imperative for economic survival that she broaden her horizons, becoming internationally recognized as competitive and respected as a nation with significant contributions to make in all aspects of the international scene. Men and women with leadership ability in every sphere of endeavour have a challenging opportunity to facilitate a shift towards this situation. However, in order to maximize these opportunities, leaders must be able to act in situations other than those familiar to them and with people other

than Australians. Determining whether, and if so to what extent, leadership skills are transferable between managers of different national cultural backgrounds is a very relevant factor in the accomplishment of these worthwhile goals.

1.5 Objectives to be investigated in this thesis

The Japanese PM theory of leadership, which will be detailed in the next chapter, is a two-factor theory focussing on work-related and people-related behaviours associated with leaders, as seen through the eyes of their subordinates. The originator of the theory, Jyuji Misumi, believes that certain behaviours are universally understood and applicable, while others are specific to the particular situation. Situations may differ functionally or geographically, but each independent situation will produce behaviours which workers will perceive as showing a leader to be acting in either a work-related or a people-related manner, or in some interactive combination of both.

This project aims to show if Misumi's findings, already considerably tested in Japan and in several South-East Asian and Western contexts, can be seen to apply in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. In particular the project will reveal whether some factors lead to the same results in each country, while others show measurable divergence on the basis of cultural differences. Additionally, by comparing the data on national and individual values espoused by the respondents in Australia or Singapore/Malaysia who have given their perceptions of leadership behaviours, it is hoped to discover whether significant differences in interpretation of leader behaviour

between cultures, if these are found to exist, have definable and explicable causes.

1.6 Delineation of the research problem

Misumi determined, through repeated research into the validity of the PM leadership theory, that some items in his questionnaire are 'general' items; that is, they refer to behaviours which seem to be interpreted in the same way by employees irrespective of situation. Over forty years or so of repetition, the questionnaire has been used in different industrial and organizational contexts, as well as in different geographical regions, (Misumi, 1985) though only recently has it been used outside Japan (Smith, Peterson *et al,* 1989; Smith, Misumi *et al,* 1989). Specific items on the questionnaire have been developed according to context and employees show considerably different interpretations of leadership behaviours on these items. Usually Misumi has developed these 'specific' items as a result of laboratory work, qualitative research, focus interviews and group sessions within the particular situation of research (Misumi, 1985). Questions studying factory workers' perceptions of leadership would vary considerably, for instance, from the questions used for teachers: these represent the considerable variety of employment situations investigated.

In a recent international study based on Misumi's work, questions were prepared for use by workers in electronics firms, and care was taken by the researchers that the companies used were as similar to each other as possible (Smith, Misumi *et al,* 1989). The current

project uses this international study as a basis, aiming to replicate it in an amended form in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. These countries were not a part of the former study, but their use in this project retained the East-West comparative component of the former study, as well as being a convenience sample and of considerable interest due to increasing economic and trade linkages. However, in the current project it was not possible to restrict the employees surveyed to electronics firms' workers, so some of the situation-specific questions were amended to have a more general application. It is acknowledged that this partially reduces the equivalence of the replication. These and other differences which limit the replication of the 1989 study are detailed fully in the methodology chapter.

In order to explore parameters relating to the national culture of the participants in the project, two additional groups of items were included in the research instrument, asking respondents to delineate both their own nation's espoused values and their individual values. It was hoped that respondents of the same national cultural background would reveal a similar pattern of responses, at least on some items, and that these patterns would be significantly distinct from those of respondents from other national cultural backgrounds. It was conjectured that it might also be possible to find a correlation between the values important to members of the particular national culture and their interpretation of some leadership behaviours, and thus to suggest definite reasons behind those interpretations.

Within the background section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to state their national origins, also those of their parents, the duration of their life in their present country of residence and their perceived national identity. Responses to these questions, as will be pointed out later, were too diverse and thinly spread to allow for grouping into substantial factors, but interesting features are interpreted and commented on in the results chapter.

1.7 Hypotheses to be tested

The objective of the proposed research was to examine leadership behaviour in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, by an augmented replication of an international study. This study explored the international applicability of the PM theory of leadership, validated over many years, mainly in Japan. The augmentation involves the use of extra items concerned with personal and national cultural values, selected from well-validated sources.

If the results of previous studies are confirmed, characterizations of leadership explained in the PM theory should be similar to those determined elsewhere (in Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond, 1989). Specific behaviours associated with those styles, however, have been seen to differ according to national culture, and it may be possible to define peculiarly Australian or Singaporean/Malaysian leadership behaviours. Other studies have confirmed the existence of some general and some culture-specific managerial behaviours (e.g. Everett, Stening and Longton, 1982; Kelly, Whatley and Worthley, 1990).

Against this background, the general questions this project is attempting to answer are:

a. Do styles of leadership in Australia and Singapore/Malaysia correlate with those in other countries, thus demonstrating the transferability of leadership style, and in particular the PM theory of leadership, across cultures?

b. By considering how differently specific behaviours are perceived in different national/social/political settings, can Singaporean/Malaysian or Australian employees' particular views of organizational leadership behaviour be determined?

c. Is there a group of personal values common to Australian or to Singaporean/Malaysian employees, yet distinct from those of the other national group, by which their perceived views of organizational leadership may be gauged?

From these three questions come the specific hypotheses tested in this project, which are a combination of the hypotheses of the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989:99) research and some hypotheses which are more specific to the Australian and Singapore/Malaysian leadership arena.

A The three hypotheses taken from Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989:99)

1. The factor structure of general measures of leader style will show high similarity across national cultures.

2. The factor structure of specific measures will vary between national cultures.

3. Specific measures will show different relations to general measures across national cultures, and the pattern of these differences will be explainable in terms of the leadership values espoused within each national culture.

B Hypotheses specific to this study which seek to explore the effect of espoused national and individual values on perceptions of organizational leadership.

4. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers' perceptions of leadership style will align with the two-factor PM concept.

5. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employees will have specific perceptions of leader behaviour which will be similar within their own national culture, but will differ from those in other national cultures.

6. The personal value system of individuals will influence/have a bearing on their views of leadership. In particular, a personal value system, as measured by the two value tests used, will show a measurable amendment in perceptions of organizational leadership.

1.8 Importance of the study

Briefly in this chapter the shift in emphasis in the academic study of leadership was noted. 'Great man' and 'traits' theorists concentrated solely upon the attributes of the leader. There was a gradual move towards consideration of the interaction of leader and follower, with theories concerning leadership style and leader behaviour with

respect to their followers. Recently, attention has focussed on followers, while there has also been a recurrence of fascination with 'heroic' leaders almost independently of followers. There is an underlying recognition that it is vital to treat people as unique individuals, to understand the variations of perception, motivation, needs and drives between persons, and to encourage development to their full potential. Yet it is impractical to suggest that leaders adopt a different manner with every person, having concentratedly studied their unique needs, talents, background, perceptions and preferences. The sheer magnitude of such a task may be one reason for adopting a *'one-best-way'* approach; to choose one method of leadership, which has been shown to be effective, and with which the particular leader feels comfortable, trusting that, however varied the subordinates, they will all somehow adapt to that leadership, is a very attractive option. The adoption of leadership behaviours which take into account the differing national cultural backgrounds, perceptions, values and attitudes of groups of subordinates may prove to be a valuable bridge between a *'one-best-way'* approach and the ideal of considering each individual separately and distinctly which seems so unattainable.

A recent study into the perceptions of the performance of Australian managers by South-East Asian 'customer' countries showed the importance to Australian organizations, especially if they wish to interact competitively and effectively within South-East Asia, of determining ways to enable Australian managers and their methods to be viewed in a more positive light (Dawkins, Savery and

Mazzarol, 1994). This study, which ranked Australian managers against those of five key competitors in the South-East Asian market on a framework of managerial competencies, found that Australians are generally perceived poorly. Few respondents ranked Australian managers better than those from Germany, UK, USA, Taiwan or Japan on any of the criteria (technical expertise, managerial expertise, adaptability, leadership skills, entrepreneurial skills, acceptance of responsibility, cross cultural skills and ability to look well into the future). However, it must be pointed out that two of the countries sampled were also subjects of the enquiry (Taiwan and Japan), and the others are far more traditionally regarded as dominant in world markets than is Australia; both these factors could be regarded as limiting the impartiality of the results. Nevertheless the study is significant in revealing the importance to Australian business of improving the perceptions of Australian management overseas, and in isolating particular areas of concern.

1.9 Scope and delimitation of the study

In summary, the current project is concerned with the effect of national culture on organizational leadership behaviour, especially from the perspective of the follower. It has grown out of a sense of unease with the assumptions that what is true for one group of people is necessarily true universally, without adaptation or amendment. Concern that these assumptions greatly influence Australian leaders, who are not operating in a culturally homogeneous society, even when they stay within their own country, is a primary cause for undertaking this study. It is not within this researcher's power to compare perceptions of leadership

worldwide, but this project hopes to indicate that leadership behaviours are differently interpreted by people of different national cultural backgrounds. At the core of their being it is quite possible that people's basic understanding of the nature of leadership is very similar. Yet on the surface, due to some extent to national differences, strongly-held values and beliefs, habits, customs, traditions and mores, leadership behaviours can be and are differently interpreted. Misumi's work, which will be detailed and fitted into its context in chapter 2, seemed to suggest an adherence to this belief, and this factor certainly contributed to the desire to replicate and extend his work in Australian and South-East Asian contexts. The current project will focus on perceptions of organizational leadership by people working in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, taking into account that, even within those groups, the national cultural background of participants will be diverse.

The significance of this particular project is probably to point out the necessity of further exploration into the whole area of the relationship between national culture and leadership, by demonstrating that people perceive and interpret leader behaviour differently according to their own background. This, in turn, shows that to ignore this aspect of practical leadership is to close our minds to a means of developing more effective leadership in Australia, Singapore or Malaysia. The nature of leadership in Australia perhaps is not easy to come to grips with in any straightforward ideological sense. In this country, notions of leadership have been seen as idiosyncratic outcomes of history, culture and society, more

so than in South-East Asian countries where national ideas and values are handed down centrally from government to the people. In Australia, leadership exists, in corporate life as well as in the nation as a whole, as a free expression of individuals, as distinct from the confirmation of ideology. The interplay between ideology and leadership, between national culture and management, lies at the heart of this investigation comparing consistency factors relating to international organizational leadership.

1.10 Outline of the remainder of the thesis

Chapter 2 of the thesis is a review of relevant leadership literature, particularly concentrating on the last ten years and the PM leadership theory developed by Misumi. It is a wider, more general view of the field of leadership literature than is directly relevant, since it forms a necessary foundation for the present study, before homing in on the aspects directly related to this project. A review of literature specifically related to cultural values, particularly within the study of leadership, will also form part of this chapter.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology and procedures used during the project, including the development of the survey instrument, choice of sample, responses obtained, and methods of analysis.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 present and interpret the results of the data analysis, commenting on the significance of findings, and ascertaining the extent to which the original hypotheses were confirmed, if indeed they were. Each chapter focusses on one aspect

of the results: chapter 4 considers the general measures of leadership behaviour, chapter 5 the specific measures, and chapter 6 the personal and national cultural values. An attempt is made to evaluate the importance of the findings within the study of international management and leadership.

Chapter 7 provides a summary of the preceding chapters, crystallizing what has been learned and discussing the significance of this project and its findings within the field of leadership research and in the practical situation of organizational leadership in Australia and South-East Asia. It also suggests practical implementations of the results and points forward to other avenues of related research which could develop and build upon what has been discovered.

Chapter Two

A Review of Recent Leadership Literature, including Contemporary Theories and Crossnational Perspectives

Chapter 2 A review of recent leadership literature, including contemporary theories and crossnational perspectives

2.1 Overview of the chapter

The previous chapter gave an outline view of the setting and purpose of this project, that is, to look at leadership within a theoretical framework in order to ascertain the transferability of such theories internationally. To do this, there is a need to establish a solid foundation of what has been learned in relation to leadership, what has been discovered about national cultural values, and coalesce the two streams of thought. For this purpose, this chapter will take the form of a critical review of leadership literature, particularly material published during the last ten years, and will take into account both theoretical and crossnational perspectives.

As it is necessary to establish a wide platform as a foundation for focussing on the particular aspects relevant to this study, the earlier part of the chapter will be a wide-angle perspective of leadership literature. This serves the purpose both of demonstrating the diversity of approaches to leadership, and of showing how relatively little has been done in the area of leadership in relation to national culture. The later part of the chapter will discuss some of the literature on national culture and values, concentrating on studies undertaken which have some bearing on leadership *per se* and the

current project. As noted in chapter one, detailed consideration will also be given to the work of Jyuji Misumi and the development of the PM theory of leadership upon which this project is based.

2.2 Development of the academic discipline of leadership

Recalling chapter one, people have evinced an interest in leaders and leadership throughout recorded history, this interest becoming an area of intense scientific study and research during this century (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982; Yukl, 1989b; Rost, 1991) beginning, according to Fiedler (in Graumann and Moscovici 1986:101), with a study by Lewis Terman in 1904 on the relationship between children's intelligence and their exhibition of leadership. The contemporary study of leadership permeates many national cultures and many disciplines, including management, educational administration, public administration, psychology, social sciences and politics. The variety of understandings brought to the study by these many perspectives enrich the study of leadership, and should tend to move it away from domination by any one particular view, and towards a place where paradigms of leadership will develop. A paradigm, defined as standing for *"the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques and so on shared by the members of a given community"* (Kuhn, 1970:175) represents the fundamental image of subject matter commonly agreed upon by members of a particular scholarly or scientific community. The multiplicity of concepts of leadership which have remained irreconciled suggests that in the field of leadership research paradigmatic consensus remains elusive. As a result, the range of writing on the subject of leadership is vast,

from the intensely theoretic to the "how-to-do-it-better" manuals; from detailed analytical studies to anecdotal reports of leadership achievements; from wide-spanning survey works to narrow-focussed detailed accounts. Even if we consider only the major works of the last ten years, the whole gamut is represented.

Several impressive major works review the truly vast range of leadership theory and research, provide insight into the development of leadership as a field of study, and show the enormous variety of approaches which have been taken. These include the classic *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership* by Bass (1990). This work is now in its third edition, the first edition, by Stogdill only, being *"an attempt to assemble all the published evidence . . and to summarize the findings"* (Bass, 1990:xiv). *Leadership in Organizations* by Yukl (1989a) has managerial leadership as its primary focus and, though not attempting to summarize everything written on leadership, expounds, comments upon and evaluates the literature deemed most relevant to its objectives in a very valuable manner. *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century* by Rost (1991), is a masterly evaluation of leadership research at the end of the twentieth century, and looks forward to the needs of the next. A fascinating comment on the development of leadership study is provided by the *International Leadership Symposia Series* by Hunt and various others (1975, 1977, 1979, 1982, 1984, 1988). Another interesting overview is edited by Graumann and Moscovici (1986, from symposia held by the Study Group on Historical Change in Social Psychology). The particular interest of

this volume is its disciplinary origins within the framework of social psychology and its distinctly European orientation. *Leadership: Multidisciplinary Perspectives* edited by Kellerman (1984) examines leadership from the vantage point of a wide range of disciplines encompassing psychoanalytic, organizational and political perspectives; the approaches expounded are also wide-ranging, creating a challenging and expansive view of leadership.

Many works do not attempt to review the whole field of leadership study, but share results of valuable research and indicate their own impression of the direction of developments in the field. They are usually liberally illustrated with anecdotal and experimental material, and often have a pragmatic objective of helping the reader understand leadership better, and become a more effective leader. Some of the important contributors in this area, whose works have been widely disseminated, are Adair (1987), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Bennis (1989a, 1989b), Cohen (1990), Hickman and Silva (1984), Hickman (1990), Hilmer (1989), Hitt (1988), Kotter (1988, 1990a, 1990b), and Kouzes and Posner (1988).

Given the scope of the literature, the number of extant propositions regarding leadership may appear confusing because of the disparate directions taken. Theorists have often rejected alternative lines of study, either considering the basic assumptions fundamental to the approaches as being mutually exclusive (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), or through an inability to reconcile another path with their own. Jago (1982) says that to single out one perspective on leadership as

having made the greatest contribution to knowledge or having the greatest practical utility *"would appropriately undervalue the very real contributions made in other approaches"* (Jago, 1982:330). He suggests that theories should not be regarded as competing, but that since at least some evidence exists in support for each, their existence reveals the conceptual complexity of the area of leadership.

2.2.1 Definitions of leadership

Bass (1990;11-18) and Rost (1991) both considered it essential to draw together and analyze the many definitions used by writers on the topic. Bass examined 7,500 works and concluded that though the definitions are almost innumerable, they do allow for a rough classification scheme.

> *Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions.* (Bass, 1990:11)

He considers that the many definitions indicate the progression of thought in leadership theory and research. The particular definition adopted will be determined by the purpose for which it is to be used, which may be:

> *to identify the object to be observed*
> *to identify a form of practice*
> *to satisfy a particular value orientation*
> *to avoid a particular orientation or implication for a practice*
> *to provide a basis for the development of theory.*
>
> (Bass,1990:19)

This monumental work showed how very diverse are the perceptions of the whole area of study, and how very wide-ranging the meanings attributed to the concept of leadership had become. Comprehensive analysis of the literature in the field is a daunting task, and of necessity most appreciations of the body of knowledge in the area have been circumspect.

To arrive at any definition is limiting but nevertheless worthwhile because of the insights gained during the search. For example, Rost considers definition of the term leadership to be vital to an organized, cohesive study of the topic. He undertook a wide-ranging search of dictionaries, scholarly books and articles on leadership written between 1900 and 1990 for such definitions. He reviewed 587 books, chapters and articles, severely limiting works by the same author, and generally omitting textbooks. No attempt was made to exhaust all the available literature, but there was a deliberate emphasis on books and book chapters as the source. Rost found that definitions of leadership were extremely diverse, and went on to classify and evaluate them. A major point which emerges from his study, and about which he is justifiably outraged, is that many authors writing scholarly books on the subject of leadership refrain from defining their use of the term at all, working from the assumption that everyone understands what they are talking about. Of the 587 works analyzed, 221 defined leadership while 366 did not. In order to aid the study of the topic, he makes a plea for a universally acceptable definition, though Bass (1990) claims such a search is fruitless, since *"the methodological and substantive aspects*

of leadership in which one is interested" always predetermine the choice of definition (Bass,1990:18). Rost's suggested definition for universal acceptance is *"Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes"* (Rost, 1991:102). This certainly encompasses the common threads running through a host of other definitions, while remaining broad and yet focussed enough to be truly useful.

Yukl comments that some difficulty with definition occurs because:

> *it is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined. As a consequence, it still carries extraneous connotations that create ambiguity of meaning.* (Yukl, 1989b:2)

He further claims, as Bass (1990) did, that researchers define leadership according to their own perspective and interests, and hence it would be difficult, if not impossible, to distill the essence of all these definitions into one which would be meaningful and acceptable to all.

A definition of great appeal is by Jago (1982), perhaps because it acknowledges the dichotomous usage of the word leadership as both a characteristic possessed, to greater or lesser extents, by individuals, and as an action or happening in the interrelationships of people:

> *leadership is both a process and a property. The process of leadership is the use of noncoercive influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group activities. As a property, leadership is the set of qualities or characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence.* (Jago, 1982:315)

In concurrence with very many definitions, the word *influence* plays a strong part in this definition, *successful use of influence,* in Jago's view, being what distinguishes a person who demonstrates the characteristic of leadership. His insistence on noncoercive influence shows that Jago makes a clear distinction between the actions of 'leadership' and those of 'domination'.

To describe and quantify the true meaning of leadership in some way, or summarize the research done in the area, would inevitably fail, since approaches have been so diverse, and the quantity of study undertaken so vast. Stogdill's *Handbook of Leadership* (1974) summarized and interpreted the published research of forty years by studying over three thousand books and articles; this work has, since then, been amended and augmented by Bass, in its latest edition being renamed *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (1990).* It makes use of 7,500 books and articles, demonstrating the exponential increase in the field of leadership literature since the original edition. The volume of literature is now so immense and varied that some recent writers, for example Miner (1982) and Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich (1985) even question the purpose of continuing such research, at least within the current framework, noting the complexities and confusion in the area of study. However, others appear more hopeful, seeing signs of a congruence between some theories, and expectations that a more integrated, holistic view will emerge (House in Hunt, Baliga, Dachler and Schriesheim, 1988; Bargal and Schmid, 1989).

2.3 Historiography of the study of leadership

2.3.1 Literature of the 'great man' and 'traits' theories

As noted in chapter one, the earliest leadership studies concentrated on studying great leaders of the past, and attempted to define the qualities they held in common. The search for a list of character traits which would promise effective leadership was not successful, and this approach was largely abandoned. As soon as reflection on the various qualities of several effective leaders suggested a set of common characteristics, another leader would come to the attention of the researchers who displayed none of the shared traits, but wholly different ones. Many types of characteristics were studied, including those related to physical appearance, social background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related skills, and social qualities. However, in spite of the commonsense appeal of this approach, a definitive set of characteristics which portrayed or guaranteed leadership effectiveness could never be finalized.

However, some work in this area is proceeding. Fiedler (in Graumann and Moscovici, 1986) considers the importance of intelligence to have been overlooked, and puts forward a 'cognitive research theory' showing the contribution of intelligence and job knowledge in a directive environment with group support. Though not yet well-supported, Fiedler believes this concept to be valid, and to challenge the *"uncritical acceptance of participative leadership"* (Graumann and Moscovici, 1986:101-114). This is an exciting development, since participative leadership in one form or another seems to have been most highly favoured by researchers for many

years, probably since the 1940s. Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) also feel the traits approach worthy of exploration, and by reevaluating earlier studies on personality traits using more modern statistical methods show that misinterpretation of earlier results led to a discounting of the importance of some traits, in particular intelligence, masculinity-femininity and dominance, to leadership success.

Bennis (1989a), from a study of US leaders actually engaged in leading, rather than a purely theoretical study, suggests that a list of characteristics needed by future leaders should include broad education, boundless curiosity, belief in people, teamwork, willingness to risk, devotion to long-term growth, commitment to excellence, virtue and vision. These traits are very practically oriented, in line with the practical and encouraging focus of his book. Yukl (1989a), reviewing Stogdill's (1974) work on traits, concluded that he (Stogdill) was really discussing skills, and that the skills most often linked to leadership were found to be intelligence, dominance, self-confidence, achievement drive, interpersonal skills and activity. Kouzes and Posner (1988) developed a list of leadership-related skills based on interviews with over 7,500 managers who were asked to say what they looked for or admired in leaders. The results were strikingly consistent. The most admired leaders were reported to be those who were honest, competent, forward-looking and inspiring (with honest outstandingly first on the list), then followed by courageous, straightforward, imaginative, dependable, supportive, caring, cooperative, mature, ambitious,

determined, self-controlled, loyal and independent. It seems inaccurate to call these qualities 'skills'; perhaps the required skill is in the leader's communicating to the followers the possession of those qualities It is not merely the possession of skills, but the appropriate use of them, which characterises effective leadership.

Other studies, not nominally under the heading of *'traits'* theories, have also concentrated on traits, but not those actually possessed by leaders or followers; rather the characteristics attributed to them by the other party on the basis of observation, of perceived need, or of what the observer feels 'ought' to be the characteristics of the leader or follower. For instance, in some cases a particular outcome may be, after the event, credited to the leader, whereas in reality it was entirely the result of other factors.

The judgment on whether or not someone acts like a leader will be largely determined by the individual follower's personal view of what a leader is and how leaders should act. These theories are more correctly called *attributive theories* (Calder, in Jago, 1982; McElroy and Schrader, 1986). Perhaps the supreme value of the attributive theories is the way they point out the importance of the interactivity and interdependence of leaders and followers, particularly illustrating the power of the follower in facilitating or inhibiting leadership. Barnard (in Armstrong, 1988) said:

> *employees in a sense delegate upwards to management the authority for organizational decisions and in so doing legitimize the right of those above to command those below.*
> (Barnard, in Armstrong, 1988:3)

This 'follower power' is, I believe, of profound, and neglected, significance. Where followers willingly and eagerly give the right of command to those in leadership positions over them, it could be presumed that acts of leadership would have a far greater likelihood of success and leadership would be judged to be effective. Where leadership seems ineffective, however, the responsibility may well lie not with the quality of that leadership *per se*, but with the unwillingness of followers to accept leadership and its concomitant authority.

Hilmer (1985) has some interesting light to shed on this with respect to leadership in Australia. He believes that because many of the early pioneers, both convicts and settlers, were forced to work against their will and without personal reward, an attitude of suspicion and employee-employer conflict resulted which, he maintains, has developed into a peculiarly Australian *"conscript mindset"* existing to this day. Employees influenced by this mindset have low job satisfaction, an underlying attitude of desiring to 'score' against the enforcement of work by doing as little as possible for their employers, and perceptions of their managers as demanding, unfair and extortionate. The *"conscript mindset"* present in employers and managers has produced a strongly 'theory X' attitude (McGregor, 1960, in Wagner and Hollenbeck, 1992) of autocratic leadership and little tolerance for worker participation in decision-making. Byrt and Masters (1974) claim that a low level of respect for authority exists within Australia, thus corroborating the importance of the concept of attributing right of command to leaders when considering

Australian workers. This aspect of attribution may prove significant in the current project when analysing the differing perceptions of leaders, and attitudes towards them of Australian and South-East Asian employees.

Since work on leader characteristics within the study of leadership did not produce positive and definitive results, researchers considered not only leader characteristics, real or attributed, but the ways in which leaders behave in relation to their followers. This opened up a new sphere of exploration in the fields of social psychology and organizational behaviour. The need to recognize idiosyncrasy in human behaviour is very much part of contemporary theorising in leadership, giving rise to concepts of personal linkage between individuals and within groups, and personalizing the processes lying at the heart of successful leadership.

2.3.2 The behaviourist tradition in leadership research

A large group of theories, the impetus for which was, perhaps, a sense of disappointment with the lack of consistent evidence on leadership traits, looked to leadership behaviours to attempt to delineate the effective leader. The origins of the work of Misumi, upon which the current study is largely built, lie in this behaviourist context.

The Ohio State University study identified two separate and independent variables: *initiation of structure,* (the degree to which the leader defines, organizes and establishes ways of getting the job

done) and *consideration,* (the degree of two-way communication, trust, respect and warmth a leader shows). Follow-up studies indicated a high level of consistency and stability in descriptions of each factor. In spite of recognition that these two factors really did not explain all the behaviours of a leader (Bass, 1990:513), this work has dominated questionnaire research into leadership (Yukl, 1989a:74). University of Michigan researchers also explored the area of leader behaviour. Their focus was to identify relationships between leader behaviour, group processes and group performance (Yukl, 1989a:81). They categorized three types of behaviour which differentiated between effective and ineffective managers: task-oriented behaviour, relationship-oriented behaviour and participative leadership. The results resembled those of the Ohio studies, since task-oriented behaviour aligns very closely with *initiating structure* and relationship-oriented behaviour with *consideration* (Likert, 1974).

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid was based on these two-factor ideas: a combination of different levels of *concern for people* and *concern for production* within a particular leader could result in 81 different positions on the grid, thus showing that leadership behaviour can be extremely varied. They described only five major positions so as to delineate the contrasts, and claimed the superiority of the '9,9' style of leadership, strong in both concern for people and for production simultaneously, in every situation (Blake and Mouton, 1982).

Although most questionnaire studies neglect to test adequately for interaction between the dimensions, some have done so, with mixed and inconclusive results (Larson, Hunt and Osborn, 1976). Misumi's Japanese studies have found that 'high-high' (the PM theory's equivalent of Blake and Mouton's '9,9') leaders are usually the most effective, but regard the two factors as interactive (Misumi, 1985). Yukl (1989a:96) suggests that questionnaires cannot adequately test for the interactivity of the dimensions, but that the critical incident method would be very useful for this purpose.

Leader effectiveness has also been analyzed on the basis of the style adopted by the leader towards subordinates. Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939, in Bass, 1990) distinguished between leaders adopting an autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire style of leadership, and concluded that democratic leadership was preferable from both productivity and behavioural perspectives. There was some criticism of the original studies' results on the basis of the national climate of the nation in which they were conducted: it was felt by some that performing such research in a democratic country like the USA would predetermine the superiority of a democratic style of leadership. This was the impetus behind Lewin's approach to leadership researchers in Kyushi University in Japan just after the Second World War to propose research work there and see if similar results were forthcoming. Misumi, then a graduate student, regards Lewin's approach as the *"motivating force behind my subsequent devotion to the study of leadership"* (Misumi, 1989a:322). His research in the field of leadership began at this point, leading in the

course of time to the formulation of his PM theory of leadership (Misumi, 1985) which will be described in more detail later.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) began the move away from the 'one-best-way' approaches as epitomized in the Blake and Mouton model, advocating consideration of all facets of each situation, suggesting that leaders amend behaviour according to situational contingencies. They suggested that the individual qualities of manager, subordinates and situation should all be considered before deciding which leadership style would be most effective. Thus they linked the behavioural theories to the following group of situational and contingency theories.

2.3.3 Situational or contingency theories

The idea that leadership style or behaviour should alter according to specific demands of particular situations led to a spate of *situational* or *contingency* theories. The basic premise of these theories is that no method will always be the best method. Differences in the leader's personality, followers' personalities, task to be done, urgency and/or importance of the task, degree of task structure, ability and expertise of the followers, and many other factors, will together determine what would be most appropriate and effective within specific situations.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory has been the most outstanding and long-lived of this group, dominating the scene since 1953. Yet he stands alone in his assertion that anything is easier to change than the characteristics of the leader, and his method of adaptation hinges on changing the features of the situation to make the specific leader

effective. Fiedler's theory assesses a leader's style by a questionnaire based upon judgment of a 'Least Preferred Co-Worker' (LPC), and attempts to match that style with a suitable combination of leader-member relations, task structure and the leader's position power. The theory's premise is that the leader's personal style is fixed, so amendments must be made in the situation to enable that particular leader to become truly effective. It has proved controversial, due to ambiguity in the variables, lack of clarity in the meaning of LPC score and inconsistent validations (Yukl, 1989b; Graen, Alvares, Orris and Martella, 1970).

Other situational leadership models suggest that leaders should effect changes in their own behaviours in order to be truly effective. Among these are House's path-goal model (1971), Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model (1977), and Vroom and Yetton's decision-making model (1974). Of these, House's theory and the Hersey-Blanchard model both focus on the task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviour idea, while Vroom and Yetton's model assesses leader effectiveness on the basis of decision-making methods used, since so much of leadership is concerned with decision-making (Smith and Peterson, 1988; Hunt, 1984; Vecchio, 1987; Vroom and Yetton, 1973).

Misumi's work began with consideration of leadership styles, following Lewin, Lippitt and White, developed along the lines of the Ohio and Michigan studies, and also embraced the contingency approach.

Later models using a contingency approach are interesting and varied. An 'Operant Conditioning Perspective', developed from the Skinner learning theories (Sims in Hunt and Larson, 1977), looks at leadership in terms of the shaping of subordinate behaviour by controlling the consequences of behaviours, and the use of rewards and punishments. Interestingly, the use of punishments shows inconsistent results, and is not recommended for that reason, but results for the use of rewards show consistent positive effects.

Along the same lines, the Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (Graen and Cashman in Hunt and Larson, 1975) emphasises the relationships developed by a leader with different subordinates, as individuals rather than as a group. The particular interest of this theory is in drawing attention to questions such as whether leadership causes outcomes, or subordinate behaviour and performance cause leader behaviour, or whether there is a mutual impact (Hunt, 1984:21).

Stewart sees leadership as part of a manager's work, and its influence as not only vertical but also lateral (Hunt, Sekaran and Schriesheim, 1982: 11-30). She has proposed three classes of variables which affect managerial tasks: demands, constraints and choices. These are contingencies which affect the manager's influence, and suggest the specific amount and kind of influence appropriate. Hunt and Osborn's 'Multiple-Influence Model' (Hunt, 1984) sees organizational environment, context (size and technology) and structure (all macrovariables) combining with microvariables (conditions within the organization) to affect the manager's role.

They firstly influence leadership behaviour, then combined with that behaviour, impact on the performance and satisfaction of employees. Though a complex model, considering a broad range of contingency variables, it conceptualizes leadership as both affecting outcomes and being affected by contingencies (Hunt, 1984:32). Another complex multi-variable contingency model is Yukl's 'Vertical Linkage Model' (Yukl, 1989a), which portrays situational variables as directly influencing one or more of six intervening variables, while other situational variables determine the relative importance of those intervening variables.

Some of these later contingency models become so complex they are both clumsy to use and difficult to apply (Jago, 1982). While it has been good to see a move away from the more simplistic approaches which only considered one or two factors of variation in any given situation, one feels that the more complex a model becomes, the less usefulness it has to a practising leader. However, if nothing else, these later theories demonstrate that there are, in any situation, very many moderators to leadership effectiveness.

2.3.4 Leadership and management

There has been longstanding debate about leaders and managers, whether or not the terms are synonymous, and if not, what their true relation is (Bass, 1990; Hitt, 1988; Hunt, Sekaran and Schriesheim, 1982; Hunt, Hosking, Schriesheim and Stewart, 1984; Kotter, 1990a and 1990b; Sayles, 1979; Yukl, 1989a). Yukl claims that *"(it) is obvious that a person can be a leader without being a manager, and a person can be a manager without leading"* (Yukl,

1989a:4). Bennis and Nanus (1985) claim the terms are quite disparate. Kotter(1990a) sees them as separate but complementary, summarizing the difference as: *"management is about coping with complexity . . . leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change"* (Kotter1990a:104). Hosking (1988) states that when people talk of leadership they really mean the skill of organizing. Dachler (in Hunt *et al* 1984) dislikes the tendency of using the terms leadership and management interchangeably, and says:

> *whereas both management and leadership refer to complex processes that design, change, develop and direct social systems, leadership is tied to a person, but what that person thinks, does and feels involves a great deal more than simply influencing other people . . . Management, on the other hand, is not tied to any one person or group, but is a social-political-evolutionary-nonlinear and sense-making process . . . a fundamental property of social systems, not of individuals.* (Dachler, in Hunt *et al* 1984:102)

Dachler's comments are profound in their impact. The explanation of leadership and management either as synonymous or as subsets of each other have been intuitively unsatisfying, yet an undeniable link exists between the two processes. Dachler distinguishes leadership as intrinsically personal, a quality or property of a thinking and feeling person, while management is a social systems property. One wonders why it took so long to arrive at so satisfying and clear an explanation.

Managerial roles have occupied a prominent place amongst later leadership theories (Stewart, in Hunt, Sekaran and Schriesheim, 1982: 11-30; Tosi, in Hunt *et al*, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973 in Yukl, 1989a). The relevance of this to the current study is particularly evident in

that, while considering the perceptions of organizational leadership in three nations, the means chosen to do so was a survey of employees' assessment of the behaviours of their managers. Thus the role of a manager in leadership is particularly important to this study, especially as it has just been pointed out that leadership and management are by no means synonymous terms. Mintzberg (1973, in Yukl, 1989a) pioneered this very important facet of management and leadership, concentrating on roles performed by individuals in positions of management, and dividing the manager's tasks into three role clusters and ten specific roles (one of which is leadership). The three clusters deal with the interpersonal behaviour of managers, information processing roles and decision making behaviour. The ten roles fitting into these clusters are all needed to present a complete view of managerial behaviour. He evidently sees leadership as a subset of management, and feels that to focus on leadership within the managerial setting is to neglect other important roles (Mintzberg in Hunt, 1984; Bass,1990).

Yukl (1989b) proposed a taxonomy integrating several approaches to dimensions of leadership behaviour. He divides managerial behaviour into four major categories: building and maintaining relationships, collecting and disseminating information, making decisions, and influencing people. It is interesting to compare Yukl's list of effective managerial behaviours with Mintzberg's observed managerial roles. The similarities are striking; however, Yukl subdivides what Mintzberg sees as a single leadership role into ten specific areas, showing how very prominent and varied a role he

considers leadership to play within the managerial function (Yukl, 1989a; Hunt, 1984). The table below shows the comparisons between Mintzberg's view of managerial roles and Yukl's list of effective managerial behaviours. More than half of the behaviours which Yukl considers vital to effective managers are part of the leadership role. This indicates that relevant information concerning leadership behaviours can indeed be gained by a consideration of the managerial function such as this project undertakes.

Managerial Behaviour (Yukl) compared with Managerial Roles (Mintzberg)

Managerial Behaviour (Yukl)	Managerial Roles (Mintzberg)
Planning Organizing	Entrepreneur Resource allocator
Problem solving	Disturbance handler
Informing	Disseminator
Monitoring	Monitor
Representing	Spokesperson Negotiator Figurehead
Networking Interfacing	Liaison
Supporting Consulting Delegating Recognizing Rewarding Motivating Managing conflict Team building Developing Clarifying	Leader

source: adapted from Yukl (1989a:95)

2.3.5 Transformational and charismatic leadership theories

A development of considerable interest during the last decade or so has been the focus on the distinction between 'transactional' and 'transformational' leadership, a terminology created and expounded by Burns (1978), who explained the difference, in speaking of political leaders, on the basis that transactional leaders *"approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions"* (Burns, 1978:3), while transformational leaders seek to satisfy the higher needs of their followers, to engage persons to their fullest extent, and to result in a mutual benefit and stimulation. Yukl says transformational leadership empowers subordinates, enabling them to participate in the process of transforming the organization (Yukl, 1989b:269).

Meindl (1990) sees emphasis on transformational leadership as a fashion, brought about by the decline in Western (particularly US) business success. He suggests that transactional leadership is possibly seen as a scapegoat, and transformational leadership as a saviour:

> *The failure and the promise of leadership has been recast in terms of these distinctions, providing a way to interpret the dismal past, while at the same time encouraging hope and the possibility of more positive changes for the future.*
> (Meindl, 1990:181-2)

Charismatic leadership, a concept brought into the study of leadership by Max Weber early in the century, has reemerged into the public arena during the 1980s (Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Conger, 1989; Conger, 1991). Weber envisaged the charismatic leader as a person endowed by almost supernatural qualities who, through personal magnetism, an almost mystical power of attraction,

confidence, vision, and the ability to articulate that vision, inspires followers, often to an overwhelming extent, to devotion and unquestioning obedience. His premise is that charismatic leaders become prominent when there is psychic, physical, economic, ethical, religious or political distress (Kets de Vries, 1988:265). It has been said that *"a precondition for the establishment of charismatic leadership is the existence of a latent charismatic situation"* (Lepsius in Graumann and Moscovici, 1986:56). Weber describes charisma in the leadership context as any authority that derives its legitimacy not from rules, positions or traditions, but from a:

> *devotion to the specific and exceptional sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character of an individual person, and of the normative patterns or order revealed or ordained by him.* (Eisenstadt, 1968:46, as quoted in Conger and Kanungo 1987:638)

The 1980s view of a charismatic leader is often that of the ultimate transformational leader, who can arouse enthusiasm, emotional involvement and commitment of subordinates to organizational objectives (Bargal and Schmid, 1989:45). Conger and Kanungo (1987) examine charismatic leadership from the political science, sociology and social psychology perspectives, and advocate delving beneath the *aura of mysticism* it invokes, treating it strictly as an observable behavioural process; they view charisma as an attributional phenomenon, putting forward testable hypotheses to identify specific behavioural characteristics as distinguishable attributes of charismatic leaders. Kets de Vries (1988) also comments on its somewhat mysterious and mystical connotations, discussing the attributional and projective facets of leadership, particularly of charismatic leadership. He warns that, because followers project

idealized illusory characteristics onto leaders, this may have destructive impact upon the leaders themselves if they believe that they actually possess the exaggerated qualities attributed to them by their followers. Graumann and Moscovoci (1986) discuss hesitancy amongst European researchers to explore this area because of their recent damaging experience of the outworkings of the negative effects of charismatic leadership, and produce some interesting articles on the topic, including one which considers Weber's views of charisma in reference to the rule of Hitler. Hunt (*et al*, 1988) devotes an entire section in the latest *International Leadership Symposia Series* (volume eight) to charismatic leadership.

2.3.6 Contemporary confusion

Of great significance in the development of leadership research during the 1980s has been the dissatisfaction and turmoil evident in the field. Though much work has been done, writers comment that there seems little advance in the sum of knowledge. This has brought about serious questions as to whether research in leadership *per se* has outlived its usefulness, and should be abandoned (Miner, 1982); whether a romanticized view of leadership (Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich, 1985) is so strong that attributions of leadership have, in fact, replaced the realities; whether attention should concentrate only on the highest level of organizational leaders (Day and Lord, 1988); whether plurality of organizational leadership should be examined instead of adhering to an outdated one-man-leadership model (Barnes and Kriger, 1986), or what alternative direction should be taken by future research.

To add to the turmoil, the validity of the questionnaire/quantitative approach for leadership study has been discussed, and suggestion made that more qualitative, naturalistic methods are now relevant (Phillips and Lord, 1986; Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth and Keil, 1988; Dachler in Hunt *et al,* 1988; House in Hunt *et al,* 1988; McElroy and Hunger in Hunt *et al,* 1988). Dachler confessed to being *"concerned about the debilitating constraints of the empiricist tradition in leadership research"* (Hunt *et al,* 1988;266). Concern is felt that leadership study should become more interdisciplinary, thus widening its horizons and enriching the results (Joynt and Warner, 1985; Calas and Smircich in Hunt *et al,* 1988; Bargal and Schmid, 1989). It is also felt that the study of leadership has been too long in the clutches of positivism (Calas and Smircich in Hunt *et al,* 1988) and should look for new approaches. One is reminded of Kuhn's (1970) premise that all changes in scientific thought, all new theories and paradigms come about by revolution rather than by accretion of knowledge.

It is a healthy sign for any discipline area to be so lacking in complacency that it questions its own methods and vigorously seeks better ways to accomplish its tasks. From the brief comments made above this is evidently true in the area of leadership research, giving rise to great hope for increased variety and richness of approach in future undertakings. There are strengths and weaknesses in any theory and in any one research methodology, and it can only enrich the study of leadership if limitations in one method are counteracted by judicious use of others.

2.4 Misumi's PM Theory of Leadership

North America and Europe have not enjoyed a monopoly on leadership research, however; very interesting work has been conducted in Japan by Misumi (Misumi, 1985; Misumi and Peterson, 1985; Smith and Peterson, 1988; Tayeb, 1988). It has been ongoing for the past forty years, and was stimulated by Kurt Lewin. Misumi looks at leadership on two dimensions, which he calls performance and maintenance (hence PM theory of leadership). As noted earlier, though the appearance is like one of the Western contingency theories, the reality is not. Misumi distinguishes between describing and categorizing the types and forms of leadership behaviours (behavioural morphology) and explanations of causes and consequences of leadership (behavioural dynamics), a distinction not made by Western researchers (Misumi, 1989a; Misumi, 1991b).

In the PM theory, P refers to Performance, and denotes a kind of leadership oriented towards achievement of group goals and problem-solving, while M refers to leadership oriented towards self-preservation of the group and maintenance of group processes (Atsumi and Misumi, 1989; Misumi, 1989b). All measurable leadership behaviours indicate some level of P and/or M orientation, some more "purely" than others (Misumi and Peterson, 1985). As a result, the characteristics of leadership behaviour demonstrated by an individual can be seen to be of four types depending on the combination of low to high leanings towards P and/or M behaviours.

M dimension	pM	PM
	pm	Pm

P dimension

The results of repeated laboratory and field studies have confirmed that PM leadership is always the most effective in group performance and member morale, followed by **Mp** (usually called **M**) then **Pm** (usually called **P**) and with **pm** (low on both Performance and Maintenance) always the least effective form (Misumi and Peterson, 1985; Atsumi and Misumi, 1989). It is emphasised that the combination of P and M behaviours is not purely an additive function: the effectiveness is related to a form of interaction between the concepts.

Thus **P** (**Pm**) behaviour alone has a strong emphasis on performance, but this is often interpreted by subordinates as *pressure* , meets with antagonism and resistance, and leads to a reduction of leadership effectiveness. The same level of **P** behaviour in combination with a higher level of **M** is more often interpreted by subordinates as *planning* behaviour rather than *pressure* behaviour, and leads to higher performance levels. Misumi believes that *planning* and *pressure* are both legitimate subgroups of *performance* , and that considerably more pressure can be effectively used when in conjunction with a sufficiently high level of **M** behaviours (Misumi, 1991b). Interestingly, Misumi found that P-type leadership was preferable to M-type leadership in emergency situations immediately after an accident in reducing further accident rates, but that in the long term M-type leadership produced lower accident rates (Misumi, 1989a).

In addition to developing a purely conceptual theoretical model, Misumi has used his theory extensively in leadership training and in accident-reduction and prevention programs with a great deal of practical success (Misumi, 1989b; Misumi, 1991a).

A point of difference between Misumi's theory and those of other situational leadership models is in its tension between universal and situation-specific behaviours. Misumi's theory addresses underlying universal structures, particular expressions of which vary according to the specific environment. Extensive and varied testing of the theory has shown its generalizeability between situations: some examples are schools, coal mines, steel mills, shipyards, chemical factories, banks, rail and bus companies, government, college sports teams, political parties, teachers' leadership in the classroom and parents' leadership in the home (Misumi, 1989a). Misumi insists on the necessity of developing new measures to test for P and M leadership behaviours for each and every substantially new setting (Smith and Peterson, 1988:108; Smith, Peterson *et al*, 1989).

For many years the theory was used and tested in many and varied situations, but always within Japan. More recently attempts have been made to show its universality. Smith, Peterson, Misumi and Tayeb (1989) performed a cross-cultural study using subsidiaries of Japanese firms in Japan, USA and Britain to compare work team performance, finding that there are substantial difference between Japanese and Western organizations. An interesting finding from their study, which will be seen later to relate very closely to the current study, was that in

spite of differences between the organizations regarding both history and the nature of the workforce, the cultural variables were more significant in explaining the findings (Smith, Peterson, Misumi and Tayeb, 1989).

A study conducted in China (Ling Wen Quan, 1989, cited in Misumi, 1991b) found that, in addition to the Performance and Maintenance factors in leadership behaviours, a third factor, personal moral character, also exists. This relates very closely to the integration of leadership behaviours and personal and national values used in the present project.

Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989) have attempted to show the universality of this model by testing it in Britain, USA, Japan and Hong Kong (two pairs of countries similar on Hofstede dimensions). They noted that general measures of leader style showed high similarity across cultures, while specific measures varied according to national culture. More details of their findings will be included later, in comparison with those of the current project.

2.5 Leadership and multiculturalism

One of the major ways in which the study of leadership can develop and widen its vistas is by looking at the whole area from a multicultural viewpoint. Roberts (1970) discussed the need for this, but Adler (1983) noted that in spite of the awareness of growing internationalism in the 'corporate world', articles published on organizational behaviour in the last ten years had not reflected it in any

way. Drucker (1988) pointed out the importance of taking into account the differences between people in different nations when studying management and leadership in any context: he asserts *"because management deals with the integration of people in a common venture, it is deeply embedded in culture. What managers do . . . is exactly the same. How they do it may be quite different"* (Drucker, 1988:75). Laurent (1986) researched managers of many different types of company in nine West European countries, the USA, Indonesia and Japan, exploring assumptions regarding the management of organizations. He found that the*"most powerful determinant of their assumptions was by far their nationality"* (Laurent, 1986:93), and that this had three times more influence on shaping their assumptions than had any other characteristic. His conclusion was that, at a deep level of perceptual understanding, managers' assumptions are strongly shaped by their national culture. This finding has been confirmed by many other studies in a wide variety of international contexts, including Ali (1988), Bedi (1991), Cullen (1983), Jackofsy, Slocum and McQuaid (1988), Tayeb (1988).

Definition of what is meant by "culture" is as vague as that of leadership, which was discussed at length earlier. Without entering into that debate, the breadth of meaning covered by the term is encompassed in the definition of Tyler: *"culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society"* (Tyler, 1924:1 as quoted in Hofstede *et al*, 1990:311). This shows clearly the multifaceted meaning attached to the term. The definition by Hofstede

is very simple, and yet very meaningful: he describes culture as *"the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another"* (Hofstede, 1991:5). Both these definitions show that culture is acquired, or learned, as a result of the social environment, bordered on the one hand by human nature which is common to all, and personality which is unique to each (Hofstede, 1991). Differences in culture are demonstrated in many ways, amonst which are symbols, heroes, rituals and values. Symbols are the words, pictures, gestures and objects which convey a particular meaning to members of a shared culture. Heroes may be living, dead, actual or imaginary people who serve as role models because they have characteristics highly prized by the culture. Rituals are the collective activities which each culture regards as socially essential and carries out for their own sake, such as manner of greeting, ways of showing respect to others and ceremonies of many sorts (Hofstede, 1991).

The three foregoing aspects of culture are all practices of various kinds. The fourth, and probably the most central, core expression of culture is values. By this is meant broad, nonspecific feelings of good and evil, beautiful and ugly, normal and abnormal, rational and irrational; such feelings are often unconscious, and hence unable to be discussed or directly observed: they can only be inferred from the actions they stimulate (Hofstede *et al*, 1990). Values are learned implicitly and are amongst the first things children learn, with most children having a firmly established value system by the age of ten (Hofstede, 1991:8). Schein regards it as imperative to delve into the underlying assumptions which determine how group members perceive, think and

feel. He states that values, leading to behaviours, are gradually transformed into underlying assumptions about how things really are, which, being increasingly taken for granted, drop out of awareness (Schein, 1984:446 as cited in Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991:283). The difficulty for researchers is to focus on those underlying assumptions which are so deep-rooted that they are no longer conscious, and even the idividual making the assumptions is no longer aware of the thought patterns they produce.

Much attention has been given to the 'convergence-divergence' debate. The 'convergence' proponents hold that the world is becoming more like a 'global village' cultures converging and everywhere becoming the same. If so, then cross-cultural differences do not require much attention, as they will diminish in importance over time. Managers in industrialized nations can be expected to develop the same attitudes and behaviours as those in other industrialized nations despite cultural differences (England and Lee, 1974 as cited in Ralston *et al* 1993; Harbison and Myers, 1959 as cited in Kelley and Worthley, 1981). The opposing divergence stream maintains that individuals will remain dissimilar even in a multi-cultural context and despite economic and social similarities. If this is true then understanding of cross-cultural differences in organizations will become increasingly important.

Child (1981) concluded that both views hold some truth: the convergence is seen on macro-level issues such as structure and technology, whereas divergence is shown on micro-level issues such as the behaviour of people within an organization. Personal observation

suggests that on a superficial level there is a measure of convergence, an apparent unifying in areas such as dress, language, television and coca-cola, yet on the deeper level of personality, attitudes, and perceptions, cultural differences remain, and often become firmer, in a multicultural situation. Evidence of the strength of surviving national cultural values and identity abound in the world today, with the fragmentation of the USSR, ethnic conflict in Bosnia/Herzogovena and tribal warfare in Rwanda to name just those at the forefront of the mind. Schoenfeldt, considering the relationship between managerial competencies and leadership style felt that managerial functions, roles and targets transcend the cultural context, whilst effective leadership style, or the style of delivery of managerial competencies, is culture-specific (Schoenfeldt, cited in Hunt *et al,* 1984:387). Neghandi says that, while the focus on national culture is vital, it is essential to have a defined focus, and reminds researchers that the idea of transfer of management know-how and practices is still relevant, within a culture-sensitive environment (Negandhi, 1983).

Laurent (1986:93) says *"it is difficult to enquire into beliefs that individuals take for granted";* only when in a non-native culture or a multi-cultural situation do individuals realize the uniqueness of those features they had thought to be common to all, and in the challenge of rethinking those features abandon or lay aside some as irrelevant, while tenaciously holding others in a determination to retain something worthwhile. The findings of an international study into the values of managers in the United States, Hong Kong and the People's Republic of China indicated that very often both culture and the business

environment interact to create a unique set of managerial values in a country: this is called the crossvergence approach (Ralston *et al*, 1993).

Hall (1959) explained the idea of some values being fixed while some are adaptable in a very interesting way, seeing the personal values developed by an individual as lying at three levels, which he calls 'formal, informal and technical'. The 'technical' level is the level at which differences between people of different cultures are consciously and deliberatively learned, and these things, says Hall, can be easily amended by a person trying to adapt to another culture's ways. The 'informal' level is a deeper level of differences, those which are learned consciously, but informally. These things are more difficult to adapt, being more deep-seated within our consciousness. At the core of each person's personality are the 'formal' aspects, the things learned unconsciously and unwittingly. These things, says Hall, are almost impossible to change, because they are so deeply embedded in the unconscious makeup of each person. The diagram of Hall's cultural levels, shown in Appendix 6, shows some of the distinctions between items at the different levels, giving an idea of the kinds of behaviours belonging to the formal, informal or technical level of personal values.

Two of the most influential research studies into national culture are by Hofstede and Rokeach. Each of these has been very important in its own right and as the basis of considerable further study. Hofstede's (1980, 1983) work with international personnel of the IBM corporation showed that differences between employees are largely due to national characteristics; from the research he has developed four 'cultural

dimensions' to explain and illustrate the major groupings of differences between the thinking of people from different national cultures. He calls these dimensions individualism-collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity. Each of these is seen as a continuum, with the position of any national group being placed somewhere between the extremes. Hofstede's findings for the four dimensions in fifty countries and three other regions are shown in Appendix 4: countries were given a score between 0 and 100 on each dimension, and then put into order (ranked) to show their position respecting each dimension relative to that of the other nations studied.

The nations particularly in focus in this project are of specific interest here, and their rankings on the four dimensions have been extracted from Hofstede's findings to demonstrate the differences found by him for the three nations under investigation, and shown in the table below. Rankings on these dimensions are shown as the position of each nation relative to the others studied on a continuum of 1-50.

Ranking of Australia, Malaysia and Singapore on Hofstede's Dimensions

	Individualism	**Power Distance**	**Uncertainty Avoidance**	**Masculinity**
	rank / 50	rank / 50	rank / 50	rank / 50
Australia	49	13	17	35
Malaysia	17	50	8	26-27
Singapore	13-14	40	1	24

Triandis (1982) thinks that four dimensions are probably minimal in considering national cultural differences, and feels that about twenty

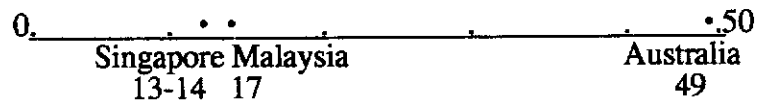
dimensions are not unrealistic: nevertheless he hails Hofstede's work as *"one of the major hallmarks of cross-cultural research"* (Triandis, 1982:90).

In order to clarify what is meant by the four cultural dimensions, Hofstede's descriptions of the characteristics representative of the extremes of the dimensions are given below, together with the lowest and highest nations registering on each dimension, and the relative position of the three nations we are here considering. Each dimension is shown in a separate chart.

For each different dimension, Australia's position is very different from that of both Singapore and Malaysia. This divergence is particularly strong in the case of individualism, with Australia ranking the second most individualistic nation of all those studied, while Malaysia and Singapore have a much more collectivist orientation.

Individualism-Collectivism Dimension

Low	High
(Guatemala, Ecuador, Panama,)	(USA, Australia, GB, Canada)
*Organization as 'family'	*Organization is more impersonal
*Organization defends employee interests	*Employees defend their own self-interests
*Practices are based on loyalty, sense of duty, group participation	*Practices encourage individual initiative



This dimension is of particular significance in the consideration of how employees act within their organizations, since it underlies a whole

different attitude towards work and the organization supplying employment. Bedi (1991) points out that for Westerners a job is primarily a business contract, while to an Asian it is a personal relationship; Boyacigiller and Adler (1991) state that relationships with their organization for employees in an individualistic country are viewed from a calculative perspective, while those in a collectivist society have a moral component.

The three countries are also placed very differently along the power distance dimension, with Australia registering a low power distance, while that of Malaysia and Singapore are both high. This corroborates earlier about Australians generally not having a great respect for authority and expecting everyone to be respected and treated equally. It was noted that for people in Malaysia and Singapore it is quite usual, and totally acceptable, for decisions to be handed down from the government: this reflects a high power difference orientation.

Power Distance Dimension

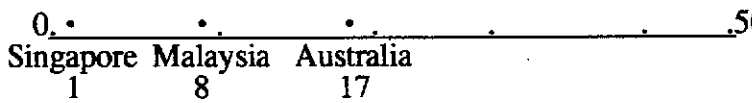
Low	High
(Austria, Israel, Denmark)	(Malaysia, Guatemala, Philippines)
*Less centralization	*Greater centralization
*Flatter organizational pyramid	*Tall organizational pyramid
*Fewer supervisory personnel	*More supervisory personnel
*Smaller wage differentials	*Large wage differentials
*Structure in which manual and clerical work are equally valued	*Structure in which white-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs

0. Australia 13 — Singapore 40 — Malaysia 50 — 50

In uncertainty avoidance, or the extent to which people feel uncomfortable with situations of uncertainty, ambiguity, risk-taking and lack of structure, the three countries are about equally spaced along the continuum. Singapore shows an extremely high tolerance for situations of uncertainty, while Malaysia, and to a greater extent Australia are more inclined to prefer greater structure, standardization and specialization. All three nations, however, fall into the lower half of the nations studied with respect to this dimension, showing a greater adaptability to change and uncertainty than over half the nations studied in Hofstede's multinational comparison.

Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

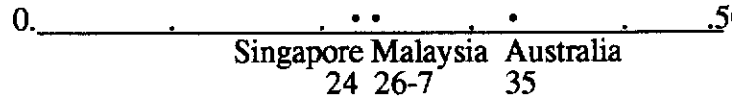
Low	High
(Singapore, Jamaica, Denmark)	(Greece,Portugal, Guatemala)
*Less structuring of activities	*More structuring of activities
*Fewer written rules	*More written rules
*More generalists	*More specialists
*Variability	*Standardization
*Greater willingness to take risks	*Less willingness to take risks
* Less ritualistic behaviour	*More ritualistic behaviour



Singapore and Malaysia are very close together on the masculinity/femininity dimension, showing that both countries are intermediately-placed with regard to achievement orientation as opposed to social values. Australia is seen as being closer to the achievement-oriented, competitive end of the scale.

Masculinity-Femininity Dimension

Low	High
(Sweden, Norway, Netherlands)	(Japan, Austria, Venezuela)
*Sex roles are minimized	*Sex roles are clearly differentiated
*Organizations do not interfere with people's private lives	*Organizations may interfere to protect their interests
*More women in qualified jobs	*Fewer women in qualified jobs
*Soft, yielding, intuitive skills are rewarded	*Aggression, competition and justice are rewarded
*Social rewards are valued	*Work is valued as a central life interest



The placement of the USA on these dimensions has not been shown, but can be seen with reference to the full table of nations shown in Appendix 4. Its position on the four scales is 50, 16, 11 and 36 respectively, showing an extremely individualistic nation with decentralized organizations and a culture which expects people to be treated as equals. Its uncertainty avoidance score, midway between that of Malaysia and Australia, shows a reasonable willingness to take risks and tolerate uncertainty, though not so well as either Singapore or Malaysia, and high achievement-orientation and competitiveness. An awareness of these positions is significant when considering that the preponderance of leadership research is US-based, and it raises the question of whether US-derived research, theory or instruments are universally applicable (Smith and Peterson, 1988:97).

National cultural characteristics must not be seen, however, to render all results from one-nation studies or theories inapplicable. Child

(1981) encourages the continuation of cross-national research in organizations, but warns against its use as a blanket measure to explain otherwise inexplicable differences. He points out that consideration of contingencies such as technology, task environment and scale of operations, as well as the political environment are important factors along with culture in cross-national studies. Tayeb (1988) also sees these three major perspectives as needful in any study of organizations: contingency theories, political economy theories, and cultural theories, and stresses the contribution made by all three into the complexities of organizational functioning. She warns that once people start to take note of the importance of cultural characteristics (more usually national characteristics) in organizational study, they are too ready to dismiss any unexplained variables as due to cultural factors, when task, environment, social, economic, political or organizational culture factors could be responsible.

Rokeach's important empirical work in the area of national differences centred upon the study of values (Rokeach, 1968, 1973). The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) centred on two dimensions, modes of conduct and end-states of existence (Valette-Florence and Jolibert, 1990). To measure these dimensions are lists of 18 instrumental values (desirable modes of conduct) and 18 terminal values (desirable states of existence) (Kamakura and Mazzon, 1991). These values are ranked in order of importance as guiding principles in the individual's life (Rokeach, 1973:27). Since the values are all socially desirable and positively worded, respondents do not feel anxious about revealing their true perceptions of these values. The Value Survey was developed on the

basis of analysis of the definition of values, and the distinction between values and related concepts such as attitudes, social norms, traits and interests (Feather, 1986a:275).

Rockeach classifies the 18 terminal values as personal or social in orientation, while the 18 instrumental values are more concerned with morality or competence (Feather, 1986a). Rokeach's lists of values are included in the appendices as Appendix 5. An advantage of this measure is its sampling of a side range of values whilst retaining simplicity and economy (Rokeach 1973). International use of the RVS has been on the assumption that the values are universal, and that problems of translation can be easily overcome. Feather (1986a) believes it would be inappropriate in less developed, less complex societies, and/or where verbal comprehension is low. He also questions whether some of the values might be misunderstood or irrelevant in some situations (Feather 1986a:275). Research using this measure of instrumental and terminal values has been of great significance, and has formed the foundation for much other work in the area of personal and cultural values (Valette-Florence and Jolibert, 1990; Kamakura and Mazzon, 1991; Feather, 1986a; Feather, 1986b; Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990; Valette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991).

Other significant work in the area of national cultural differences, particularly in the area of management and leadership, has confirmed its importance. Bedi (1991) concluded that a deeper understanding of the cultural context in which multinational managers operate is one of the most important and broad-based issues in the world of business.

Enz (1986) emphasized the importance of establishing the level of homogeneity within a society, claiming that in a homogeneous culture the organizational culture simply transmits that of the society, while in a more heterogeneous culture the organization's culture may act as a filter. England and Lee (1971) found, in a study of American, Japanese and Korean managers, that cultural factors have an important impact on managerial values as expressed in organizational goals. Ronen and Shenkar (1985) collated a group of cluster studies which had been separately conducted by many researchers, and found that countries could be clustered according to similarities on such cultural dimensions as work goals, values, needs and job attitudes. A comparative international study (Hofstede and Bond, 1984) integrated Hofstede's cultural dimensions and the Rokeach Value Survey and showed that each of Hofstede's dimensions can be distinctly identified when using the RVS in different national cultural contexts.

One of the instruments developed to measure values, particularly in order to ascertain how cultural values affect consumers, is the List of Values (LOV) developed by Kahle (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986; Novak and MacEvoy, 1990). This modifies Rokeach's terminal values into a smaller set of nine person-oriented values directly linked to an individual's daily life roles and situations (Kamakura and Mazzon, 1991). It is based on a theoretic base of Feather's, Maslow's and Rokeach's work on values. Using the LOV measures, respondents have been asked to identify their two most important values, to rank them, or to assess them by paired comparison or rating (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986). The results of some of the early testing in the USA

(Kahle and Kennedy, 1988) is given in Appendix 9. The LOV measures of personal values were used in the current project.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has incorporated both a wide-angle view of research and literature on leadership, particularly during the last ten years, and some of the work on national culture and its relation to leadership. An attempt has made to show the many paths down which theory and research in the area of leadership have travelled, even during the last ten years. Though it may appear that the result has simply been greater confusion, there is a great body of knowledge which reflects the complexity and diversity within the field.

A dichotomous relationship exists in the study of leadership: it has been treated as a measurable concept and also as a social reality unmeasurable in empirical terms. Therefore, researchers have realized the need to seek a more holistic view and bring together supposedly mutually incompatible directions of thought, seeking a more secure base in theory and epistemology, while at the same time embracing the viewpoints of other disciplines and other cultures. Bass's (1990) comments that leadership research is always considerably influenced by what is happening in society as a whole leads to the assumption that more evidence of multicultural research into many aspects of leadership will be forthcoming, as a reflection of the multiplicity of multinational organizations, greater mobility of the international workforce, and increasing awareness that no nation is able to survive without a truly international focus.

Chapter Three

Developing an Instrument for Research: Methodological Procedures

Chapter 3 Developing an instrument for research: methodological procedures

3.1 Overview

The purpose of the present project was to increase understanding of the influence of national culture (its habits, mores and values), on the way employees perceive their organizational leaders by considering observations of managerial behaviour in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. The method chosen to accomplish this objective was the partial replication of previous research undertaken firstly in Japan and later in a number of other countries, conducted and published over the past forty years (Misumi,1985; Misumi and Peterson, 1985; Smith, Peterson *et al*, 1989; Bass, 1990). The choice of these three particular countries was partly that they were a convenience sample, partly that they were different from the countries used in the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) project, and partly because of a desire to see how national cultural values impact upon the organizational life of Australia by comparing it with some of its closest neighbours and most important trading partners.

3.2 Description of research methodology

As noted in chapter two, the major construct used in the present research project was a questionnaire developed by Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond (1989), which tested the generality of Misumi's PM leadership style concept in four nations (Japan, Hong Kong, the United States and Great Britain). That questionnaire had

been developed from Misumi's original, which had been refined during his forty years of research on this topic in Japan. A copy of the 1989 questionnaire was obtained from Professor Peter Smith of Sussex University and consent given for its use in the present project. Not every part of the questionnaire provided by Professor Smith was relevant, as it has been augmented since the 1989 study to contain items related to group work.

The questions selected for use in the current project were the original (1950) Misumi items (included as Appendix 1), the remaining questions from the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study, and five other relevant items (shown below) chosen from the augmented Smith survey as fitting well with this project's aims.

- Management fails to inform me about things I need to know. *(always-never)*
- My superior keeps in ___ close communication with other parts of the organization. *(extremely-not at all)*
- My superior values ___ highly the suggestions and opinions I bring up at meetings. *(extremely-not at all)*
- In my usual day to day work, the actions I take are affected by each of the following: *(very great extent-very small extent)*
  a. formal rules and procedures.
  b. unwritten rules about company or departmental policy.
  c. specialists outside my department.
  d. other people at my level.
  e. my superior.
  f. opinions based on my own experience and training.
  g. beliefs which are widely accepted in my country about what is right.
- When I face an unfamiliar problem in my work, the action I take is affected by each of the following: *(very great extent-very small extent)*
  a. formal rules and procedures.
  b. unwritten rules about company or departmental policy.
  c. specialists outside my department.
  d. other people at my level.
  e. my superior.
  f. opinions based on my own experience and training.
  g. beliefs which are widely accepted in my country about what is right.

Misumi's original 1950 questionnaire contained 24 items, of which 8 tested specifically for P and 8 for M factors. The Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study used twenty of Misumi's items and added a further thirty-six, testing for specific behaviours of superior or subordinates. (The questionnaire obtained from Professor Smith is included as Appendix 2). The first three of the additional five items selected for use from the augmented Smith questionnaire follow very closely the pattern established by earlier items and the last two were of special interest because of their correlation with the focus on individual and national values. The added items, in common with most others in the study, had responses on a five-point Likert-type scale.

Items testing for individual and national values were added to the instrument to see if a meaningful relationship could be observed between national values, personal values and the organizational leadership behaviours identified. If the results found in previous studies are confirmed, characterizations of P and M leadership styles should be similar to those determined elsewhere (e.g. Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond, 1989). Specific behaviours associated with those styles, however, have been seen to differ according to national culture, and it may be possible to gain some indication of organizational leadership behaviours which are seen as distinctively Australian or Singaporean/Malaysian. As will be explained later, the responses from Singapore and Malaysia were combined to give a block South-East Asian comparison with Australia.

This research project is a descriptive cross-sectional analysis of subordinate perceptions of leader style and behaviour in some Australian and South-East Asian organizations. It is recognized that in observing any mix of socio-cultural factors, an element of subjectivity inevitably exists. The intention in the present survey was to show parallels with the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) findings rather than to extract situation-specific variables analyzed solely in the cross-cultural context of Singaporean/Malaysian and Australian styles of organizational leadership.

The decision to use a survey instrument rather than more qualitative forms of research, such as individual interviews, focus interviews, or observation of leader behaviours *in situ* , followed naturally from the desire to see if the findings of Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) applied within other cultural contexts. On another occasion, it would be useful to follow up on what is learned from this project by using personal interviews with Australian and South-East Asian employees and managers to discover the culture-specific factors worthy of further investigation. In this case also, a new survey instrument could be developed, slanted towards culture-specific rather than occupation-specific items. Perhaps the 1989 questionnaire accentuated occupation-specific roles of employee and manager, and hence some ways in which employees differentiate leader behaviour on the basis of national differences might not be wholly distinguishable. This is an important possible limitation of the potential replicability of the present project.

3.3 Questionnaire design

The items which Misumi has learned to treat as 'general', (in other words equally applicable and understandable in situations differing according to geographic location or occupation), were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire used in the current project, though not consecutively, and with no pattern as regards their P or M affiliation. This was done deliberately, since the recognition of a pattern by respondents could be interpreted as a deliberate 'leading' to give the expected response. The 'general' items, in common with the first twenty-four 'specific' items, were arranged on a five-point Likert-type scale, requiring respondents to circle the appropriate number, or choose the appropriate word to fill a space in a sentence, on the given continuum, which was either: *always* to *never; extremely* to *not at all;* or *very great extent* to *very small extent.*

It should be noted that the wording of the items has been amended slightly from the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) version, both to turn questions into statements, and to make them more understandable by Australian and South-East Asian respondents. In some cases, wording in the Smith-Misumi version was seen to be more suitable to workers in the electronics firms in which the 1989 study was conducted than to a more general sample; so for the sake of clarity some changes were deemed necessary. To illustrate this point, both the items from the 1989 study and the questionnaire used in the current research are included as Appendix 2 and Appendix 3 respectively. The general items, as worded in the current project's questionnaire, are given below.

General Items as worded in the Current Project

My superior lets me know about plans and tasks for my day to day work.

When I ask my superior to improve the facilities needed for my work, he or she tries to do so.

My superior gives me instructions and orders.

My superior tries to understand my viewpoint.

My superior sets clear deadlines for completing the work when giving me assignments.

When a problem arises in the workplace, my superior asks my opinion about how to solve it.

My superior treats me fairly.

My superior requires me to report on the progress of my work.

My superior is concerned about my personal problems.

My superior is strict about observing regulations.

My superior is concerned about my future career success.

My superior gives me recognition when I do my job well.

My superior tries to make me work to my maximum capacity.

My superior generally supports me.

My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning and organization on the part of my superior.

My superior is _____ knowledgeable about the resources or facilities for which I am responsible.

I can talk _____ easily with my superior regarding my work.

My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month _____ precisely.

My superior urges me to complete work within a specified time _____ strongly.

My superior trusts me _____ strongly.

The questionnaire developed for the present project was framed, as were the questionnaires from which it was developed, to provide closed, as distinct from open-ended, responses. While this restricts the individuality of response and could lead to over-generalization, it facilitates the quantification of responses.

The specific items (items 18-25, 27 and 33-76) explored many aspects of the employee and manager at work, both separately and in their relationship with each other. They cover such varied topics as how many hours the manager works in comparison with the employees or with official hours, the manager's attitude to cooperation amongst workmates and how often the manager and workmates eat lunch together. Some of these items were based on a five-point Likert scale; others were based on a seven-point scale; and others still, (sixteen items), had several possible boxed responses, the respondent being asked to choose the most suitable response. The reason for the different forms of response was partly to find a suitable way to ask each question, and partly to provide some variety, thus maintaining the interest of the respondent.

In designing the questionnaire, attention was given to making it visually attractive and 'user-friendly'. Statistical analysis aids and identification boxes were wittingly omitted so that, as far as possible, respondents were not made to feel they were simply being used as numbers, but that their individual responses were valued in and of themselves. Although this made data entry initially more time-consuming, this was a price well worth the paying for the neat, uncluttered and friendly appearance of the format of the questionnaire, as can be seen in Appendix 3. Questions were also grouped so that a whole section would have the same form of response; this enabled changes in ways of answering to be kept small enough to avoid confusion, while large enough to ensure variety.

Reverse wording of questions was omitted, as the pretests showed this to be confusing to respondents.

The letter to respondents was made part of the questionnaire (see Appendix 3), so that the whole did not present an overwhelming package. The questionnaire was designed as an eight-page booklet, the entire front page being an introductory letter and the back page concentrating on demographics and a message of thanks.

As already outlined, literature on national and cultural values was perused in a search for items which would be a valuable and meaningful addition to those already selected from the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) survey instrument. It was originally intended to use items related either to Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions or to Rokeach's (1973) instrumental and terminal values, outlined in chapter two, both of which have proved to be of considerable significance in the study of personal and national values. However, these were rejected on the basis of space available.

Items 77 to 103 were devoted to items testing for personal and national values, which were arranged in two groups. The first was concerned with national and the second with personal values. The first group of items asked the respondents to consider their perception of the espoused values of their own nation. The items testing for this concept were taken from Hawkins, Best and Coney (1989), who examined the influence of cultural values upon the behaviour of consumers in an attempt to improve international

marketing. Hawkins, Best and Coney (1989) used a list of eighteen values which, though by no means exhaustive, represent, in their view, the major values relevant to consumer behaviour in industrialized societies. The values are shown as dichotomies, but interpretation is not seen as a choice between two opposite positions; rather, a continuum exists between the extremes, and placement of a nation's values may be at any point along the continuum, depending on the respondents' views of how strong is the commitment to that particular value in their own nation.

Hawkins, Best and Coney (1989) grouped these eighteen items into three groups of six, termed *self-oriented, environment-oriented* and *other-oriented values.* The current project deliberately avoided these groupings, preferring to treat the eighteen values as an integrated section, and, as mentioned earlier, to avoid the possibility of 'leading' the respondents in any way. The original set of items, their grouping and a brief explanation of what each value means is included here: their original usage, showing the continua and an example of how to answer the questions has been included as Appendix 7. A more detailed explanation of the meaning of each item is included as Appendix 8. The format in which these questions were put in the current instrument can be seen in the questionnaire (Appendix 3).

Hawkins Best and Coney's (1989) set of National Cultural Values

Other-Oriented Values

Individual/Collective.
Are individual activity and initiative valued more highly than collective activity and conformity?
Romantic.
Does the culture believe that "love conquers all"?
Adult/Child.
Is family life organized to meet the needs of the children or the adults?
Masculine/Feminine.
To what extent does social power automatically go to males?
Competition/Cooperation.
Does one obtain success by excelling over others or by cooperating with them?
Youth/Age.
Are wisdom and prestige assigned to the younger or older members of a culture?

Environment-Oriented Values

Cleanliness.
To what extent is cleanliness pursued beyond the minimum needed for health?
Performance/Status.
Is the culture's reward system based on performance or on inherited factors such as family or class?
Tradition/Change.
Are existing patterns of behaviour considered to be inherently superior to new patterns of behaviour?
Risk Taking/Security.
Are those who risk their established positions to overcome obstacles or achieve high goals admired more than those who do not?
Problem Solving/Fatalistic.
Are people encouraged to overcome all problems or do they take a "what will be, will be" attitude?
Nature.
Is nature regarded as something to be admired or overcome?

Self-Oriented Values

Active/Passive.
Is a physically active approach to life valued more highly than a less active orientation?
Material/Nonmaterial.
How much importance is attached to the acquisition of material wealth?
Hard Work/Leisure.
Is a person who works harder than economically necessary admired more than one who does not?
Postponed Gratification/Immediate Gratification.
Are people encouraged to "save for a rainy day" or to "live for today"?
Sensual Gratification/Abstinence.
To what extent is it acceptable to enjoy sensual pleasures such as food, drink, and sex?
Humour/Serious.
Is life to be regarded as a strictly serious affair or is it to be treated lightly?

This section was probably the most challenging of the entire questionnaire and the number of respondents who omitted part, if not all, of the questions in this section corroborates that view. It was impossible, due to space limitations and respect for the respondents' time to explain the meaning of these value concepts fully. Had the questionnaire been personally administered, a spoken explanation could have been given, which would have ensured a more complete understanding and, consequently, a better rate of response. However, there were 163 responses from Australia and 101 from Singapore/Malaysia to the questions in this section, which still gave sufficient responses for valid comparisons to be made.

The last series of items on the questionnaire, other than the demographics section, consisted of a nine-point test for the personal values of the individual respondent. This test is called the List of Values and was first used in a US study in 1976 (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986). It was developed from work on values by Rokeach (1968, 1973), Maslow (1954) and various others. It was included as a group of variables which would provide a personal cultural profile of the value orientations of individual respondents against which to measure their leadership perceptions.

The relationship between these nine items and Rokeach's list of 18 terminal values can clearly be seen in the table below. It can be seen that many of the values contained in the Rokeach Value Survey (which is shown in Appendix 5) are covered by the shorter *List of Values* test used in the current questionnaire in a more

parsimonious way. The List of Values can be seen to cover items relating to values influencing many facets of the life of every person.

List of Values	Rokeach - terminal values
Sense of belonging	A comfortable life
	An exciting life
Excitement	A sense of accomplishment
	A world at peace
Warm relationships	A world of beauty
with others	Equality
	Family security
Self-fulfillment	Freedom
	Happiness
Being well-respected	Inner harmony
	Mature love
Fun and enjoyment in life	National security
	Pleasure
Security	Salvation
	Self-respect
Self-respect	Social recognition (respect, admiration)
	True friendship
Sense of accomplishment	Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)

These nine items were arranged on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *extremely important* to *not at all important*, and respondents were asked to circle the number corresponding to their own personal value against each item. This would obviously give a much fuller picture of each individual's personal value set than ranking the nine items in order of importance, or choosing one or more of the most important values, both of which are ways in which the *List of Values* has previously been used (Kahle and Kennedy, 1988). By using this set of personal value items, as well as the set showing individual perceptions of national values, it was hoped to gain an indication of the homogeneity of the national culture within each nation. If a close correlation exists between the values of the nation, as perceived by our respondents, and the values of respondents themselves, then

it is not unreasonable to infer that a strongly homogeneous national cultural identity exists.

The demographics section of the questionnaire included items intended to show similarities and distinctions between respondents from the different groups, in order that moderating factors may be noted. Due to the particular interest this project has in the influence of national culture, several items centre upon this: thus respondents were not only asked what nationality they considered themselves, but also their birthplace and that of both their parents. They were also asked the nationality of the superior they were considering when answering the questions.

3.4 Pilot studies

After completing the questionnaire, it was felt necessary to test its comprehensibility. The questionnaire was given to four groups to pilot, in order to find whether there were ambiguities within statements, whether the instructions were clear in their intent, whether any unexpected difficulties of understanding or interpretation occurred and how long the questionnaire took to answer. On all occasions participants were encouraged to be very free with their responses, make suggestions for improvement and delineate any difficulties they found. Their suggestions for amendment were duly weighed and effected. Track gang employees of Westrail and three postgraduate classes at Curtin University, all of which contained a significant number of overseas students, were used at this stage of the research.

Changes were made between each pilot study, testing the improvements on the next pilot study group. As a result of these comments, negatively worded items were removed since they had been found to be confusing, and the order of some questions was altered so as to be more logical. In addition, some instruction sections were reworded to remove ambiguities, and some questions, seen to be very occupation-specific, were rephrased to make them more general. Altogether, there were nine draft versions of the questionnaire before reaching the final one included as Appendix 3.

3.5 Selection of subjects

As mentioned earlier, because of the lack of suitable large companies in Perth, it was not possible to replicate the 1989 study to the extent of using only workers in electronics companies. The companies who initially expressed an interest in assisting with the research were Westrail, Alcoa, Telecom, Boral and Woodside within Australia, and the Eastern Consulting Group which operates with many companies in Singapore and Malaysia. Westrail conducted the first of the pilot studies, but union intervention prevented further involvement due to a suspicion on the part of the union that, although this was an academic project, some threat was possible to the supervisory staff. For similar reasons Alcoa also withdrew without actually taking part in the survey.

Footnote: As an aside, one must note the insecurity of workers and management when an avowedly academic survey should cause such suspicion and union concern. It is of course unwise to speculate about the reasons behind such anxiety, but the concerns themselves are worthy of note, and reflect in some way the climate of economic uncertainty and fear for job security present within Australian society at the time the study was undertaken.

Distribution of questionnaires within Australia was by means of personal contacts with people in positions of influence within the three organizations, who either gave consent for their workers to be directly approached by the researcher (Woodside), or personally distributed and recollected questionnaires (Telecom and Boral). Woodside responses were posted back from widely scattered locations to the researcher in stamped, self-addressed envelopes, while the Telecom responses were collected by the researcher, and the Boral responses were returned directly to the researcher in bulk. The Woodside and Telecom respondents were working within Western Australia or offshore, while the Boral respondents were sited in Victoria.

The South-East Asian questionnaires were taken to Singapore and Kuala Lumpur by visiting academics from Curtin University, and distributed from the Eastern Consulting Group's central offices to employees selected by them, who mailed the responses directly to the researcher. Initially, responses from Singapore and Malaysia were disappointing, so another set of questionnaires was taken to the Marketing Institute of Singapore by a visiting academic, and these were collected centrally and returned.

Originally, 350 questionnaires were sent out to the Australian companies, and 185 returns were received, a response rate of 53%. Four hundred questionnaires were sent out by the Eastern Consulting Group, 200 in Singapore and 200 in Malaysia, with 34 returns from Singapore and 43 from Malaysia, a response rate of 77

out of 400, or 19%. Later, 100 more questionnaires went to Singapore, gaining 36 returns, which brought the overall South East Asian response rate to 113 out of 500, or a 23% return. For the sample as a whole, the 850 questionnaires sent out elicited 298 returns, a 35% rate of response.

From the demographics section it was noted that 171 respondents claimed Australian or New Zealand nationality, 7 were British, 4 European, 1 Papua New Guinean and 113 South-East Asian. Thus most national groups were too small to allow for independent testing, and the British and European respondents (who were all working in Australia) were regrouped into the Australian sample. The solitary Papua New Guinean was omitted from the analysis.

Certainly the personal contact was of considerable help in gaining the higher response within Australia. The senior executives' friendship with the project supervisor enabled the contact to be made on a personal basis and interest and some commitment to the project was greatly facilitated. However, this form of influence did not obtain the same results in South-East Asia, possibly because the means of return were not centralized, as in the case of two of the Australian firms. Another possible reason for the lower rate of return from South-East Asia (put forward by a Malaysian colleague) was the personal signature on the introductory letter: since it was signed by a student, with the added disadvantage of being female, the status of such a letter would, in his view, be regarded as very low. The colleague suggested that a better return rate might well have

been obtained if the letter had been signed by the supervising professor. This aspect of the differing cultural values had not occurred to either the supervisor or the student at the time, but it is a possibility to be considered on another occasion. It would have been preferable to have the two groups' returns even closer numerically, but the balance (185 Australian to 113 Singaporean/Malaysian) was considered to be acceptable for reasonable comparisons to be made between the two groups.

3.6 Data collection and recording

Once the questionnaires were returned, the data was entered into the computer bank. Since, as already mentioned, the numbering of columns had been deliberately omitted from the survey instrument in order to make it as 'user friendly' and personal as possible, the researcher had to code the returns by assigning column numbers and identification numbers to each return personally before data entry could take place. However, this enabled a personal perusal of the individual returns, which was interesting and sometimes amusing.

The questions of birthplace, duration in present country, and perceived nationality were interesting, for instance. Some "new Australians" considered themselves of *Australian nationality* after living here for only three or four years, while some who had been here twenty or thirty years still tenaciously claimed their birthplace nationality. Perhaps, as in the colonial era, there are some who become more patriotic and typically representative of their homeland with every year away from it. Some respondents

included personal messages to the researcher, either of encouragement with the project, or with comments about leadership generally, or their own leader in particular: one person had found the filling out of the questionnaire to be cathartic to the extent of enabling the sharing of frustrations which had usually to be suppressed; the questionnaire ended with a plea for advice on how to deal with this *particularly difficult* boss.

Some of the difficulties attaching to a survey showed themselves: sometimes respondents would have liked to give an alternative answer to an item, or to give two responses at once, or to explain their choice of a particular response as the best answer possible while still not totally accurate. It was also noticeable that some questions were found more difficult to answer than others, for repeated cases of lack of response to the same items were observed. A few people, it appeared, answered the questions so quickly that they turned two pages at once, thus missing out the whole centre, and one or two tired after the first few pages, omitting the last two pages entirely. These sorts of human error would not have been noted if the column numbers had been already printed on the survey instrument, for data entry would have immediately followed receipt of the returns, and the feeling of personal contact lost.

There was no need to edit responses in any way, since the items used in this questionnaire were entirely closed-ended questions: it was not even necessary to reverse negatively-worded questions, since these had been removed after the pilot tests had revealed them to be

confusing to respondents, as noted previously. Gaps in responses were treated as blank responses, and these were ignored in the statistical testing, since other methods of dealing with blank returns can create distortion in results (Sekaran, 1984).

3.7 Data processing and analysis

Analysis of frequencies, t-tests, crosstabs, principal components analysis, discriminant analysis, cluster analysis and correspondence analysis were the main statistical methods used in refining and analysing the data, using the SPSS-PC, version 4.0 statistical package. For hypotheses 1 - 3, initial techniques used were the same as those used in the Smith, Misumi*et al* (1989) study wherever possible, so as to make the replication as close as possible. Other analytical techniques were used in addition to those of the former study to try to gain a fuller picture of the actual distinctives of the national subgroups' results.

Some general statistical processes were used initially on the whole sample to gain an overview of the returns, and to demonstrate whether differences between the national subsamples were truly attributable to national cultural differences or whether other factors also contributed. These included an analysis of frequencies, t-tests and crosstabs, which were used to get a feel for the data (Sekaran 1984), and to determine at a basic level whether there were any significant differences between the responses of the two national subgroups. An analysis of frequencies and t-tests were conducted on

all the general, specific and cultural items, and crosstabs on the demographic data.

The large number of questions concerning leadership style (73 altogether, consisting of 20 general and 53 specific items which were analyzed separately) indicated that a multivariate analysis was the suitable method to use for hypotheses 1 and 2 in condensing the responses to fewer discrete underlying dimensions. So large a number of variables prevents their being treated as independent, intervening or dependent variables, and a smaller number of derived dimensions aids both understanding and treatment, helping to give a clearer picture of the various forms of leadership behaviour observed by their subordinates. Good factor analysis explains the data with a few meaningful, strong factors.

Principal components analysis was used rather than factor analysis for two reasons. Firstly, it identifies underlying dimensions of leadership behaviour represented by the relevant items, and, secondly, it maximizes the variance accounted for in the original individual variables (Soutar, Ramaseshan and Molster, 1994). Factor analysis focusses more specifically on the commonness between variables, which was not a priority in this project. Principal components analysis identifies underlying dimensions in order of the amount of variance each explains: the first principal component is the combination of variables which accounts for the largest amount of variance in the sample: the second accounts for the next largest amount of variance, and is not correlated with the first, and

so on. Each succeeding component accounts for a decreasing proportion of the variation in the data, and each is uncorrelated with the others (Dunteman, 1989).

Not all principal components identified have value in further analysis. Each factor has an associated eigenvalue, which indicates the total variance explained by each factor (Green, Tull and Albaum, 1988:566). An individual variable has a variance of 1, so any factor of more account than a single variable must have an eigenvalue greater than 1. Therefore only principal components with eigenvalues greater than 1 are reported and retained for further analysis.

Once the factors are extracted, tables of values show the coefficients used to express each variable in terms of the factors. These coefficients, called factor loadings, are calculated by correlating factor scores with variable scores. They give an indication of the comparative weighting of each variable towards the particular factor. The factor matrix obtained in this stage shows the relationship between factors and individual variables, but it is usually difficult to identify meaningful factors. Rotation of factors renders the factor relationship more meaningful and interpretable (Dunteman, 1989), leaving percentage of total variance and communalities unchanged: the varimax method of rotation developed by Kaiser (1958) is the commonly used rotation and was used in this study.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy can be used to determine if the principal components identified are likely to be useful in the present situation. It gives an indication of whether such an analysis is appropriate for this particular data. Measures of sampling adequacy of 0.7 or greater were regarded as acceptable in this project.

This sequence of analysis was used to determine factors in dealing with hypotheses 1, 2 and 4. Following the identification of principal components, in each case the reliabilities of these factors were tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951). This coefficient is based on the internal consistency of a test, and can be viewed as the correlation between this test and all other possible tests containing the same number of items. Cronbach's alpha reveals how much correlation to expect between the scale used and all other possible scales measuring the same characteristics (Norusis,1990). Since it can be interpreted as a correlation coefficient, it ranges in value from 0 to 1, with factors having alpha values of 0.7 or greater generally being considered to be reliable.

To judge the stability of the factors determined by the principal components analysis and shown reliable, the Everett-Entrekin factor comparability test was conducted (Everett and Entrekin, 1980). This very stringent test takes half-samples, weights the factors and correlates them against the full sample and against each other. Only factors having stability factors of 0.8 and over are accounted stable.

These analyses were sufficient to test hypothesis 1 conclusively but, for hypotheses 2 and 4, further analysis was conducted.

After determining stable comparable specific factors from the 53 specific variables for the whole sample, using the Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test, principal components analyses were conducted on the whole sample and national subgroups, to determine whether the factors elicited would be substantially different. These analyses also were subjected to reliability tests, as previously described. It was felt that treating the national subgroups separately in this way, and comparing the factor structure obtained, would give a clear indication of whether or not specific measures of leadership behaviours were demonstrably different for different national cultural contexts.

To show if the pattern of the difference in measures of leadership style could be attributable to national cultural differences, an analysis of z-scores was conducted on the specific variables which had been shown to be truly distinct from the general items. This test compared the average scores for each of these 38 distinctly specific items, computed the difference between these averages, calculated the 't' value and 'z' score, and indicated the probability of the observed differences occurring simply by chance, or due to sampling inconsistencies (Green, Tull and Albaum, 1988). The 't' value is determined by dividing the difference in scores by the standard error and, together with its observed significance level, indicates the likelihood of the specific difference in national scores occurring due

to chance alone. The 'z' score is the standardized score and shows the difference between the score for a particular variable and the sample mean for that variable. It is measured in terms of the standard deviation (Kenkel, 1989), and shows the direction as well as the measure of the difference. This test was a valuable way of demonstrating whether differences between responses made by the national subgroups have any real significance, or could have occurred by chance.

The individual specific variables were also used in another way to indicate whether meaningful differences in manner of response to the leadership behaviour measures were made by members of the two national subgroups. A simple Fortran program was written to produce a contingency table for the Singaporean/Malaysian and Australian subgroups. This displayed the percentage frequency of each possible response for the 38 specific variables in each of the two national subgroups. The purpose of this test was to reveal any clear distinctions between the Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian responses on these items. The four items, which were on a 1-7 rather than the more usual 1-5 scale, were amended to fit by putting together the extremes and recoding so that a response of 1 or 2 became a 1 and a response of 6 or 7 became a 5, with other values spaced between. The two items on a 1-4 scale were not altered, since they simply showed no response in the 5 column.

Based upon the contingency table a simple correspondence analysis was conducted (Greenacre, 1984). The purpose of this analysis was to

create a graphical display of the sets of results from the two national subgroups so as to have a visual representation of their similarities and ways in which they were distinct. Correspondence analysis provides coordinate values for each row and column point, thus allowing the rows and columns of a data matrix to be mapped. Results of the analysis can be interpreted in various ways. Firstly, total overall spatial variation in each row or column is examined: this is called "inertia". Inertia along each axis, or dimension, is broken down into proportions explained by the various row or column points: these proportions are used to interpret the dimensions. Eigenvalues show the inertia explained by that principal axis, and the sum of eigenvalues shows the total inertia within the representation. The relative contributions to inertia are the relevant squared correlations (Hoffman and Franke, 1986): the sum of these correlations across the dimensions gives a value to the "quality" of the results for the specific row or column variable. High "quality" suggests that the results obtained provide a good representation of the data, and indicate the number of dimensions which should be retained (Soutar and McNeil, 1994).

Finally, a discriminant analysis was conducted on the general factors, common specific factors and separate specific variables of leadership behaviour in an attempt to identify significant differences in the national groups responses to these items. Norusis (1990) suggests that there are two univariate significance tests for measuring the equality of group means. The first is the *F* values, basically a one-way analysis of variance, and the second is the Wilks lambda

statistic; both were used in this analysis. The significance of the Wilks lambda statistic is also used to test whether the discriminant functions are actually revealing differences between the groups, and not merely sampling variability. These tests were considered sufficient to test hypothesis 2 to 5 comprehensively.

Personal and cultural values were analyzed using principal components analysis, reliabilities and Everett/Entrekin factor comparability tests, as previously described. These tests were followed by the use of a cluster analysis of the behavioural factors to determine the discrete groups into which the responses might be effectively grouped. This clustering procedure (Howard and Harris, 1966) partitions a set of observations (in this case observations of organizational leadership behaviour) into a number of clusters such that the number of clusters minimizes the within-group variance. As suggested by Milligan and Mahajan (1980), the point biserial correlation coefficient was used to determine the best number of clusters for this data (Savery and Soutar, 1990). Discriminant analysis was finally used to determine whether the groups obtained could be profiled according to the national and personal values of the respondents, to determine what influence personal and national cultural attitudes have on the perceptions of organizational leadership observed in the respondents.

3.8 Methodological assumptions

The questionnaire developed for this research is based on the assumption that cross-cultural variables in leadership can be

quantified within given parameters and measured to gain international comparisons. The assumption was also made that, since both respondents living and working in Australia and those living and working in Singapore and Malaysia use English as the common language, at least in their business dealings, language and semantic differences did not affect the responses in any way.

The statistical procedures used are based on the assumption that the sample was obtained from a normally distributed population. The use of principal components analysis is based on a further assumption that the variables used are related in that they represent underlying, independent dimensions. As Norusis (1990) suggests, this assumption was tested by examining the coefficients of the correlation matrix and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy which would determine the suitability of this test for examining the leadership behaviour statements.

Multivariate methods of analysis are designed for use only when measurements analyzed are obtained using interval scales or better. The Likert-type scales used in this study are ordinal rather than interval, and technically could be considered unsuitable for such analyses. However the use of interval scales makes questionnaires so verbose and complex that respondents are deterred from answering them, and it was thought that this would be especially true in an intercultural context. Also, for practical purposes, the Likert-type ordinal scales approximate interval scaling and, on this basis, it was felt that multivariate techniques could be used.

3.9 Limitations of the present study

A limitation of the present study is in the size of the sample. Although reasonable results were obtained with the responses received, a larger number of returns was hoped for, preferably over two hundred in each subsample, with numerical equity between the national subsamples. This smaller than preferred sample size meant that respondents from Singapore and Malaysia had to be grouped together rather than treated separately. Although the two groups are very close geographically, and have very much in common, there are concrete and important differences in the ways of thinking which it would have been helpful to have been able to explore.

Insofar as this project was aiming to replicate the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study, it was important that the samples should be as similar as possible. We note here, however, the limitations to the replicability due to some dissimilar characteristics of the sample. The 1989 study concentrated on workers in one occupation only: all respondents were employed in electronics manufacturing. This enabled the use of occupation-specific questions regarding the behaviour of leaders in that particular setting. The current project used respondents from several occupations, leading to minor amendments in wording some questions to give greater application: thus behaviours specifically related to a particular work context, which could have provided valuable insight, were not tested.

The 1989 study also had a quite different gender distribution form the current study: in four of the five recorded studies involved,

77%-90% of the respondents were female, whereas females represented only 25%-30% of the current project's respondents. Whether this would cause a difference in perceptions of leadership it would be difficult without further research to ascertain, but the difference is noted here as a possible limitation when comparing results with the earlier study.

As has been noted previously, there were a number of blank responses for the section of the questionnaire concerned with personal and cultural values. There may have been several reasons for this, notably the position of this section at the end of the questionnaire, but it may also have been because some respondents found the questions difficult to understand. Certainly the format of the section was very different from preceding ones, and this in itself could have caused problems. On the basis of this reasoning, the level of actual understanding of respondents for this section of the questionnaire is noted as being of possible concern.

From the perspective of the current project's interest in the influence national culture and its associated value structure have upon perceptions of effective organizational leadership, a possible limitation of the questionnaire is noted. This is in the tenor of the questions themselves. Misumi's work, in the main, has been concerned with differing organizational contexts, and thus the questions asked have tended to focus on task-oriented behaviours which would distinguish effective leaders in one environment from those in another. Within an international or intercultural context,

however, this focus seems not always to have explored the desired concepts: perhaps questions need to be framed based on researched evidence of inter-cultural distinctions in order to gain a truer picture of the influence of national and cultural values, mores and accepted modes of behaviour upon perceptions of effectiveness of leadership.

Some errors in sampling are also a possible limitation: it is impossible to know who actually completed the questionnaires, and whether or not they actually responded accurately regarding the behaviours of their immediate superior. It is possible that respondents may have given a general picture of their experience of superiors as a whole, or the views they felt 'ought' to be given, or some other form of stereotyped views. To the extent that actual behaviours, attitudes and beliefs differ from those admitted to on a printed questionnaire the data will be unrepresentative.

Another possible limitation is in the use of the English language for all respondents. This should not be a difficulty since all respondents use English as their major language, particularly in their working environment. However, it is recognized that semantic differences can and do occur, and that, particularly in the case of abstract concepts such as the values criteria, the possibility exists that different people understood these in quite distinct ways.

3.10 Hypotheses to be tested

In Chapter 1 it was noted that the present study was undertaken partly to test Smith, Misumi, Peterson, Tayeb and Bond's (1989) hypotheses, taken from their four nation study of leadership behaviour (in Japan, Hong Kong, North America and Great Britain) within Australia and Malaysia/Singapore to see if similar results would be obtained. Some hypotheses were mainly concerned with their 'general' items, while some were concerned with their 'specific' items. In addition, the study had certain individual hypotheses and general questions of its own to be considered. The specific hypotheses tested are detailed below.

A The three hypotheses taken from Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989:99).

1. The factor structure of general measures of leader style will show high similarity across national cultures.

2. The factor structure of specific measures will vary between national cultures.

3. Specific measures will show different relations to general measures across national cultures, and the pattern of these differences will be explainable in terms of the leadership values espoused within each national culture.

B Hypotheses specific to this study which seek to explore the effect of espoused national and individual values on perceptions of organizational leadership.

4. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers' perceptions of leadership style will align with the two-factor PM concept.

5. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employees will have specific perceptions of leader behaviour which will be similar within their own national culture, but will differ from those in other national cultures.

6. The personal value system of individuals will influence/have a bearing on their views of organizational leadership. In particular, a personal value system, as measured by the two values tests used, will show a measurable amendment in perceptions of organizational leadership.

C Some general questions this project is attempting to answer.

a. Do styles of leadership in Australia and Singapore/Malaysia correlate with each other and with those in other countries; thus demonstrating the transferability of leadership style and in particular the PM theory of leadership, across cultures?

b. By considering how differently specific leader behaviours are perceived in different national/social/political settings, can Singaporean/Malaysian or Australian employees' particular views of organizational leadership behaviour be determined?

c. Is there a group of personal values common to Australian or to Singaporean/Malaysian employees, yet distinct from those of the other national group, by which their perceived views of organizational leadership may be gauged?

3.11 Summary

This chapter has detailed the development of the investigative instrument, the choice of subjects and the way in which the responses were gained. It has also explained the statistical procedures used in the analysis of results and the hypotheses which these analyses were testing. The following three chapters will state and explain the results obtained, showing how they relate to the original hypotheses and to the objectives of the project. Chapter four will focus on the descriptive statistics and general measures of leadership behaviour, chapter five will discuss the findings and interpretation of the specific measures of leadership behaviour, and chapter six will examine national and personal values and integrate the separate sections of the project.

Chapter Four

Presentation of Findings and Interpretation of General Measures of Organizational Leadership

Chapter 4 Presentation of findings and interpretation of general measures of organizational leadership behaviour

4.1 Overview

Since the questionnaire could be considered to be in three fairly distinct sections, the results and interpretation of each section will be detailed separately. This chapter considers the results of some of the descriptive statistics and the general measures of leadership behaviour, with particular emphasis on the testing of hypothesis 1. The descriptive statistics with particular relevance to national culture have been included in chapter six.

4.2 Descriptive analysis of the data

In order to make valid comparisons between two distinct groups of people, it is necessary to ascertain how comparable the groups are in ways other than the particular aspects under investigation. The descriptives section of the analysis was used for this purpose to compare the two national groups. This was in order to determine whether or not the two subsamples were sufficiently alike in general ways to allow for the assumption that different patterns of response to questionnaire items were more likely to result from national than from any other differences. To this end comparisons were made on such measures as age, gender, educational level attained, position within the organization and duration of service to the organization. All analyses were conducted on 276 of the total 298 responses

received, due to missing values which were omitted from analysis so as not to create distortion. There was also one response from a sole respondent living and working in Papua New Guinea. Since he could not be classified as Australian, Malaysian or Singaporean, his questionnaire was omitted from the set of survey responses used.

4.2.1 Gender distribution

The Australian population used were 75% male and 25% female, as compared with the Singaporean/Malaysian gender split of 70% male and 30% female. The samples are very similar, and differences in responses would not therefore be due to gender differences in the subsamples taken as a whole. This was confirmed by a low and non-significant Pearson chi-square statistic. The chi-square test is a test of independence, a low chi-square indicating little difference between the populations.

4.2.2. Age distribution

The age distribution shows some interesting differences. In the table below only the valid percentages of the population are used for comparison.

age	Australia(%)	Singapore/Malaysia(%)
under 20	3.3	0.9
20 - 29	22.5	19.6
30 - 39	30.8	54.5
40 - 49	31.3	20.5
50 - 59	11.5	4.5
60 or over	0.5	-
median age	30-39	30-39

It can be seen that the Australian sample had a wider age distribution, while the Singaporean/Malaysian sample was predominantly in the 30 - 39 age group. However, the median age range for each subsample was within the same group (30-39), suggesting that overall age parity was maintained. This was confirmed by a nonsignificant Pearson chi-square statistic.

4.2.3 Educational level attained

Respondents' educational levels showed some interesting differences. They were asked about the highest level of education they had completed, and the results are shown below as valid percentages of the national subsamples.

formal education completed	Australia(%)	Singapore/Malaysia(%)
minimum high school	15.5	1.8
completed senior high school	14.9	4.5
some further education course	30.9	16.4
completed tertiary course	20.4	26.4
completed university degree	11.0	32.7
post-graduate courses or degree	7.2	18.2
median educational level	further education course	university degree

The median level in this case was considerably different for the national groups; the chi-square statistic was 61.1 with 12 degrees of freedom, and this was accounted a highly significant difference, well beyond the 1% level. These results show that considerable differences existed between the educational levels attained by respondents in the two national groups, with the bulk of the Australians having a lower standard of education than their South-

East Asian counterparts. For instance, 30% of the Australian respondents had gone no further than completing senior high school, while this applied to only 5% of the South-East Asians, and 51% of respondents from Singapore and Malaysia had at least a university degree, while this applied to only 19% of the Australians. This may, in part, be explained by the larger number of older workers in the Australian population (12% compared with 4.5% in Singapore and Malaysia), or by the greater value often said to be placed upon education within Asian countries in comparison with Australia.

4.2.4. Managerial levels within organization

To try to form a picture of where each respondent fitted into their organization, taking into account the varying meanings of titles in differing organizations, respondents were asked about the number of managerial levels above them in the organization, and also about the total number of managerial levels within the organization. There is evidently a difference in position, generally speaking, between the respondents within Australia and those in Singapore/Malaysia, even taking into account that many Australian companies had a greater number of managerial levels. For the consideration of managerial levels above the respondent, the Pearson chi-square statistic was 100.1, with 24 degrees of freedom, which is significant well beyond the 1% level. In comparing this result with the educational standard achieved, it is quite possible that an association exists, since it would be reasonable to suppose that persons of higher status in an organization might well have achieved higher educational standing. The results are shown below.

managerial levels	Australia(%)	Singapore/Malaysia(%)
1. above respondent		
0		1.8
1	4.6	37.8
2	21.4	36.0
3	21.4	15.3
4	22.0	4.5
5	18.5	2.7
6(+)	12.1	1.8
median managerial levels above	4	2
2. within organization		
0		0.9
1	1.2	0.9
2	0.6	3.7
3	7.4	15.7
4	12.9	21.3
5	17.2	26.9
6	17.8	12.0
7	17.2	8.3
8	11.7	4.6
9(+)	14.0	5.6
median managerial levels total	6	5

On the other hand, the Pearson chi-square statistic for the total number of managerial levels was 42.3, with 32 degrees of freedom, which was only significant at the less than 10% level. This suggests that the numbers of levels within the organizations in the two groups was not significantly different, since, despite observable differences in the range of levels, with many more Australian organizations having seven or more managerial levels (42.9%) as compared with Singaporean/Malaysian organizations (28.5%), the majority of organizations in both cases clustered around the 3-6 managerial levels (55.3% of Australian and 75.9% of Singaporean and Malaysian companies).

4.2.5. Position of superior discussed within company

Respondents were asked to describe their immediate superior (the person about whom they were answering the questions) as holding an executive management, middle management or first-level supervisor position.

level of superior	Australia(%)	Singapore/Malaysia(%)
executive management	26.4	71.2
middle management	52.2	25.2
first-level supervisor	21.4	3.6
median superior level	middle management	executive management

This shows a significant difference between the two national groups, aligning with the 'levels of management above the respondent' question; the Pearson chi-square statistic was 60.1, with 4 degrees of freedom, and this result was accounted significant at well below the 1% level, or highly significant. The superior most Singaporean/Malaysians (71.2%) had in mind when answering the questions was of executive level, whereas most Australians (73.6%) were considering a lower or middle management person. This, together with the 'levels above' question, shows that the positions held by the Australian respondents were, in general, lower in the organizational hierarchy than those of the Singaporean/Malaysian group. The three results, educational achievement, levels above the respondent in the organizational hierarchy, and position of the superior under consideration, all display quite significant differences between the two national samples, and it is suggested that these differences are quite probably related. It is noted that these

significant differences represent a limitation on the comparability of the samples, and that a more homogeneous sample as regards educational level, position within the company and management level of the superior considered would have been preferred for the sake of consistency of result.

4.2.6. Time of employment within the organization

Respondents were asked about the time they had spent in working for their current organization, since this often has a bearing on the perceived attitudes towards the job itself and the quality of organizational leadership.

years of employment	Australia(%)	Singapore/Malaysia(%)
less than 1	3.3	7.1
1 - 2	18.7	11.6
3 - 5	21.4	29.5
6 - 10	13.2	28.6
11 - 15	8.2	13.4
16+	35.2	9.8
median years work	6 - 10	6 - 10

The median number of years worked for the organization would suggest that, overall, there is not a great deal of difference between the groups on this measure, but the interesting feature of these results is the very large number of Australian employees who have worked for the same organization for many years. The Pearson chi-square statistic was 36.8, with a significance level well below the 1% level, which suggests that the groups are significantly different on this measure.

The bulk of the Singaporean/Malaysian respondents (58.1%) were in the middle range (3-10 years) of service to their organization, and very few (9.8%) had more than 16 years in the one company. The Australians also had a large number (34.6%) in the middle range, but a surprising 35.2% of employees had worked in the same organization for 16 years or more. Part of the reason for this distinction would be in the age distribution of respondents - there were more older Australians workers - but one is left with the impression that the differences may be for other reasons. Perhaps Singaporeans and Malaysians tend to move more between jobs so as to rise to higher positions, perhaps they tend to be more ambitious, or perhaps there is a greater variety of organizations to choose between. Possibly Australians are not so concerned with personal advancement, but more with the security of a well-known position and company, particularly in an economic environment of unprecedentedly high unemployment. These queries, while outside the range of this study, suggest a possible line of further research into such areas as differences in job motivations, security, ambition and the influence of national economy on job mobility between employees in different national cultures.

4.3 General measures of leadership behaviour: principal components analysis

Initially the general leadership style data was analyzed to determine if any of the 20 general measures could be grouped together into underlying dimensions of leadership style. The general items, together with Misumi's nomination of them as P (performance) or M (maintenance) related behaviours are listed below.

General Items

P1	My superior lets me know about plans and tasks for my day to day work
P2	My superior gives me instructions and orders
P3	My superior sets clear deadlines for completing the work when giving me assignments
P4	My superior is ___ knowledgeable about the resources or facilities for which I am responsible
P5	My superior requires me to report on the progress of my work
P6	My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month ____ precisely
P7	My superior urges me to complete work within a specified time ____ strongly
P8	My superior is strict about observing regulations
P9	My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning on the part of my superior
P10	My superior tries to make me work to my maximum capacity
M1	When I ask my superior to improve the facilities needed for my work, he or she tries to do so
M2	My superior tries to understand my viewpoint
M3	When a problem arises in the workplace, my superior asks my opinion about how to solve it
M4	My superior treats me fairly
M5	I can talk ____ easily with my superior regarding my work
M6	My superior is concerned about my personal problems
M7	My superior trusts me ___ strongly
M8	My superior is concerned about my future career success
M9	My superior gives me recognition when I do my job well
M10	My superior generally supports me

(M and P numbers refer to Misumi's original classification)

4.3.1 Principal components analysis of the whole sample

Principal components analysis was performed on the whole sample for the 20 general measures of leadership behaviours, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy for this set of questions was 0.91, which indicated that a factor analysis was appropriate. Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were identified which, together, explained 59% of the variance in the data. This suggests there are four unrelated types of leadership behaviours. The table below shows the results of this initial principal components analysis.

principal components of the 20 general leadership behaviours

factor	eigenvalue	percentage of variance explained	cumulative % of variance explained
1	7.251	36.3	36.3
2	2.349	11.7	48.0
3	1.139	5.7	53.7
4	1.037	5.2	58.9

After the varimax rotation, all 20 general measures of leadership behaviour formed part of the four factors identified, with all factor loadings greater than 0.4 on at least one factor. It should be noted that using the lower limit of 0.4 as indicating an acceptable factor loading forms a point of difference with the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study, which used 0.3: possible reasons for this will be detailed later. It is clear that the first two factors are substantially stronger than the other two, since the eigenvalue drop after the first two factors is very large. This suggests that there are probably only two factors really worthy of consideration in this instance.

4.3.2. Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test

To confirm the conclusion that there were really only two distinct factors identified by the principal components analysis, the Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test was conducted. This stringent test judges the stability of principal components derived for a random sample (Everett and Entrekin, 1980a, 1980b). Two random samples were drawn from the whole sample of respondents, and a principal components analysis carried out for each on the general leadership behaviour variables. For each analysis, factor score coefficients were extracted and used to calculate two sets of factor scores for each of the 298 respondents. A cross correlation of these factor scores for each factor was then performed. Only those factors which resulted in correlation coefficients, or comparability coefficients, of greater than 0.9 were used in the subsequent analysis (Soutar and Clarke, 1981). The test was repeated, using the national groups as subsamples instead of the randomly selected half-samples to ascertain whether any distinct differences would be observed in the factor comparability. The factor comparability scores and eigenvalues are displayed below.

factor	eigenvalue	factor comparability		number of statements
		random	Aus/S,M	
1	7.251	0.999	0.995	10
2	2.349	0.994	0.946	3
3	1.139	-0.264	0.419	3
4	1.037	-0.300	0.127	4

In deciding how many factors to retain, the eigenvalues greater than one and the Everett/Entrekin factor comparability results generally represent the extremes of a continuum, with eigenvalues indicating the largest number of underlying components to retain, and the Everett/Entrekin results indicating the least. Hence, it can be concluded that, although the four factors extracted made conceptual sense, and could be justified through the use of reliability coefficients, the more parsimonious and stable result is that this data can be explained by two underlying dimensions.

As a result of this test, the principal components test was rerun on the whole sample of general measures of leadership behaviours, forcing the result to two factors. This reduced the range of communalities to between 0.3 and 0.7, showing that some items correlate less strongly with the 2 dimensions than with the four. However, all 20 measures formed part of the two dimensions identified, with all factor loadings greater than 0.4 on one or other dimension. The percentage of variance in the data explained by the retained factors was reduced to 48%, which is still an acceptable result. The first dimension, containing twelve items, was almost identical with the previous first dimension, and related to interpersonal relationship measures; it was named "caring". The second factor, containing eight items, was a composite of most items contained in the earlier factors two, three and four, and related to measures such as work plans, resources, regulations and giving orders. It was hence named "getting the job done". The items and factor loadings of the two underlying dimensions are shown below,

including the original designation of each item by Misumi as either a 'P' (performance) or 'M' (maintenance) behaviour.

factor matrix for the full sample after rotation

item		factor 1	factor 2
treats me fairly	(M4)	**.83**	.04
generally supports me	(M10)	**.82**	.15
tries to understand views	(M2)	**.80**	.03
talk easily about work	(M5)	**.78**	.01
trusts me	(M7)	**.75**	-.01
recognition for good work	(M9)	**.75**	.28
concerned for my career	(M8)	**.70**	.33
tries to improve facilities	(M1)	**.69**	.23
poor planning wastes time	(P9)	**-.66**	-.15
asks opinion in problems	(M3)	**.60**	.11
cares for personal problems	(M6)	**.57**	.28
knows about my resources	(P4)	**.48**	.24
urges job completion	(P7)	.08	**.69**
sets deadlines	(P3)	.23	**.63**
gives instructions/orders	(P2)	-.22	**.62**
works out monthly goals	(P6)	.37	**.57**
urges maximum work	(P10)	.11	**.57**
strict about regulations	(P8)	.02	**.55**
requires progress reports	(P5)	.23	**.52**
informs about work plans	(P1)	.27	**.51**

The reliability of each underlying dimension was established using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and both factors were found to be highly reliable. This shows that the two dimensions represent the conceptual underpinning of this data well. The mean scores on each factor were calculated, indicating the extent to which the studied superiors were engaging in each type of leadership behaviour. The results are shown below.

mean scores and reliabilities - general measures of leadership style

Scale (factor)	mean score*	alpha reliability	number of statements
caring	2.40	0.91	12
getting the job done	2.82	0.75	8

*Mean score on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = always and 5 = never

The results show that the average response to questions concerning "caring" behaviour was between 'sometimes' and 'usually' with a leaning towards 'usually', whereas the "getting the job done" factor scores leaned much more towards the 'sometimes'. This indicates that, on the whole, respondents viewed their superiors as demonstrating considerate and people-related leadership behaviours rather than those associated with a distant, task-focussed style.

4.3.3 Principal components analyses for separate nations

Principal components analyses were conducted on the two national subsamples separately, to determine if there were any substantial differences between the responses of the Australian and the Singaporean or Malaysian employees when considering general measures of leadership behaviour. KMO measures of sampling adequacy were 0.90 and 0.81 respectively, indicating the suitability of this form of analysis. Each subsample had two underlying dimensions with eigenvalues greater than one, explaining 47.5% and 47.9% of the variance in the data respectively, as shown below.

principal components of national subgroups on general measures

factor	eigenvalue		percentage variance explained		cumulative % variance explained	
	Aus	S/M	Aus	S/M	Aus	S/M
1 caring	7.23	6.99	36.1	35	36.1	35
2 getting job done	2.27	2.59	11.4	13	47.5	47.9

The two principal components for the separate Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian groups were very similar, with both Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian samples showing 12 M-items and 8 P-items.

One variable *(My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month ___ precisely)* loaded almost equally onto both factors in the Singapore/Malaysian subsample, and thus could justifiably be regarded as belonging to either factor. Placing it in the "getting the job done" factor, which makes good conceptual sense, means that both subsamples have the same underlying dimensions, and shows the factor structure to be consistent over the two national subgroups. The rotated factor matrices are shown below.

factor matrix for the Singaporean/Malaysian sample after rotation

item		factor loadings factor 1	factor 2
generally supports me	(M10)	**.81**	.03
recognition for good work	(M9)	**.81**	.15
talk easily about work	(M5)	**.80**	-.03
trusts me	(M7)	**.77**	-.10
treats me fairly	(M4)	**.77**	-.10
tries to understand views	(M2)	**.77**	-.07
concerned for my career	(M8)	**.74**	.37
tries to improve facilities	(M1)	**.73**	.22
asks opinion in problems	(M3)	**.66**	-.04
poor planning wastes time	(P9)	**-.60**	-.07
cares for personal problems	(M6)	**.53**	.25
knows about my resources	(P4)	**.50**	.19
urges job completion	(P7)	.17	**.77**
sets deadlines	(P3)	.21	**.76**
gives instructions/orders	(P2)	-.29	**.57**
works out monthly goals	(P6)	**.51**	**.50**
strict about regulations	(P8)	-.13	**.49**
requires progress reports	(P5)	.21	**.46**
urges maximum work	(P10)	-.04	**.46**
informs about work plans	(P1)	.30	**.34**

It is noticeable that the "caring" factor is the stronger numerically, considering each national subgroup. The Singaporean/Malaysian group factor loadings for factor 1 are high, with no loadings below 0.5. For the "getting the job done" dimension, on the other hand, four of the eight factor loadings are below 0.5, and one is below 0.4,

meaning it could really be regarded as independent of the factor structure.

For the Australian sample only one factor loading in the "caring" factor is below 0.5, while for the "getting the job done" factor all loadings are greater than 0.5, suggesting that this dimension is less consistent within the Singaporean/Malaysian than within the Australian sample. The same measures fall into each of the dimensions for both national subgroups, though for the Australian sample only one item has a loading of less than 0.5. Again the "caring" factor is stronger for the Australian sample, with generally higher loadings than for the "getting the job done" dimension.

factor matrix for the Australian sample after rotation

item		factor loadings factor 1	factor 2
treats me fairly	(M4)	**.84**	.10
generally supports me	(M10)	**.81**	.20
tries to understand views	(M2)	**.80**	.04
talk easily about work	(M5)	**.76**	.01
trusts me	(M7)	**.71**	.01
concerned for my career	(M8)	**.70**	.30
recognition for good work	(M9)	**.69**	.34
poor planning wastes time	(P9)	**-.66**	-.15
tries to improve facilities	(M1)	**.64**	.21
asks opinion in problems	(M3)	**.61**	.20
cares for personal problems	(M6)	**.59**	.27
knows about my resources	(P4)	**.45**	.26
gives instructions/orders	(P2)	-.20	**.65**
urges job completion	(P7)	.01	**.63**
works out monthly goals	(P6)	.27	**.62**
urges maximum work	(P10)	.26	**.61**
informs about work plans	(P1)	.20	**.60**
strict about regulations	(P8)	.12	**.56**
requires progress reports	(P5)	.23	**.55**
sets deadlines	(P3)	.28	**.51**

The reliability of the two underlying dimensions was established using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and both factors were found highly reliable in both subsamples. A comparison between the alpha-reliabilities of the factors, considering the national subgroups and the sample as a whole, can be seen in the table below. This shows both factors reliable whether national subgroups or the sample as a whole are considered, and establishes that the reliability of factor 1 is more pronounced, and extremely consistent.

reliabilities on the two-factor solution for general items

	Full sample	Singapore/ Malaysia	Australia
Number in sample	276	102	173
Cronbach's alpha factor 1	0.91	0.91	0.91
Cronbach's alpha factor 2	0.75	0.70	0.77

Thus the general measures of leadership behaviour are well explained by two underlying dimensions, whether considering the sample as a whole, or the two separate national subsamples, and the constitution of these factors is consistent across national groups.

4.4 General measures - interpretation and discussion

When the initial principal components analysis found there were four factors which adequately explained the data on general measures of leadership behaviour, a similarity with Misumi's categorization of M-items and P-items was observable. Factors two, three and four were together approximately equivalent to Misumi's P factor, which concentrates on those behaviours concerning the performance of the task: (only one of the 10 P-items was missing). The first factor constituted the M-factor, or those behaviours

concerned with the maintainance of good relationships between the people in the workplace.

Following the Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test revealing only two stable factors, and the consequent rerunning of the principal components analysis to produce two factors, very little overall difference in the factors was observed. The first dimension was almost identical with the previous first dimension, and related to "caring" or interpersonal relationship measures such as trust, understanding, recognition, concern over personal problems, respect for the employee's opinions, concern for advancement and attempts to improve the employee's situation. It contained twelve items, ten of which were the ones Misumi calls M (maintenance) measures, and two which he regarded as P (performance) measures: these were *'poor planning wastes time'* and *knows about my resources'.* The second factor was a composite of the previous factors two, three and four, relating to measures such as work plans, resources, regulations, goal setting, accomplishment and giving orders. This factor had eight items, all of which were described by Misumi as P (performance) measures.

The mean score results on these factors showed that the average response to questions concerning "caring" behaviour was between 'sometimes' and 'usually', with a leaning towards 'usually', whereas the "getting the job done" factor scores leaned more heavily towards the 'sometimes' descriptor. This would indicate that, on the whole, respondents viewed their superiors as demonstrating considerate

and people-related leadership behaviours rather than those associated with a more distant, task-focussed style.

Two factors containing identical items were extracted when the principal components analysis was performed on the separate subgroups (with the slight variation of one Singaporean/Malaysian item loading almost equally onto both factors). Factor loadings on particular measures differed between the two national samples, but the items contained in the underlying dimensions were the same measures. This clearly reveals the generality of the two factors across these two national groups in this instance.

4.4.1 Comparison of current and 1989 international results

In comparing the results of the current project with those of Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) it is noticeable that in both cases there is an unequal split between M-items and P-items whereas Misumi had suggested that there were ten M and ten P items. The 1989 study found 9 variables loaded onto factor 1 (M), 6 onto factor 2 (P) and 5 had some loading on both factors. For the current project, when repeating the 1989 study's use of factor loadings greater than 0.3, ten variables loaded onto factor 1, six onto factor 2, and four had loadings on both factors.

Agreement between the current and the 1989 project was very strong. The six variables which loaded only onto factor 2 and seven of the variables loading onto factor 1 were common to both projects. The extra factor 1 variables from Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) had some loading on both factors in the current study, and *vice versa.*

Two of the variables with loadings on both factors were common to both studies. In the 1989 study, no variables expected to belong to one factor loaded onto the other, although some loaded moderately onto both. In the current study two variables considered to be P-items loaded as M-items. However, the 1989 figures show these variables also loaded more strongly on the M-factor, so the distinction which might appear to be present in the current study is not significant. As in the 1989 study, factor 1 was considerably stronger than factor 2, with higher loadings in both national groups. Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989:102) noted that evidence for the generality of both factors was "substantial", though the structure of factor 2 was "a little less clear": these comments are fully endorsed by the current project.

It is noted here that some differences existed between the samples used in the 1989 and in the current project: the focus of the 1989 study on electronics company workers has been mentioned previously, but there were additional differences, particularly in the age distribution, gender distribution and status within the organizational hierarchy. The employees in the 1989 study were all members of shopfloor work teams in electronics assembly plants, and most were young and middle-aged women (Smith, Misumi *et al* 1989:100). These factors obviously represent a considerable difference from the present project, yet results for the general measures of leader behaviour were very similar, which perhaps makes the generalizeability of the results even stronger.

Overall, it is evident that, although conditions of the current project were not identical with those of the 1989 study, results for the general measures of leadership behaviour are very similar, indicating that these dimensions could be supposed to be generally understood in the same way in different cultural contexts.

The results of the separate nations' principal components analyses are displayed in a format similar to that used by Smith *et al* (1989), showing the distinction between measures which have high factor loadings on one factor only and those which load, at least partially, onto both. The comparative format accentuates the similarities between the current and 1989 findings. The parallel set of results from the 1989 study can be found in Appendix 10.

An interesting observation is that if factor loadings greater than 0.4 had been used in displaying the current results, shown in the table below, instead of repeating the 0.3 limit used by Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) for the sake of closer comparison, only one item *(My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month ___ precisely)* loaded onto two factors simultaneously. This appears to strengthen the validity of the 2-factor solution. Perhaps the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) inclusion of 0.3 to 0.4 factor loadings in their display of results for the general measures of leader style (see Appendix 10) was due to the larger number of countries surveyed. In their case, one item would not have loaded at all if only loadings greater than 0.4 had been used (P4) and, for several items, the similarities would not have been so apparent (P1, M1, M9, P4, P6).

Factor Loading for General Items	Factor 1		Factor 2	
Items with high loadings on factor 1	**Aus**	**S/M**	**Aus**	**S/M**
My superior generally supports me (M10)	.812	.811		
I can talk ___ easily with my superior regarding my work (M5)	.759	.797		
My superior trusts me ____ strongly (M7)	.706	.772		
My superior treats me fairly (M4)	.844	.769		
My superior tries to understand my viewpoint (M2)	.799	.769		
When I ask my superior to improve the facilities needed for my work, he or she tries to do so (M1)	.642	.731		
When a problem arises in the workplace, my superior asks my opinion about how to solve it (M3)	.610	.659		
My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning on the part of my superior (P9)	-.665	-.602		
My superior is concerned about my personal problems (M6)	.586	.526		
My superior is ___ knowledgeable about the resources or facilities for which I am responsible (P4)	.454	.497		
Items with some loading on both factors				
My superior gives me recognition when I do my job well (M9)	.685	.807	.342	
My superior is concerned about my future career success (M8)	.696	.736		.374
My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month ___ precisely (P6)		.515	.624	.504
My superior lets me know about plans and tasks for my day to day work (P1)		.304	.597	.343
Items with high loadings on factor 2				
My superior urges me to complete work within a specified time ___ strongly (P7)			.628	.770
My superior sets clear deadlines for completing the work when giving me assignments (P3)			.511	.762
My superior gives me instructions and orders (P2)			.652	.574
My superior is strict about observing regulations (P8)			.564	.490
My superior requires me to report on the progress of my work (P5)			.546	.461
My superior tries to make me work to my maximum capacity (P10)			.610	.459
[only factor loadings >0.30 are shown]				
Eigenvalue	7.23	6.99	2.27	2.59
Reliabilities (value of Cronbach's alpha)	0.91	0.91	0.77	0.66
Percentage variance explained	36.1	35.0	11.4	13.0
Total variance explained by 2 factors: Australia 47.5, Singapore/Malaysia 47.9				

Certainly, the current results show similar findings to those of the 1989 study for the general measures of leadership style, so it can be concluded that Australia and Singapore/Malaysia had a similar pattern of responses to those of the four other nations studied. In other words, it has been shown that these general measures of leadership behaviour were found to be applicable to the Australian and Singapore/Malaysian populations surveyed just as they had previously been found applicable to employees in Hong Kong, Japan, North America and Great Britain. This supports Misumi's claims that these measures of leadership behaviour are general to different situations, including cross-cultural environments.

4.4.2 Comparison of current results with Misumi's factors

It was considered interesting that the principal components extracted were similar to, but not identical with, those described by Misumi, in both the 1989 study and the current project. To ascertain whether there actually was a great difference in the results, it was decided to see how reliable, using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient, Misumi's original M and P factors were, using the current data set. The following table shows the results obtained when these reliabilities were measured using Misumi's original factor structure.

factor reliabilities using Misumi's factor structure

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for general items			
	Full sample	**Singapore/ Malaysia**	**Australia**
M factor	0.91	0.91	0.91
P factor	0.76	0.71	0.78

For this test, ten items were regarded as belonging to the P-factor, and ten items to the M-factor. It was noticeable that, while the reliability of factor 1 (the M-factor) remained unchanged after the modification to align with Misumi's factor structure (alpha reliability coefficient was 0.91 consistently across subsamples and whole sample in both cases), the reliabilities for factor 2 (the P-factor) were all slightly (0.01) improved by the amendment (the addition of two items from the other category). In other words, even though the factors extracted for the current data set differed from those of Misumi's designated factors, the original 10-10 structure was also justifiable, based upon the reliability of that factor structure in relation to the surrent sample. This strengthens the case for the transferability of Misumi's 'general' factors to different national and cultural environments.

4.5 Conclusion

The existence of two general factors is supported in two ways; by considering the factor loadings, reliabilities and stability of the factors extracted from this data sample, and also by comparing this data with reference to Misumi's original two factors. When factors were extracted related to this data sample, two stable reliable factors were found, containing twelve and eight items respectively, considering each national subgroup and the whole sample. Though there were differences between the subgroups in terms of communalities, factor loadings and reliabilities, these differences did not detract from the overall finding of two strong, identical factors within each national group. Also, by comparing the current data with Misumi's original factor structure, the same result of two strong factors was evident.

Thus it has been determined that analysis of the results for the general items supports both hypotheses one and four.

Hypothesis 1. The factor structure of general measures of leader style will show high similarity across national cultures.

This hypothesis is fully supported, both within this project itself, and also by comparison both with the earlier international study (Smith, Misumi *et al*, 1989), and with Misumi's work.

Hypothesis 4. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers' perceptions of leadership style will align with the two-factor PM concept.

This hypothesis is also supported for the general measures of leader style, since the P and M factor structure was clear and strong for these general measures, and there is no observable distinction in the way Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers responded to the general behavioural measures as compared with workers in the earlier international study.

Chapter Five

Presentation of Findings and Interpretation of Specific Measures of Organizational Leadership

Chapter 5 Presentation of findings and interpretation of specific measures of organizational leadership

5.1 Overview

In chapter 4 the section of the questionnaire dealing with general measures of organizational leadership behaviour were analyzed and discussed, resulting in the conclusion that the present project agreed with previous studies that these measures are applicable to different situations, whether functional or geographical. In addition to the general measures, the questionnaire included 53 questions which were deemed specific to the particular environment in which they were used. These items, it was suggested, referred to leader behaviours which would vary according to the particular working environment in which the employee/superior relationship was observed. Analysis of these measures sought to determine whether they would form distinct patterns in different national cultures, and whether or not any distinctions existing could be attributed to those national cultures. To show this, factor comparability tests, principal components analyses, reliabilities, analysis of z-scores, correspondence analysis and discriminant analysis were used.

5.2 Everett and Entrekin's factor comparability test

In analyzing the general measures of leadership behaviour, the Everett-Entrekin factor comparability test was used to test the stability of factors identified by the principal components analysis. However, this test could not be relied upon for an accurate interpretation for the

specific items, as, in order to compare groups effectively, a minimum of a 1:5 ratio is needed between the number of items to be compared and the number of responses in each subsample. For the 53 *specific* items this would have necessitated having over 250 responses in each subsample, and the entire sample only numbered 298. However, this test can usefully be employed in an exploratory way, to indicate the minimum number of factors which would adequately represent the underlying dimensions in a data set. As was noted earlier, the Everett/Entrekin test and eigenvalues greater than one represent opposite ends of a continuum when considering the number of factors to retain. Another exploratory use of this test is in instances where there are two distinct subgroups, as in the present case, when the results indicate how closely the factors elicited from two distinct samples correlate (Everett and Entrekin, 1980a, 1980b).

When the Everett/Entrekin test was conducted, seventeen factors were identified within the 53 specific items of leadership behaviour with eigenvalues greater than 1, jointly explaining 68% of the variance in the data. This means the maximum number of underlying dimensions by which the data could be explained was 17. Cross correlation of factor scores showed that only two of these factors had high comparability coefficients (0.95 and 0.78) when the national subgroups were compared with each other. These factors could thus be said to be measuring the same underlying dimensions. This finding suggests that the two strongly correlated factors are common between the groups and do not differentiate between the national cultures of the respondents. Hence, they should be considered as additional to the

general factors already discovered, rather than as specific to the separate national cultures. These factors were labelled "common specific factors" and not used in any further analysis of the specific items.

5.3 Principal components analyses: full and national groups

Based on the results of the Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test, its two interpretations were put into effect, firstly to ascertain whether the data could be explained by as few as two summative factors, and secondly to identify the two "common specific factors" so that they could then be set aside as being not truly specific to differing situations.

5.3.1 Testing a two-factor solution

A principal components analysis was conducted on the whole sample, forcing the result to two factors, to see whether the specific items in this data set could be usefully described by two underlying dimensions, using the interpretation of the Everett/Enrekin test which shows the minimum number of useful dimensions. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for this principal components analysis was 0.71, suggesting that it was a reasonable analysis for determining the underlying dimensions in the data. The variance in the data explained by these two factors was only 22.4%, showing that the whole data was not well described by only two factors. It was found that 35 out of the 53 specific items had low (below 0.4) communalities, suggesting that the majority of the items could not be grouped effectively into two factors. Over the full sample, factor 1 had 18 items with loadings greater than 0.5, four of which had communalities less than 0.3; factor 2 had 11 items with greater than 0.5 loadings, and five of these with

communalities less than 0.3. If only acceptable communalities were used, factor 1 had 14 items and factor 2 had 6 items with loadings greater than 0.5. Thus, although some of the data can be formed into two meaningful factors, it can be concluded that, for this data, a two-factor solution inadequately expresses the underlying dimensions. The two factors, their factor loadings and communalities, are shown below.

item number	name	factor loading	communality
factor 1			
23	accepts suggestions	0.67	0.45
33	communicates within organization	0.64	0.41
20	discusses personal problems	0.64	0.40
25	free to share personal problems	0.62	0.39
24	seeks group's help	0.61	0.37
69	consults about new work	0.60	0.36
54	explains new work	0.60	0.41
51	demonstrates resources	0.59	0.37
57	time with superior on work problems	0.58	0.36
52	instructs on job skills	0.58	0.39
34	values suggestions	0.57	0.37
49	checks quality of work	0.56	0.33
22	arranges helps in personal problems	0.55	0.31
27	fails to give information	-0.54	0.31
50	time spent talking about work progress	0.52	0.28
56	time spent discussing career plans	0.51	0.28
55	time spent together socially	0.50	0.26
58	superior's social time with employees	0.50	0.25
factor 2	- (all concerning influence)		
36	familiar actions - unwritten rules	0.64	0.42
43	unfamiliar actions - unwritten rules	0.64	0.42
42	unfamiliar actions influenced by rules	0.64	0.41
48	unfamiliar actions influenced by beliefs	0.54	0.30
37	familiar actions influenced by specialists	0.54	0.29
45	unfamiliar actions influenced by others	0.54	0.30
35	familiar actions - rules and regulations	0.53	0.29
38	familiar actions influenced by others	0.53	0.28
44	unfamiliar actions - specialists	0.51	0.26
41	unfamiliar actions - beliefs	0.50	0.26
46	unfamiliar actions - superior	0.50	0.35

5.3.2 Principal components analysis of the whole sample

Since the Everett/Entrekin test does not rotate the factors, which makes for a truer definition, a principal components analysis was conducted. This was in order to determine the items which, taking the comparative interpretation of the Everett/Entrekin analysis, constituted the two stable consistent factors, identified as being strongly correlated across the groups, and labelled "common specific" factors. The communalities of the items with respect to the 17 factors identified (the degree of closeness of each individual item to one or other of the 17 factors) ranged from 0.45 to 0.87, with only six of the fifty-three items having communalities less than 0.6. Twelve factors were found reliable, using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of greater than 0.5 to demonstrate this. The twelve reliable factors jointly explained 57% of the variance in the data.

The items contained in the first two factors, which, as a result of the high factor comparability coefficients, we have called "common specific factors" are shown below, along with their factor loadings and communalities. The first factor contained eight items, and was labelled "communication and work collaboration", since it contained items such as demonstrating resources, explaining new tasks and job skills, discussion of progress, and checking on quality of work done. It was very much a job-related dimension. The second factor, containing seven items, was named "help and suggestions", and contained items concerning the superior's care and concern over the employee's personal problems, seeking help, and accepting suggestions with regard to work-related problems. This dimension essentially revealed

an interpersonal relationship orientation. It is interesting to note the similarity between these nominally 'specific' groups of organizational leadership behaviours and the two 'general' factors discussed in the previous chapter: they appear to have similar conceptual formations, focussing on relationships at work and on work performance.

the "common specific" factors of organizational leadership behaviour

	factor/item description	loading	communality
variable	**communication and work collaboration**		
50	time spent talking about work progress	0.83	0.77
49	checks quality of work	0.78	0.71
51	demonstrates resources	0.67	0.68
54	explains new work	0.58	0.65
59	frequency of meeting with work group	0.51	0.63
57	time with superior on work problems	0.48	0.65
52	instructs on job skills	0.47	0.64
33	communicates within organization	0.41	0.52
	help and suggestions		
20	discusses personal problems	0.71	0.64
22	arranges helps in personal problems	0.67	0.63
25	free to share personal problems	0.66	0.64
24	seeks group's help	0.62	0.66
23	accepts suggestions	0.59	0.74
19	focus on poor job, not person	0.54	0.63
18	strict about work done	0.37	0.54

5.3.3 Principal components analyses of national groups

Since the purpose of the present analysis was to determine whether or not the factor structure of specific measures of leadership behaviours differed between national cultural groups, separate principal components analyses were conducted both to confirm the existence of two "common specific" factors and to see if there would be noticeable distinction between the other underlying dimensions. These analyses

extracted seventeen factors with eigenvalues greater than one for the Singaporean/Malaysian sample and sixteen for the Australian sample.

For the Australian sample the sixteen factors with eigenvalues greater than one explained 68% of variance in the data. After conducting a reliability analysis on these factors, eleven were shown reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficient greater than 0.5. Discounting the non-reliable factors meant that eleven items out of the fifty-three in this part of the data did not load onto a factor. Examination of joint loadings led to three items being successfully included into factors without damaging the reliabilities, and staying true to the conceptual meanings of those factors. Thus eight items can be regarded as independent of the factor structure.

For the Singaporean/Malaysian sample, seventeen factors had eigenvalues greater than one, explaining 77% of the variance in the data. Reliability tests showed eleven factors reliable, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients greater than 0.5. One of the items on a discounted factor was successfully included into another factor with which it had a shared loading, so nine items could be deemed independent of the factor structure. Four of these 'independent' items were common to both national subgroups.

The table below shows the comparison between the number of items in each reliable factor, the communalities, factor loadings and reliability scores for the separately conducted national groups' principal

components analyses. Apart from the fact that each national group has eleven reliable factors, few other similarities were evident.

principal components results for the two separate national groups

Australia

factor	items	alpha	loadings	communalities
1	11	0.82	0.31-0.82	0.52-0.73
2	7	0.77	0.41-0.79	0.52-0.73
3	3	0.69	0.40-0.84	0.77-0.81
4	4	0.71	0.38-0.83	0.59-0.77
5	5	0.55	0.32-0.80	0.52-0.74
6	2	0.93	0.85-0.86	0.85-0.86
7	4	0.65	0.51-0.65	0.62-0.66
8	3	0.51	0.37-0.80	0.65-0.74
9	2	0.77	0.81-0.88	0.79-0.84
10	2	0.79	0.67-0.76	0.72-0.77
11	2	0.77	0.80-0.81	0.75-0.82

Singapore/Malaysia

factor	items	alpha	loadings	communalities
1	6	0.84	0.44-0.85	0.69-0.85
2	7	0.85	0.42-0.78	0.71-0.82
3	4	0.85	0.77-0.82	0.70-0.85
4	4	0.70	0.54-0.79	0.69-0.76
5	4	0.73	0.44-0.71	0.70-0.80
6	4	0.77	0.56-0.80	0.74-0.79
7	3	0.77	0.60-0.88	0.72-0.89
8	3	0.51	0.37-0.76	0.67-0.74
9	2	0.89	0.85-0.92	0.84-0.91
10	2	0.85	0.87-0.90	0.83-0.86
11	4	0.55	0.45-0.71	0.70-0.78

The eleven reliable factors for each group are displayed in the table below to enable ready visualization of the similarites and distinctions between the factor structures for the separate nations. The diagram generally follows the factor groupings for the Singaporean/Malaysian sample, fitting the Australian factors in alongside, though in some cases the order has had to be changed. Items in the same column belong to the same factor. There was a very close resemblance between the earlier factors, with the first three Singaporean/Malaysian factors being equivalent to the first two Australian factors.

Factor comparison table for the Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian separate groups principal components analysis

	var	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM	Aus	SM
1	50	.79	.85																	
	49	.74	.82																	
	51	.5	.7																	
	59	.47	.63																	
	54	.55	.55																	
	57	.41	.44																	
2	24			.82	.78															
	23			.78	.7															
	19			.31	.7															
	20			.43	.63															
	25			.49	.58															
	22			.4	.47															
	33			.4	.42															
3	75			.47		.71														
	34			.58		.62														
	27			-.7		-.6														
	69			.52		.44														
4	18	.4						.65												
	61							.71												
	39						.32	-.5									.37			
	46						.4	-.5												
5	45						.84			.80										
	38						.79			.74										
	37								.42	.69										
	44								.38	.56										
6	35								.83			.82								
	42								.77			.77								
	36										.76	.82								
	43										.67	.78								
	65													-.7	.56					
	66													.44						
	68												-.5	.66						
7	58												.8			.79				
	55												.64			.75				
	56														.65	.62				
	52														.51	.54				
	76														.65					
8	48																.85	.88		
	41																.86	.88		
	62																	.6		
9	47																		.71	.9
	40																		.8	.87
10	73																			
	72																			
	63																			
11	70																			
	71																			

1	50																			
	49																			
	51																			
	59																			
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	62																			
9	47																			
	40																			
10	73																			
	72																			
	63																			
11	70																			
	71																			

The first factor on this factor comparison table for the Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian groups matched factor 1, "collaboration on work issues", which was concerned with job-related behaviours such as explaining new tasks, talking about work problems, checking quality and progress of job tasks. Factor 2 of the separate samples equated with the "help and suggestions" factor, with items relating to the employer's attitude to seeking work-related help from subordinates and support for personal problems, a dimension focussing on interpersonal relationships. Thus the analysis of the separate national subsamples can be seen to confirm the existence of two stable factors across the national groups, as already determined.

In addition, the factor tabulated as factor 3, which matched the Singaporean/Malaysian factor 5 with four items of the large first Australian factor, was identical with the full sample factor 4 "information sharing" containing items regarding availability and sharing of information. This demonstrates that there are similarities even beyond those two "common specific" factors already identified. Factors 4-11 show some similarities, but no really strong consistency between the dimensions of specific leadership behaviours in the two national groups, and it was found impossible to equate later factors, other than the small two-item factors 8-11.

A comparison of mean scores for the "common specific" factors shows that not only are the factors seen to describe common underlying dimensions within the two national subgroup samples, but even the average scores are very similar, indicating that these items are

interpreted in a very similar way by Australians, Singaporeans and Malaysians.

mean scores* for the "common specific" factors

factor description	whole	Australia	Singapore/ Malaysia
1 work collaboration	4.02	3.94	4.03
2 help and suggestions	2.72	2.63	2.84

*mean scores of most items on a 1-5 scale where 1=high and 5=low

Since the specific measures of leadership behaviour have been shown to contain a mix of factors common to both national groups and factors which are quite different, it is not possible to say definitively that the factor structures for these items are different in separate national cultural settings, although certainly there are differences for many factors. Thus, hypothesis two is partly rejected and partly confirmed.

Following from the conclusion that two factors can be identified from the 'specific' items which are in fact common to both national groups, a correlation was sought between the two general factors and the two "common specific" factors, to show whether or not they are alike.

correlations between two general and two common specific factors

factors	whole sample		Australia		Singapore/Malaysia	
	com sp1	com sp2	com sp1	com sp2	com sp1	com sp2
general 1	0.49	0.71	0.40	0.68	0.56	0.73
general 2	0.47	0.56	0.52	0.59	0.37	0.47

Pearson's correlations were the means used for this comparison, and the table above shows the relationship found between the general and common specific dimensions.

Positive correlations exist between the common specific and general factors, and all are accounted significant at the less than 0.01 level. General factor 1 and specific factor 2 in particular have consistently high correlations across all groups, and could thus be said to be measuring the same underlying dimension. These factors both measure interpersonal relationship facets of leadership behaviour, while general factor 2 and specific factor 1 were concerned with task-related behaviours.

The conclusion from these tests was that certain of the leadership behaviours deemed to be 'specific' to particular work or national situations were actually interpreted similarly in the different environments, and were thus an extension of the 'general' behaviours. In continuing with analysis of the specific items, therefore, it was decided to omit these items, delineating them 'common specific' factors for the convenience of distinguishing them from the 'general' factors and from those items which may indeed prove to be specific in their interpretation. Thus, in part at any rate, hypothesis two cannot be supported, since some of the specific items have very similar factor structures across national cultures.

Further analyses were conducted on the remaining specific items of orgaizational leadership behaviour in an attempt to determine whether, and if so to what extent, the different responses to these behaviours were a result of differing national perceptions and outlooks.

5.4 Analysis of z-scores on specific measures

An analysis of the z-scores was conducted, using only the variables not falling within the common specific factors (38 items). In this test the differences between the average scores of each item in the two national subgroups and the full sample were compared, to see if there was any significance, and/or any pattern between the differences observed.

While recognizing that dealing with mean scores does not allow for individual variation to be taken into account, this test shows clearly that there is little overall difference between the responses obtained from the two different nations: there is no difference in the mean response which is greater than even one point on the scale, and only five mean differences are greater than 0.5. Considering that a possible range of five responses exists for most items (seven for some) the subgroup results are remarkably similar, which suggests that, on average at least, employees from both Australia and from Singapore and Malaysia respond very similarly to these items about their work practices and superior's behaviour patterns. This test suggests that Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employees do not view their superiors in ways which differ very considerably.

There seems, from the table below, to be little actual distinction in the scores, on average, between the national groups, the range of mean differences lying only between zero and 0.83, whereas the maximum possible difference is 4.

analysis of z-scores - separate national cultural subgroups

Variable	Australian mean	Sing/Mal mean	Difference	't' value	Sample mean	'z' - score Aus+/-	S/M+/-
21	3.72	3.47	0.25	2.01*	3.62	+.097	-.139
27	3.09	3.07	0.02	0.36	3.08	+.007	-.008
34	2.65	2.70	0.05	-0.39	2.67	-.029	+.036
35	2.50	2.56	0.06	-0.97	2.52	-.021	+.037
36	3.05	2.94	0.11	0.36	3.01	+.044	-.063
37	3.40	3.56	0.16	-1.46	3.48	-.064	+.081
38	3.50	3.64	0.14	-1.24	3.56	-.065	+.089
39	2.94	2.67	0.27	1.54	2.83	+.107	-.135
40	1.96	1.90	0.06	0.13	1.94	+.029	-.046
41	3.50	2.67	0.83	5.38**	3.17	+.271	-.451
42	2.55	2.41	0.14	0.26	2.49	+.055	-.081
43	3.29	2.77	0.48	3.47**	3.08	+.191	-.314
44	3.02	3.31	0.29	-1.81	3.14	-.101	+.148
45	3.19	3.33	0.14	-0.88	3.24	-.146	+.080
46	2.49	2.34	0.15	1.36	2.43	+.063	-.091
47	2.04	2.08	0.04	-0.06	2.06	-.019	+.029
48	3.53	2.83	0.70	4.78**	3.24	+.226	-.375
53	4.68	4.64	0.04	0.29	4.66	+.013	-.009
55	5.26	5.01	0.25	0.75	5.17	+.063	-.105
56	5.48	5.80	0.32	-2.3*	5.61	-.113	+.153
58	5.49	5.16	0.33	1.51	5.37	+.100	-.149
60	3.81	3.29	0.52	1.88	3.60	+.126	-.221
61	3.51	3.51	0.00	-0.63	3.50	+.007	+.005
62	2.02	2.12	0.10	-2.4*	2.06	-.056	+.069
63	2.17	2.73	0.56	-4.72	2.40	-.228	+.260
64	3.78	3.64	0.14	0.74	3.73	+.040	-.075
65	3.43	3.57	0.14	0.11	3.49	-.046	+.065
66	3.59	3.35	0.24	0.7	3.50	+.063	-.103
67	3.37	3.31	0.06	0.46	3.35	+.019	-.034
68	2.75	2.90	0.15	-1.18	2.82	-.051	+.053
69	1.99	2.06	0.07	-0.83	2.02	-.023	+.032
70	2.20	2.29	0.09	-0.92	2.25	-.048	+.041
71	1.80	2.08	0.28	-3.06*	1.92	-.148	+.139
72	2.58	2.74	0.16	-1.46	2.65	-.067	+.095
73	2.60	2.76	0.16	-1.42	2.66	-.057	+.101
74	1.02	1.83	0.81	-9.24**	1.34	-1.627	+.468
75	2.22	2.37	0.15	-1.93*	2.28	-.069	+.007
76	4.65	4.48	0.17	1.74	4.58	+.083	-.115

*means a 2-tailed probability of below 0.05, and ** a 2-tailed probability of below 0.001.

footnote: The z-scores are based on the formula $z = \frac{v - Av}{sd}$

where, in relation to each separate variable, 'z' represents the z-score, 'v' the mean value, 'sd' the standard deviation, and 'Av' the full sample mean.
The z-score gives a direction as well as a magnitude for the distinctions between the mean scores of the respondents from the two national subgroups.

The starred 't' value results, however, show that there is strong (and for the double-starred results, very strong) statistical significance in the differences observed for nine of these variables. These items are shown below.

items showing statistical significance in the difference between mean scores of responses from Australia and Singapore/Malaysia

item	name	significance
21	discusses personal difficulties with others	0.05
56	time spent discussing career and plans	0.05
62	dress of superior, compared with others in group	0.05
71	hours at work, compared with official hours	0.05
75	amount of information superior has and shares	0.05
41	influence of national beliefs in everyday situations	0.01
43	influence of unwritten rules in unfamiliar situations	0.01
48	influence of national beliefs in unfamiliar situations	0.01
74	manner of addressing superior	0.01

5.5 Contingency table and correspondence analysis

A simple Fortran program was written to produce a contingency table for the Singaporean/Malaysian and Australian subgroups. This displays the percentage frequency of each possible response for the 38 specific variables in each of the two national subgroups. This test reveals any clear distinctions which may exist between the Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian responses on these items. The four items which were on a 1-7 rather than the more usual 1-5 scale were amended to fit by putting together the extremes and recoding so that a response of 1 or 2 became a 1 and a response of 6 or 7 became a 5, with other values spaced between. The two items on a 1-4 scale were not altered, since they simply showed no response in the 5 column. The results of this test are tabulated below, with the table of responses for the

national groups arranged alongside each other for easier comparison. (The column headed 'm' refers to the percentage of missing responses for that particular item).

contingency table showing the frequency of particular responses to specific items by respondents from the two national subgroups

	percentage of responses for each point on the scale											
	Australia						Singapore/Malaysia					
variable	1	2	3	4	5	m	1	2	3	4	5	m
21*	2	11	22	34	24	7	2	20	24	29	19	6
27	4	20	40	29	7	0	8	20	35	25	10	2
34	5	37	41	10	2	5	6	33	44	9	3	5
35	17	37	29	10	4	2	22	22	35	14	6	1
36	4	28	30	25	11	2	10	18	40	19	12	1
37	6	15	31	28	18	2	4	11	32	29	23	1
38	2	15	35	27	19	2	1	11	31	37	19	1
39	7	32	33	20	6	2	17	27	36	10	9	1
40	29	52	12	3	2	2	32	49	12	3	3	1
41*	3	20.5	25	20.5	29	2	8	38	29	15	8	2
42	16	37	27	10	6	4	21	34	26	12	6	1
43*	4	21	29	23	19	4	10	30	33	17	9	1
44	9	27	30	18	13	3	5	22	31	26	15	1
45	5	22	36	21	12	4	4	20	34	28	12	2
46	15	42	24	12	4	3	23	36	27	13		1
47	24	52	15	2	4	3	25	51	17	4	2	1
48*	5	17	18	27	29	4	8	36	26	19	10	1
53	14	18	13	16	35	4	16	19	12	18	34	1
55	4	9	16	28	40	3	4	12	16	28	38	2
56*	1	5	14	31	46	3	1	4	9	18	66	2
58	1	9	9	30	48	3	3	7	13	39	37	1
60	33	17	15	17	15	3	38	19	22	13	7	1
61	3	15	33	25	21	3	9	10	21	32	27	1
62*	22	61	11	4		2	16	56	19	8		1
63	22	56	10	3	6	3	22	15	31	25	6	1
64	6	13	14	34	32	1	4	13	20	37	24	2
65	9	12	15	42	16	6	10	11	24	32	21	2
66	16	13	16	8	45	2	16	12	17	24	29	2
67	8	11	31	29	18	3	9	7	38	29	15	2
68	26	17	22	23	9	3	24	18	18	20	19	1
69	49	23	18	6	3	1	48	20	16	11	5	0
70	27	27	39	3	1	3	34	16	37	9	4	0
71*	44	31	22	1		2	40	20	28	7	5	0
72	14	31	40	9	5	1	12	27	36	21	4	0
73	15	29	41	11	3	1	11	28	40	17	3	1
74*	97	1	1			1	63	2	31	4		0
75*	27	39	23	9		2	20	37	31	9	3	0
76	3	1	6	11	77	2	2	4	10	17	67	0

Although the precise spread of responses is not identical, a marked similarity can be seen for most of the variables. Some interesting exceptions include those variables already noted as having significantly different responses by the results of the t-values. These variables have been pinpointed by a star alongside the item number. Other variables also showed an observable difference in the way in which responses were spread across the scale, even though the mean values may not have shown a statistically significant difference. The most notable of these are shown below.

v39	work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by superior
v61	at what point the superior would react to regular tardiness
v63	where the superior generally eats lunch
v66	the proportion of the day spent within sight of the superior
v76	time spent discussing work problems with the work group

Again it must be noted that dealing with the mean response for a large group of people, while giving a clear overall view of distinguishing features, will not show the range of responses within the particular group under observation. This facet will be discussed further in chapter six. It is also somewhat surprising to note that, in considering a range of thirty-eight behaviours of organizational leaders in their everyday relations with their employees, less than one-third of these behaviours have shown different response patterns, taken as an average, in the two distinctly different situations under examination.

A simple correspondence analysis was conducted based upon the results of this contingency table (Greenacre, 1984). This was to create a graphical display of the differences in responses between the national

subgroups on the specific variables. Coordinate values for each row and column point were obtained from a correspondence analysis, allowing the rows and columns of a data matrix to be mapped. Two and three-dimensional maps were explored, but it was found that a map showing two dimensions was able to show these differences for all but four of the variables in this data set: the "quality" for these four variables was less than 0.4, showing that they are not adequately explained in the two dimensions: the qualities of all other variables were between 0.561 and 0.995. The four variables not adequately explained in two dimensions were omitted from the maps: they were the Australian variable 65 (number of work improvement suggestions made each month), and Singapore/Malaysian variables 36, 63 and 67 (effect of unwritten rules on daily worklife, superior's lunchplace, and work evaluation with respect to the group).

It is recognized that in three dimensions all qualities were very high (0.7 to 1.0), and that this would well explain all variables. However, the two-dimensional map has been shown for the sake of a simple representation. This solution explains 84% of the inertia in the data, suggesting that it provides a good representation of the data, with the first principal axis explaining 58% and the second 26% of the total inertia. The two-dimensional correspondence analysis map displays in graphical format the relative positions of the responses by Singaporean/Malaysians and Australians to the 38 specific measures of organizational leadership behaviour.

The first dimension, explaining 58% of the inertia, separates points on the basis of individual or group behaviours, with the positive end of the scale showing the actions of the superior or employee individually, and the negative end their actions relative to the work group. The second dimension, explaining 26% of the inertia, separates on the basis of superior's and employees' behaviours, with the extreme positive end showing the superior's actions and the negative end those of the workgroup. However, these distinctions were not the major reason for using correspondence analysis in this case, though the diversity of this analytical method is appreciated. It was used here to "obtain a graphical representation of both the rows and columns of the original data matrix in terms of as few dimensions as possible" (Hoffman and Franke, 1986), in such a way that the interrelationships of the variables between the national groups could be visualized.

Two separate maps were drawn, the first showing the closest pairs of points, and the second those which were furthest apart so that points could be more easily distinguished: Pythagorean distances were calculated for the sake of accurate discrimination. The points with the same numbers represent the Singaporean/Malaysian (marked #SM) and Australian (marked #A) responses to the same items.

As can be seen from the first map, some pairs of points are very close indeed. The position of these points shows that, on average, Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employeed interpret these behaviours in very similar ways. The closest, thus least differentiating behaviours shown by the correspondence analysis maps are:

v47 work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by own experience
v65 superior's expectations of suggestions for work improvements
v34 how highly superior values suggestions and opinions of employee
v53 how often superior sends memos/notes instead of speaking personally
v67 superior's evaluation of employee's work, in relation to group
v55 how often superior spends time socially with employee
v40 work actions in familiar situations affected by own experience
v45 work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by peers
v69 those consulted about new work procedures

The second map shows the pairs of points which are most clearly distinguished, and hence viewed most differently by workers from Australia and Singapore/Malaysia. The behaviours which allow for the greatest differentiation are:

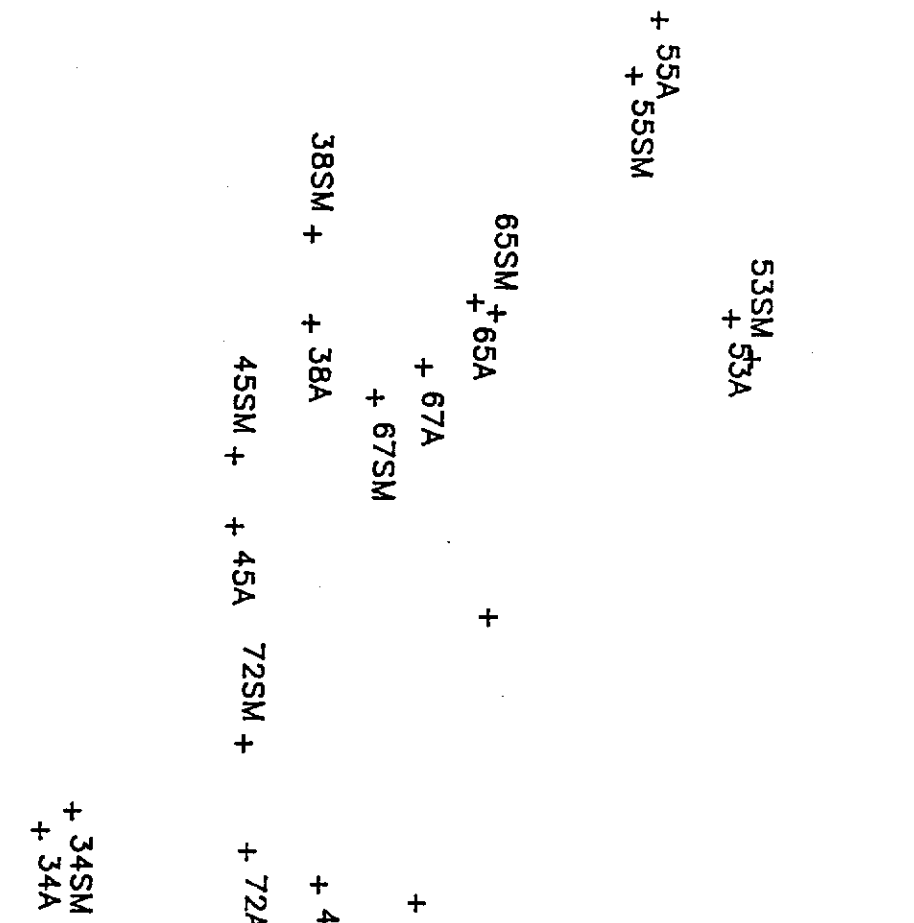
v74 manner of address usually used to superior
v41 work actions in familiar situations affected by widely-accepted national beliefs about what is right
v48 work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by widely-accepted national beliefs about what is right
v63 where the superior generally eats lunch (if he/she eats lunch)
v43 work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by unwritten rules
v56 time spent with superior discussing employee's career and plans
v39 work actions in unfamiliar situations affected by superior
v71 superior's time at work compared with official hours
v61 the lateness threshold to which the superior would react
v21 when superior knows of personal difficulties, discusses them in person's absence with group members
v76 time spent discussing work problems with workgeoup
v70 superior's time at work compared with group
v60 time spent communicating with peer members of other workgroups

The coordinates for each of the 38 specific measures of organizational leadership, as determined by the correspondence analysis , are given below, followed by the two maps, showing, first, the pairs of least distinct points, and then those which showed clearest differentiation.

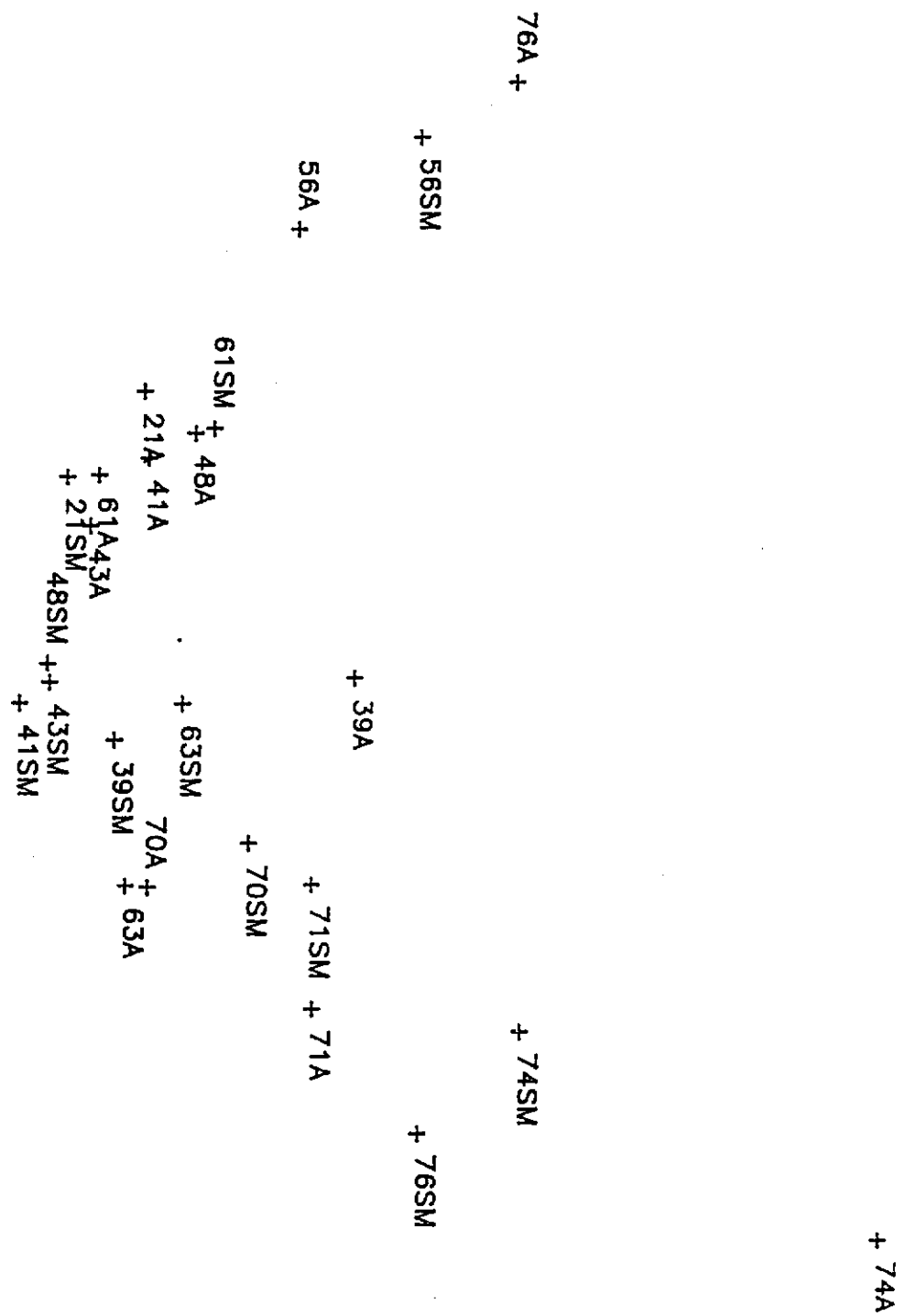
table of values from correspondence analysis

variable	Australia		Singapore/Malaysia	
	dimension 1	dimension 2	dimension 1	dimension 2
21	-0.589	-0.085	-0.385	-0.266
27	-0.105	-0.424	-0.081	-0.278
34	0.278	-0.582	0.253	-0.540
35	0.382	-0.231	0.298	-0.051
36	-0.105	-0.376	-0.054	-0.221
37	-0.316	-0.157	-0.464	-0.122
38	-0.379	-0.235	-0.495	-0.234
39	0.087	-0.411	0.238	-0.150
40	0.735	-0.019	0.745	0.061
41	-0.430	-0.073	0.151	-0.375
42	0.346	-0.218	0.369	-0.090
43	-0.269	-0.210	0.097	-0.304
44	-0.025	-0.214	-0.212	-0.274
45	-0.117	-0.332	-0.207	-0.333
46	0.365	-0.294	0.497	-0.154
47	0.658	-0.117	0.659	-0.128
48	-0.489	0.035	0.056	-0.310
53	-0.388	0.313	-0.335	0.341
55	-0.775	0.214	-0.703	0.182
56	-0.971	0.276	-1.191	0.569
58	-0.989	0.298	-0.820	0.154
60	0.222	0.416	0.466	0.349
61	-0.389	-0.191	-0.501	0.078
62	0.716	-0.234	0.568	-0.372
63	0.581	-0.122	0.151	0.009
64	-0.617	0.126	-0.522	-0.044
65	-0.408	-0.021	-0.394	0.006
66	-0.466	0.504	-0.355	0.292
67	-0.323	-0.087	-0.283	-0.150
68	0.175	0.163	0.013	0.264
69	0.776	0.521	0.687	0.543
70	0.584	-0.071	0.478	0.168
71	0.870	0.321	0.576	0.318
72	0.303	-0.312	0.165	-0.317
73	0.314	-0.304	0.187	-0.379
74	1.416	1.672	0.923	0.817
75	0.611	-0.071	0.456	-0.199
76	-1.321	0.792	-1.164	0.579

Two-dimensional correspondence analysis map of specific variables from separate Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian groups (closest pairs)



Two-dimensional correspondence analysis map of specific variables from separate Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian groups (distant pairs)



5.6 Discriminant analysis of specific leadership behaviours

The final analysis conducted on the specific measures of organizational leadership behaviour was a discriminant analysis. This test was used because it is able to examine differences between two or more groups with respect to several variables simultaneously. In this situation the stepwise multiple discriminant analysis was used to differentiate between the two national groups on the basis of the factors known to be stable between the groups and the specific behavioural variables. When the two national groups were used in this analysis only one discriminant function was found to be significant, so the analysis was rerun treating the Singaporean and Malaysian samples separately.

functions and their component factors and variables

	Function 1
v74	method of addressing superior
v63	where superior eats lunch
v43	work actions in facing unfamiliar problems affected by unwritten rules
v60	frequency of communication with peer members of other workgroups
	Function 2
v41	effect of nationally held beliefs in everyday work situations
factor 1	general factor 1 - caring behaviours
v35	work actions day-to-day affected by formal rules and procedures
v39	work actions day-to-day affected by superior
v66	proportion of day spent in sight of superior
v34	extent of superior's valuing of suggestions and opinions at meetings
factor 4	common specific factor 2 - interpersonal relationship orientation
v48	work actions in facing unfamiliar problems affected by national beliefs
v56	time spent with superior discussing career and plans

Two discriminant functions were found significant at the 1 percent level, and using Peterson and Mahajan's I^2 statistic these functions jointly explained 61% of the variance, function 1 explaining 35% and

function 2 explaining 26%, showing a reasonable balance between the two functions. Two factors and 11 specific variables were found to be significant at the 5% level: these are shown in the table above, together with the function with which each was more closely associated.

weights and correlations of independent variables with discriminant functions

discriminating factors and variables	structured correlations function 1	function 2
v74 manner of address usually used to superior	0.694	-0.176
v63 where superior eats lunch	0.322	-0.031
v43 actions influenced by unwritten rules	0.251	-0.034
v60 frequency of interaction with other groups	0.228	0.020
v41 daily actions influenced by country's beliefs	0.040	-0.392
fac1 caring	0.042	0.389
v35 actions influenced by formal rules	0.227	0.309
v39 actions influenced by superior	-0.097	-0.293
v66 proportion of day spent in superior's sight	-0.127	-0.292
v34 how highly superior values suggestions	0.195	0.286
fac4 interpersonal relationships	0.057	0.274
v48 rare actions influenced by country's beliefs	0.115	-0.267
v56 time spent with superior discussing career	-0.044	0.233

Groups	Group Centroids	(group means)
1 Australia	-0.608	0.536
2 Singapore	0.343	-1.237
3 Malaysia	1.704	-0.157

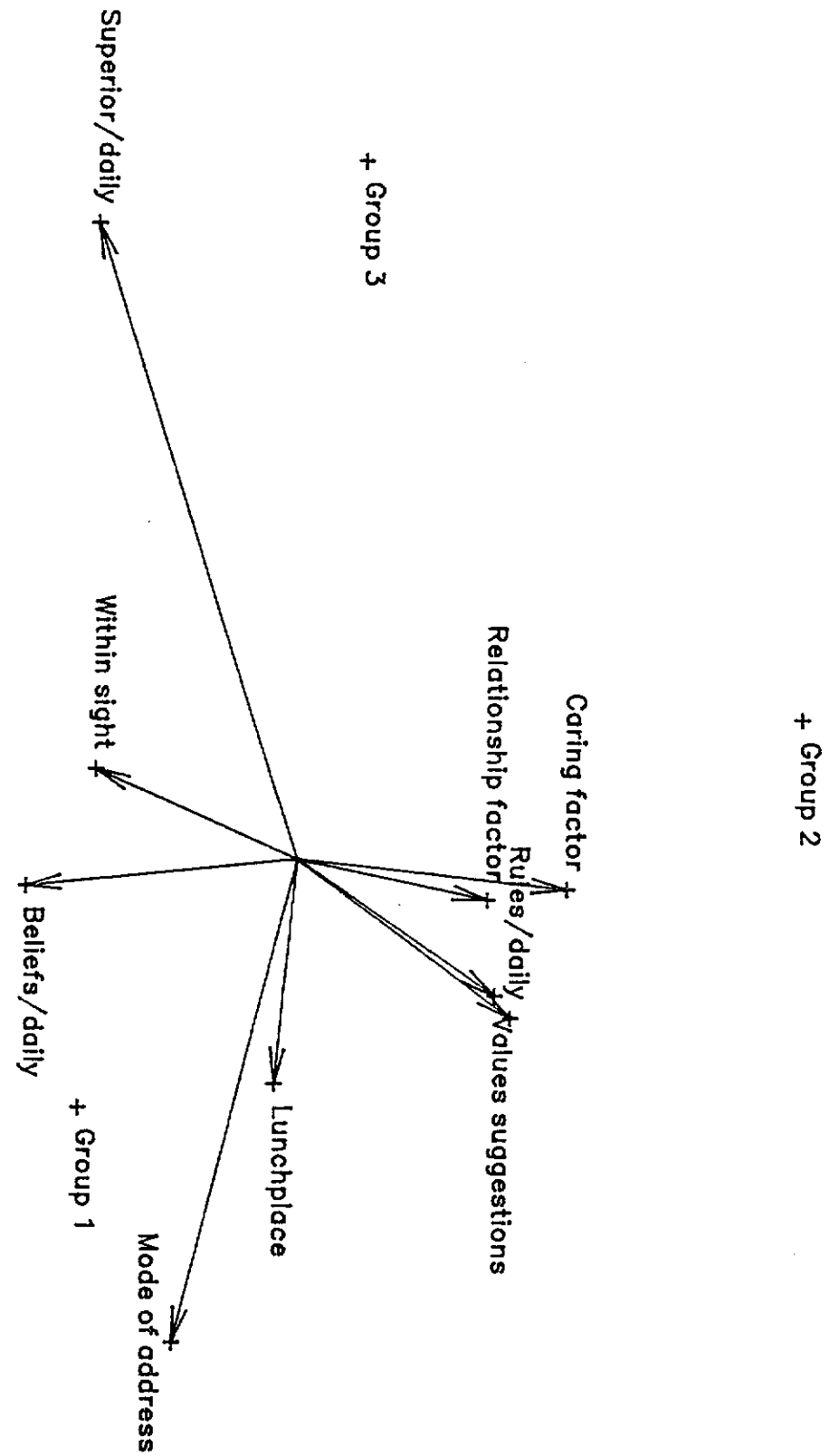
The two significant discriminating functions may be used to create a map showing the centroids of each of the three national groups and the relative positions of discriminating factors and variables, shown as vectors. The correlations providing coordinates for such a map are shown in the table above. The centroids were placed in the opposite quadrant from that shown by the coordinates, to allow for vectors to correspond to an increase in commitment to behaviours shown, in

order to compensate for the wording of questions from high to low agreement rather than the more usual low to high. Those items discriminating least between the groups have been omitted from the maps in the interests of clarity. The canonical discriminant function evaluated at group means (centroid) gives a typical summative position for each national group by creating a point whose coordinates are the group's mean on each of the factors and variables (Klecka, 1980).

The rotated structure correlations between the significant factors and variables and the discriminant functions give the coordinates for the vectors representing correlation coefficients between each factor or variable and the discriminant function. Both the direction and length of the vectors is meaningful. The direction of the vectors indicates differences between the groups by showing the position of a factor or variable relative to the group and discriminant function. A perpendicular dropped from the centroid to the vector extended forward or back gives a clear indication of how positively or negatively the country represented by the centroid associates with the variable/factor represented by the vector. The length of each vector indicates how well the variance for each variable is explained by the two discriminant functions - it shows the communality of the variables with the two functions.

F statistics were computed from the Mahalanobis distances to show whether and to what extent the groups were significantly different from each other, and give a means of showing which variables gave the greatest separation between groups (Klecka:1980).

Discriminant map of national groups and discriminating functions



5.7 Specific Measures - interpretation and discussion

For the analysis of the general measures of leadership behaviour, the current project followed very closely the method used by the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study, but different analyses were used in testing the specific measures. To quote the earlier study

> *What is required is evidence that the behaviours which the questionnaire investigates cluster in a different manner within each cultural setting.*
> Smith, Misumi *et al* 1989:103

The current project used several methods to explore whether or not the behaviours of superiors under investigation in the questionnaire clustered differently in the separate national settings, thus adhering to the intentions of the 1989 project, if not to its methods. The items for this 'specific measures' section had been chosen as "behaviours likely to vary between cultures" rather than as having a conceptual framework in mind (Smith, Misumi *et al*, 1989:103). The large number of factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were thus not a surprise. The current project found 16 and 17 such factors, while the 1989 study found between 10 and 12, depending upon the nation under investigation. It is noted here that the current study included extra items over and above the 36 used in the 1989 study, which doubtless contributed to this difference in the number of factors.

The Everett/Entrekin factor comparability test showed that two factors out of the seventeen extracted were found stable across the two national subgroups. In other words, it showed that these two factors were not, in fact, specific as to environment, but could be considered to represent underlying dimensions common in the two situations. The 1989 study found one such factor which seemed general across the four

nations studied, although evidence for its generality was less strong than for the general measures themselves. Forcing a two-factor solution for each national group, in both the current and the 1989 studies, showed that some of the specific behavioural items clustered similarly across cultures. Seven of the nine items noted as factoring similarly across all four countries in the 1989 study were also found amongst the 15 items in the "common specific factors". It would be reasonable to infer that the greater number of items found to be "common specific factors" in the present case could be due both to the larger number of specific items used (53 in comparison with 36) and to the smaller number of countries surveyed. However, in spite of these differences, the results can be seen to be very similar, in that some measures expected to be specific to national cultural context were actually found to be general.

Comparison of the remaining parts of the factor structure obtained from the two national subgroups showed that there was little commonality between underlying dimensions for the Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian groups considered separately. The principal components' and reliability tests showed that each national subgroup's responses could be represented by eleven reliable factors, and, as can be seen from the factor comparison table, some items were common in factors extracted for the separate national groups. However, there was overall insufficient likeness to be able to say that the factor structures across national groups were similar. Thus hypothesis two 'the factor structure of specific measures will vary between national cultures' can be partially supported by this data, since most of the 'specific' items (38

out of the total of 53) formed quite different underlying components from each other.

The results from the analysis of z-scores showed clearly that, although the precise spread of responses was not identical, a marked similarity could be seen for most of the variables. The measures for which there was greatest observable difference were those which showed a statistically different result (the items with one or two stars in the analysis of z-scores table). One of these refers to the manner in which the employee addresses the superior, whether by personal name, not by name at all, by family name or by rank. Almost all Australians (97%) responded that they addressed their superior by personal name, and none at all used their superior's rank in their manner of address. About two-thirds (63%) of Singaporeans and Malaysians, on the other hand, used their superior's personal name, about one-third (31%) the family name, and a small proportion (4%) used their superior's rank. This is a distinct difference, based entirely upon the different national origin of the respondents, and could be seen as a reflection of Hofstede's dimension of Power Distance, which is greater in the Singapore/Malaysian culture (Hofstede, 1980).

Another interesting, and highly significant, pair of variables in which the pattern of response was different refer to the extent to which beliefs about what is right within one's own nation affect familiar and unfamiliar actions at work. For the Australian sample, 48.5% and 40% respectively said they were affected at least moderately by widely accepted national beliefs in familiar and unfamiliar problem situations

at work, whereas 75% and 70% of Singaporeans and Malaysians are so influenced. Perhaps this could be related to the stronger sense of tradition often seen in Asian cultures. Another distinct difference is in the influence upon respondents of unwritten rules, particularly in unfamiliar situations: 57% of Australians said they were influenced at least moderately by such unwritten rules, while for Singaporean and Malaysian respondents this figure was 74%. This again could be a reflection of a greater concern for tradition and established patterns of behaviour, but, in this case, could also reflect the Australian leaning towards individualistic and the South-East Asian towards collectivist codes of behaviour (Hofstede, 1980). These four behaviours were all accounted significantly different between the national cultures studied.

Australian superiors are seen, on average, as spending more time with their subordinates discussing the subordinates' career plans: 51% recorded this happening at least every few months, whereas for the Singaporean/Malaysian respondents 31% noted such discussions occurring at least every few months, and about two-thirds (66%) said it happened yearly or never. This was, perhaps, a surprising result in view of the noted preference of Australians for individualism as compared with Singaporeans and Malaysians. Other differences noted by the analysis of z-scores as being significant were the number of hours the superior works in relation to the official expectations, the way in which the superior dresses in comparison with the workgroup, whether the superior would discuss an employee's personal problems in his absence with other members of the workgroup, and the amount of information available to the superior which is shared with the group.

Most Australians (75%) noted that their superior works more than the official hours, while 60% of Singaporeans and Malaysians noted this. Singaporean and Malaysian superiors were more likely to discuss personal problems (22% said usually or always, 24% said sometimes) than Australian superiors (13% said usually or always, 22% said sometimes).

The contingency table confirmed the distinguishing behaviours noted in the analysis of z-scores, and some others were also noted as being different in the way in which responses were distributed across the possible responses, though these distinctions may not have shown up in comparing mean scores. One of the behaviours which distinguished between Singapore/Malaysian and Australian superiors according to the contingency test was the extent to which work actions were affected by superiors when faced by familiar problems. Most respondents gave middling responses, but only 7% of Australians said they would be affected to a very great extent, in comparison with 17% of Singaporean/Malaysians. Another interesting difference is in the amount of time the subordinate spends within the sight of the superior: 69% of Singaporean and Malaysian employees noted spending at least 25% of each day within sight of their superior, while only 53% of Australians were thus situated, and almost half (45%) recorded spending less than 10% of their time within sight of their superior. It would be presumptuous to infer national cultural causes for this difference, as it may possibly be explained purely on geographical grounds (Australians often working in isolated locations, for instance)

or because of differing workplace arrangements such as single or multiple use of office space.

An interesting, though perhaps inconsequential, difference lies in the eating habits of the superiors: it appears to be more likely (25% as compared with 3%) for Singaporean and Malaysian superiors to eat lunch away from work, and much more likely (56% as compared with 15%) for an Australian superior to eat lunch in the office. This, again, could be partly for geographical reasons, since those working in fairly isolated places may not have much choice about where to go for lunch, whereas for those working in an urban location eating out is a very viable option.

Australians seemed far less likely to spend much time discussing work problems with several peer members of their group at work: 77% said they would generally spend less than one hour each day in such consultation, in comparison with 67% of Singaporeans or Malaysians. Not many of either nation would spend more than three hours daily in such discussions (10% of Australians and 16% of Singaporeans and Malaysians).

It seems that respondents felt that Malaysian and Singaporean superiors would be slightly more patient with a regularly tardy employee: 48% of Australians felt their superior would react to regular lateness of between 5 and 15 minutes, whereas the peak time for Singaporeans and Malaysians (53%) was between 15 and 30 minutes or more, with 27% saying their superior would not react at all. Perhaps

this measure shows greater patience, or perhaps a different orientation towards time (Hall, 1959): without further exploration it would be presumptious to decide which is the more appropriate explanation.

the most distinguishing behaviours between the national groups on the basis of the analysis of z-scores, contingency table, correspondence and discriminant analyses.

item description	z-scores	conting.	corresp.	discrim.
personal differences discussed with group in person's absence	*		*	*
values suggestions/opinions				*
familiar work actions affected by formal rules				*
familiar work actions affected by superior		*	*	*
familiar work actions affected by national beliefs about right	**	*	*	*
unfamiliar work actions affected by unwritten rules	**	*	*	*
unfamiliar actions affected by national beliefs about right	**	*	*	*
time on career and work plans	*	*	*	*
communication with peer workgroups			*	*
attitude to regular tardiness		*	*	
superior's dress compared to group	*	*		
superior's lunchplace		*	*	*
proportion of day in sight of superior		*		*
superior's hours cf group			*	
superior' hours cf official	*	*	*	
mode of address to superior	**	*	*	*
superior's information shared	*	*		
time discussing group work		*	*	

The correspondence and discriminant analyses also elicited the individual behaviours which distinguished most clearly between the respondents of the different nations, and in addition found that the first general factor and the second "common specific factor" were also amongst the behaviours which distinguished most clearly between Australians and Singaporeans and Malaysians.

Hence, in attempting to show to what extent organizational leadership behaviours are viewed differently by employees in different national cultures, it has been shown in several different ways that there are a number of behaviours which differentiate quite clearly between members of the different national cultural groups observed. A summary of the distinguishing behaviours found by the later analytical methods is shown in the table above.

5.8 Conclusion

Of the 53 'specific' items, 15 were found to constitute 2 factors which were common across the two national groups, and to bear strong resemblance to the two general factors already examined. These were labelled common specific factors, and were hereafter regarded together with the general factors. The other specific factors extracted by separate national principal components analyses revealed little similarity. Thus the conclusion regarding hypothesis two, that the factor structure of specific measures of leadership behaviour would vary between national cultures is partially supported by this data.

The 38 items constituting the truly specific items were further tested to determine whether there were distinct differences or not, and whether the differences which did exist could be accounted for by different national culture. It has been shown by a series of different analytical methods that many behaviours do not differentiate between employees in Australia and those in Singapore and Malaysia, but there are a consistent group of individual behaviours which do discriminate between the groups, and that this discrimination is on the basis of national culture. This makes the conclusions respecting hypotheses two and three both somewhat qualified.

Hypothesis 2. The factor structure of specific measures will vary between national cultures.

There is some support and some refutation of this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3. Specific measures will show different relations to general measures across national cultures, and the pattern of these differences will be explainable in terms of the leadership values espoused within each national culture.

Again, there is mixed support for this hypothesis: Many of the specific measures did not show different relations in the two national cultures under observation, but the differences which were apparent were strongly supported, and attributable to national cultural differences.

Hypothesis 4. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers' perceptions of leadership style will align with the two-factor PM concept.

This hypothesis gained unqualified support for the general measures of organizational leadership behaviour, but only some of the 'specific' measures could be confidently classified as aligning with the PM concept: hence this hypothesis is partially supported.

Hypothesis 5. Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employees will have specific perceptions of leader behaviour which will be similar within their own national culture, but will differ from those in other national cultures.

This hypothesis is only partially supported, since many of what had been supposed to be behaviours which would be interpreted in different ways by the employees of different national cultural situations were, in fact, seen in very similar ways. However, the relatively small group of behaviours which were interpreted differently by Australians and Singaporean/Malaysians formed cohesive patterns within each national culture, so, to that extent, this hypothesis is supported.

Some significant differences between the countries used in the present project and those in the Smith *et al* (1989) study could have contributed to the rather less-than-anticipated distinctions between Australia and Singapore/Malaysia on the specific measures of organizational leadership behaviour. Only two countries were used (since Singapore and Malaysia were regarded as one in order to balance the sample

size), whereas the former study compared four countries. In addition, the countries used had at least two important similarities which would affect the results of a project such as this. Firstly, the management pattern in both countries would be similar, with both depending largely upon US management principles. This would help to orient naturally diverse views about organizational leadership in the same way, at least to some extent. Secondly, both Singapore/Malaysia and Australia have a common British heritage, in that both countries are British colonies; this would, while not obliterating national cultural distinctions, nevertheless mean that the countries had much in common, and certainly have a profound effect upon organizational culture, managerial behaviour and employee expectations as regards organizational leadership.

It has been a great pity, in this project, to lose the opportunity of observing differences between Singapore and Malaysia, but to have to treat them as one because of the relatively poor return rate of the questionnaires. It would be advantageous to rerun the analysis on a future occasion using a greater number of countries, preferably with very different heritages, and with a larger sample size within each country.

Chapter Six

Presentation of Results and Interpretation of Personal and National Cultural Values

Chapter 6 Presentation of results and interpretation of personal and national cultural values

6.1 Overview

In the previous two chapters the results of analyses on the sections of the questionnaire which followed the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study were described and interpreted. This chapter focusses on the section of the questionnaire dealing with national and personal values, and integrates these results into the project. In particular the last of the hypotheses specific to this study, which focusses attention on the national cultural values of respondents, will be addressed.

Hypothesis 6 states:

> The personal value system of individuals will influence/have a bearing on their views of organizational leadership. In particular, a personal value system, as measured by the two values tests used, will show a measurable amendment in perceptions of organizational leadership.

As described in chapter 3, the values section consisted of two parts. The first was an eighteen-question section seeking the respondents' views on the cultural values held dear in their own country. This was taken from Hawkins, Best and Coney's (1989) three aspects of cultural values. The second was the 'List of Values', a set of nine items concerning individual personal values of the respondents (Kahle,

Beatty and Homer, 1986). These two sections were initially considered separately, and combined for later tests.

6.2 National cultural demographic information on respondents

Before detailing the results of the analyses performed on national and personal values, the relevant demographics section of the questionnaire is described, to give a picture of the national background of the respondents.

When considering the influence of national culture upon the perceptions of respondents it is necessary to gain as full a picture as possible of the national cultures actually involved in the study. Merely asking the nationality of each respondent would have been insufficient here, as also would making the assumption that the nation in which respondents were employed was identical with their nationality. Australia, for instance, is claimed by most to be a multicultural nation, but recourse to statistics is necessary to determine whether, and to what extent, that claim is true, and to gain an accurate understanding of the variety of national origins which are woven together to constitute the tapestry of Australian national culture. It is claimed (James, 1991) that, of all nations in the world, only Israel has a more varied workforce as far as national origins are concerned. A study of the demographic statistics from the Australian Bureau of Statistics shown (page 12) in chapter one and recent findings from a survey conducted by the Australian Council of Trades and Industry (ACTU) showed that 40% of all Australian employees were born in other countries or have parents born in other countries (James, 1991).

To try to gain a fuller picture, several questions about the national identity of respondents were asked. These included the national birthplace of the respondents and of their parents. The reason behind this was not mere curiosity, but the recognition of the importance of family background in establishing national cultural values: an Australian reared in a Maltese home will probably have many different cultural values from those of an Australian raised in a New Zealand home, for instance. This is important in the study of intercultural organizational relationships, since the national culture of individuals has a profound effect on their whole way of thinking (Maruyama, 1985), their motivation for behaviour (Ali, 1991) and their way of perceiving others.

Respondents were also asked what nationality they claimed for themselves. The objective of this question was to see if there was any distinction between the country in which respondents were living and working, and the national cultural values with which they identified themselves.

6.2.1 National birthplaces of respondents and their parents

The respondents living and working in Australia had sixteen different nationalities according to birthplace, out of which three nations, Australia, New Zealand and Great Britain made up 91%: those born in Australia itself numbered 72%. The Malaysian/ Singaporean group of respondents were almost exclusively born and raised in the country in which they now work: 99% were born in Malaysia and Singapore. Parental background showed a much more diverse picture, with mothers of Australian respondents originating in 23 countries and

fathers in 24. More than half of the Australians sampled had parents also born in Australia (59% of mothers and 57% of fathers). In spite of the limited sample, this figure is in accord with the previousluy cited ACTU findings of 40% of the workforce either born, or with parents born, overseas.

The most common parental birthplaces other than Australia were Great Britain, New Zealand and Italy. Some British respondents designated their parents' origins as being from individual countries within Great Britain, but they have been collected together: 22% of mothers and 24% of fathers were British by birth. New Zealand was the birthplace of 4% of mothers and 3% of fathers, and Italy produced 2% of both mothers and fathers.

birthplaces of Australian respondents and their parents (%)

country of birth	respondent	mother	father
Australia	72.1	59.3	56.6
New Zealand	5.5	3.8	3.3
Great Britain	14.7	21.9	23.5
Italy	1.1	2.2	2.2
Holland	0.55	1.1	1.65
Greece		1.1	1.1
Yugoslavia	1.1	1.1	1.1
Latvia			0.55
Poland	0.55	1.1	1.65
Gibraltar		0.55	0.55
Germany		1.1	
Malta	0.55	1.65	1.65
USA	0.55	0.55	0.55
Canada		0.55	0.55
China		0.55	1.1
Malaysia	1.65	1.1	1.1
India		0.55	0.55
Sri Lanka	0.55	0.55	0.55
Jordan	0.55	0.55	0.55
Egypt		0.55	0.55
South Africa	0.55		0.55

The other countries, from each of whom 2% or less of parents originated, were Holland, Greece, Yugoslavia, Latvia, Poland, Gibraltar, Germany, Malta, USA, Canada, China, India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Jordan, Egypt and South Africa. Thus, even within our limited sample, the scope of national cultural background can be seen to be extremely wide in a sample of Australian employees.

Singaporean and Malaysian respondents were almost entirely born in Singapore or Malaysia (99%). Their parents, although born in a wider variety of countries than the respondents themselves, originated from considerably fewer nations than did Australian parents: mothers had seven different countries of origin and fathers six. Singapore-born mothers and fathers made up 46% and 35% respectively of the parents, while those born in Malaysia were 39% and 38%. China was the birthplace of 11% of mothers and 23% of fathers: 3% of fathers and 2% of mothers were of Indian origin. The other nations, from each of whom less than 1% of parents originated, were Australia, Sri Lanka and Hong Kong.

birthplaces of Singaporean/Malaysian respondents and their parents (%)

country of birth	respondent	mother	father
Singapore	56.3	45.5	34.8
Malaysia	42.9	39.3	37.5
China		10.7	23.2
India		1.8	2.7
Sri Lanka		0.9	0.9
Hong Kong		0.9	
Australia	0.9	0.9	0.9

6.2.2 Perceived nationality of respondents

Respondents were also asked what nationality they perceived themselves to be. As mentioned previously, this was asked to reveal any important national cultural influences upon an individual respondent which might otherwise escape notice. Indeed, this question provided some interesting results and showed a potentially fascinating source of further investigation of cultural allegiances among people of immigrant background. However, a much larger data base than was currently available would be needed to gain a true grasp of the situation. Responses are shown in the following table.

self-perception of nationality

perceived nationality	Australian	Singaporean/ Malaysian
Singapore		41.1
Singapore Chinese		15.2
Singapore Indian		1.8
Malaysia	0.6	9.8
Malaysian Chinese		14.3
Malaysian Malay		14.3
Malaysian Indian		2.7
Australia	89.0	0.9
New Zealand	3.8	
Great Britain	3.8	
Greece	0.6	
Yugoslavia	0.6	
Poland	0.6	
Malta	1.1	

The most interesting feature of this result is the delineation by so many Singaporean and Malaysian respondents of their racial as well as national origins, even though 99% of them were born where they now live and work. Considering the Singapore residents, 17% described themselves in racial terms and for Malaysians this percentage was 31%. Such delineation was absent from the Australian sample.

6.3 Factor analysis of national values

The national values section of the questionnaire consisted of eighteen items shown as continua, respondents being asked to indicate the value orientation of their nation by circling one of seven points along each continuum between two descriptors considered to be extremes with relation to that value. An example of the items was included to clarify the given explanation (see appendix 3). The mean scores obtained for this set of the respondents' views of their nation's espoused values are shown below.

mean scores* for national values

national values' continua	whole sample	Australia	Singapore/ Malaysia
individual - collective	3.90	3.67	4.28
tradition - change	4.22	4.13	4.36
humour - seriousness	3.82	3.39	4.51
youth - age	3.50	3.48	3.50
maximum - minimum cleanliness	2.77	3.04	2.33
problem solving - fatalistic	3.29	3.72	2.58
masculine - feminine	3.22	3.23	3.19
postponed-immediate gratification	4.05	4.15	3.88
admire - overcome nature	3.56	3.48	3.69
competition - cooperation	3.20	3.06	3.39
risk taking - security	4.36	4.37	4.34
sensual gratification - abstinence	3.53	3.27	3.95
hard work - leisure	3.77	4.58	2.48
romantic - unromantic	4.26	4.40	4.05
material - nonmaterial	2.63	2.67	2.55
adult - child	3.31	3.34	3.25
performance - status	4.21	4.63	3.52
active - passive	3.32	3.67	2.75

mean scores* are on a 1-7 scale, where 1=exclusive preference for extreme left value, 7=exclusive preference for extreme right value, and shared preference is expressed by placement somewhere between the extremes.

The example of how respondents were to signal their nation's values used in the questionnaire was:

youth 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 age

(here) is a list of common values which might influence people around you. Indicate on the 7 point scale where you believe your country is positioned in terms of these values. eg if you believe your country has an orientation towards young people you would circle 1 or 2 on the youth-age scale: if you believe your country is oriented towards old people you would circle 6 or 7.

The national values measures were analyzed using a principal components analysis to determine if they could be "reduced to a smaller number of summary variables based on the pattern of statistical similarity among the original variables" (Weller and Romney, 1990:26). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.69, a fair indication that a factor analysis was appropriate. The analysis showed six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 which jointly explained 59% of the variance in the data. The six factors were given names appropriate to the measures they contained, and these, together with a representative item from each factor, are detailed below.

principal components of the whole sample of national values

factor description	statements	sample statement	loading
work ethic	5	hard work - leisure	0.77
entrepreneurship	3	risk - security	0.77
hedonism	3	postponed/immediate gratification	0.79
materialism	2	material - nonmaterial	0.78
aestheticism	3	romantic - unromantic	0.74
community	2	tradition - change	0.88

One item (where the country's values would be placed along a youth/age continuum) had a low (0.22) communality, showing it did not identify well with any of the six factors; its highest factor loading (0.35 on factor 2) confirmed this, and indicated that this item could be considered independent of the factor structure.

When the principal components analysis was conducted on the separate national subgroups, 6 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were also found. KMO measures of sampling adequacy were 0.66 for Australia and 0.63 for Singapore/Malaysia, and the 6 factors explained 61% and 63% respectively of the variance in the data. Other than a close similarity in factor one across the whole and two subsamples, few other likenesses existed between the factor structures for the two national samples.

A reliability test on the factors for the whole and two national subsamples showed only one factor with Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient greater than 0.5 for the full sample, while the two national groups each had three reliable factors. Hence it was decided to rerun the analysis, limiting the principal components to three. As a digression, it was of interest to see how closely the current data would align with the theoretical model from which it was taken. In its original form (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1989) this set of country values was regarded as consisting of three discrete groups of national values: other-oriented, environment-oriented and self-oriented values (see Appendix 7). However, the factors obtained in this analysis were not identical with Hawkins, Best and Coney's grouping, and only two

factors proved reliable, which indicated that the suggested subdivisions were not applicable to this particular data set.

The applicability of Hawkins, Best and Coney's three-factor grouping was tested for this data using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients. As can be seen from the table below, all three factors did not prove reliable for either the full sample or the separate national groups: the national groups each had two fairly reliable factors, but the only consistent one amongst all groups was the factor concerning environmentally-oriented values. This, apart from suggesting that the national groups considered do, indeed, have differing values according to their national culture, also indicates that the groupings suggested by Hawkins, Best and Coney are by no means universal.

alpha reliability coefficients of the three-factor solution on national values

factor descriptions	whole sample	Australia	Singapore/ Malaysia
other - oriented values	0.433	0.380	0.509
environment-oriented values	0.592	0.598	0.555
self-oriented values	0.376	0.556	0.319

The Everett-Entrekin factor comparability test was conducted on the whole sample to determine the number of factors remaining stable when split-half subgroups or national subgroups were compared. It will be remembered that, for this interpretation of the Everett-Entrekin test to be valid, a ratio of 1:5 is needed between the numbers of items and responses in each of the 'split-halves': in this case, with 18 items

and the smallest 'split-half' (the Singapore/Malaysian subsample) of 102 responses, this interpretation can be justified.

Results of this test showed that there were really only two factors stable across subgroups, and that eight items had low (less than 0.3) communalities with respect to these factors. These items were henceforth regarded as independent of the factor structure. Another item was also regarded as independent, because it formed a single item factor (factor 3) and did not load well onto either of the other factors: this was the item 'admire - overcome nature'.

When a command to ignore the items with low communalites was programmed, two clear factors emerged, which were labelled "work ethic" and "interaction with others". However, as can be seen from the factor comparabilities, the correlation coefficient obtained for factor two was low when comparing the two national subgroups, which suggests that the two nations agree less well over factor two than over factor one. All other split-half correlations were greater than 0.9.

factor description	eigenvalue	factor comparability random	Aus/SM	statements
1 work ethic	3.39	0.966	0.967	5
2 interaction with others	2.30	0.931	0.590	4

The factors, loadings, reliabilities, mean scores and percentage variance explained for the items which belong in the two factors "work ethic" and "interaction with others" are shown in the table below.

principal components analysis of national values

constituent items	factor loadings					
	factor 1			factor 2		
	full	Aus	S/M	full	Aus	S/M
active - passive	0.783	0.717	0.692			
problem solving-fatalist	0.781	0.742	0.730			
hard work - leisure	0.745	0.742	0.730			
performance - status	0.730	0.738	0.515			
max-min cleanliness	0.644	0.543	0.694			
humour - serious		0.374		0.634	0.602	0.594
gratification-abstinence				0.628	0.600	0.594
competition-cooperation			0.345	0.615	0.596	0.181
individual - collective				0.565	0.288	0.526
eigenvalue	3.39	3.62	3.27	2.30	2.22	2.26
reliability coefficient	0.81	0.77	0.77	0.58	0.54	0.53
percentage of variance	18.8	20.1	18.2	12.8	12.3	12.6
mean score*	3.47	3.93	2.73	3.61	3.35	4.03

*mean score on a 1-7 continuum, where 1 prefers the left value exclusively, 7 prefers the right value exclusively, and joint preference can be judged by placement between the extremes.

The factor "work ethic" consisted of 5 items which could be seen to relate to each other on the basis of the value placed by people within the nation on maximum or minimum cleanliness, on whether one's countrymen were more likely to be problem-solving or fatalistic, prefer

hard work or leisure, performance or status, and being active or passive in their attitudes to life.

The second factor "interaction with others" consisted of four items about relationships of people within the community: to what extent they were likely to be individualistic or collectivist, humorous or serious, competitive or cooperative, and the degree to which they were oriented towards sensual gratification or abstinence. Since such a large proportion of the items proved to be independent of the factor structure, the variance in the data collectively explained by these two factors is only relatively small (32.4% for Australia and 30.8% for Singapore/Malaysia), but the factors proved reliable when tested using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for both the full and separate country samples.

It is noticeable that factor one is very strong and consistent across the two nations, while factor two is less consistent, with 'individual-collective' in the Australian sample loading only marginally onto factor two and 'competition-cooperation' in the Singaporean/Malaysian sample loading not highly on either factor, but more strongly onto factor one. These individualities point out the likelihood that these values are interpreted differently by respondents of differing backgrounds. It appears that Australians view 'competition-cooperation' as a feature of interpersonal relationships while Singaporeans and Malaysians see it as relating to their work ethic. It is fascinating that the 'individual - collective' measure has such a low factor loading for the Australian sample, when individualism is such a

strong feature of the Australian way of life. In fact, Australia ranks as the second most 'individualistic' nation amongst the fifty researched by Hofstede (1980). This measure, however, had a very low communality (0.086) for the Australian sample, suggesting that, in Australia at any rate, this measure stands alone, rather than being placeable within a group of other measures.

6.4 Factor analysis of personal values

The set of items constituting the individual personal values (the List of Values) measures was first used in a 1976 study in the USA, when respondents were asked to choose their first and second most important values from the list of nine items (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986). Since then it has proved most useful, partly because its brevity makes it easily memorable, and partly because the values it seeks to measure are related to practical life issues (Kahle and Kennedy, 1988). The mean scores* for this scale's items are shown below.

LOV personal value statement	whole sample	Australia	Singapore/ Malaysia
a sense of belonging	1.90	1.96	1.80
an exciting life	2.58	2.65	2.45
fun and enjoyment	2.14	2.08	2.22
warm relationships	1.99	2.05	1.89
being self-fulfilled	1.77	1.80	1.71
being well-respected	1.98	1.98	1.98
sense of accomplishment	1.71	1.79	1.57
security	1.90	1.96	1.78
gaining self-respect	1.75	1.73	1.76

*mean score on a 1 - 5 scale, where 1 = extremely important and 5 = not at all important.

A principal components analysis on the full sample showed that the List of Values (LOV) measures could be explained by two underlying dimensions, which jointly explained 53% of the variance in the data. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.8, showing the suitability of factor analysis for this data. A reliability test showed both factors to be reliable, with Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of 0.75 and 0.71. The factors were labelled "intrinsic values" and "extrinsic values" to accommodate the conceptual grouping of the measures within them. Factor one grouped together the sense of belonging, being well-respected, having a sense of accomplishment, having security in life and gaining self-respect, while factor two grouped having warm relationships, being self-fulfilled, having fun and enjoyment in life and having an exciting life: (it should be noted that some research projects have chosen to combine these last two items (Kahle and Kennedy, 1988), but it was decided to adhere to the original items for this analysis).

The Everett-Entrekin factor comparability test confirmed the existence of two strong, stable factors with high comparability coefficients across both random split-halves and the national half-samples.

factor description	eigenvalue	factor comparability random	Aus/SM	statements
1 intrinsic values	3.54	0.999	0.999	5
2 extrinsic values	1.26	0.916	0.725	4

The weakest correlation coefficient was between the national samples on factor 2, confirming the observation that this factor was not as well-matched as factor one across the national groups.

Separate analyses on the two national samples revealed a similar, but not identical, picture. Both nations had two distinct factors, jointly explaining 54% (Australia) and 56% (Singapore/Malaysia) of the variance in the data.

principal components analysis of personal values

constituent items	factor loadings					
	factor 1			factor 2		
	full	Aus	S/M	full	Aus	S/M
security	0.78	0.82	0.67			
well-respected	0.74	0.69	0.77		0.33	
self-respect	0.69	0.71	0.63			0.32
belonging	0.64	0.72	0.50			
accomplishment	0.51	0.30	0.73	0.34	0.53	
fun/enjoyment				0.84	0.75	0.90
exciting life				0.81	0.79	0.86
warm relationships	0.38		0.53	0.57	0.59	0.48
fulfilment	0.45		0.69	0.49	0.69	0.13
eigenvalue	3.54	3.46	3.68	1.26	1.38	1.32
reliability coefficient	0.75	0.75	0.74	0.71	0.71	0.71
percentage of variance	39.3	38.5	40.9	14.0	15.4	14.6
mean score*	1.85	1.88	1.78	2.12	2.15	2.07

*mean score on a 1-5 scale, where 1 = extremely important and 5 = not at all important

The table above shows the factors, their loadings, including relevant (and/or over 0.3) joint loadings, eigenvalues, reliabilities, mean scores* and percentage of variance explained. Australia had four items in the 'intrinsic values' section and five in the 'extrinsic values', though joint loadings could allow for the inclusion of 'well-respected' into the 'extrinsic values' factor, and 'accomplishment' could just be counted into the 'intrinsic values' section for the sake of consistency.

The Singaporean/Malaysian sample had seven items in factor one and two in factor two. Here again it would be possible, for the sake of consistency, to include one item (warm relationships) in the other factor based on joint loadings, since the item had a factor loading of 0.53 on factor 1 and 0.48 on factor 2. The item 'self-respect' also had acceptable shared loadings between the two factors. However, the item 'fulfilment' was very definitely aligned with factor one.

A reliability test conducted on the original groupings showed that the removal of 'accomplishment' from the Australian factor 1 improved the reliability, but only from 0.75 to 0.76: similarly the removal of 'fulfilment' from factor 2 in the Singaporean/Malaysian grouping improved the reliability of this factor from 0.71 to 0.74. However, even with the low loading items the factors were shown to be very reliable, so it was decided to retain the 5:4 split for the sake of consistency.

6.5 Integration of results

The remaining analyses aimed to integrate the findings of previous tests and determine the connections, if any, between the national and personal values held by the respondents and their perceptions of the behaviours of their organizational leaders.

6.5.1 Cluster analysis on general and common specific factors

The two general behaviours factors and the two common specific factors identified in the earlier part of the analysis were used as the basis of a cluster analysis (Howard and Harris, 1966), in which summated scores for each respondent were computed and clustered. The purpose of the clustering program is to sort respondents into a number of clusters in such a way that the within-group variance is minimized (Savery and Soutar, 1990). Milligan and Mahajan (1980) suggested that the point biserial correlation coefficient is a useful way to determine the best number of clusters. This method was used in this case, varying the number of clusters was varied from two to six to show which would be most appropriate. The point biserial correlation, used as a criterion of fit, was at a maximum (0.5) for two clusters, showing that this was the best solution for this data. The mean scores of the two groups on the four summated scales are shown in the table below.

mean scores from cluster analysis

group	caring	getting the job done	communication and work collaboration	help and suggestions
1	2.18	2.50	3.45	2.34
2	3.00	3.28	4.78	3.28

From this clustering process it is possible to gain a picture of some of the distinguishing marks of the members of these two clusters. The two groups were unequal in size, with the first group comprising 59.4% of the sample and the second 40.6%. For each of the four factors used in the clustering process, Group 1 has a more strongly positive response than has Group 2, though for none of the factors is the difference between the responses greater than 1.33 which, considering that most items were measured on a five-point scale, is not a large difference. The two groups differ by about 0.8 on the two general factors, and by a slightly larger margin on the two "common specific" factors.

Group 1 respondents, considering general factor 1 ("caring"), viewed their superiors as 'usually' exhibiting behaviours concerned with support, trust, recognition, fairness, concern for employees' problems and future careers, respect for their opinions, and attempts to improve their working situation. Behaviours concerned with work plans, setting work goals, resources, regulations and giving orders (general factor 2, "getting the job done") were perceived as occurring midway between 'usually' and 'sometimes'. "Communication and work collaboration" behaviours such as checking work quality, discussing work progress, explaining new work, instructing on job skills and demonstrating resources were observed as happening in Group 1 superiors midway between 'every few months' and 'yearly'. Behaviours concerned with positive attitudes to personal problems, openness to suggestions and help from employees, focussing on the problem rather than the person

in situations of inadequate work (the "help and suggestions" factor) occurred between 'usually' and 'sometimes', but closer to 'usually'.

It appears that the respondents in Group 1 perceive their superiors to be habitually engaged in consultative, supportive, participative behaviours, and to show concern for and interest in their employees, whether in the current job-related situation, their future career or more personal issues. Their superiors are not, in their view, overly "bossy", showing behaviours designed to instruct, regulate, monitor and improve the work efforts and capabilities of their employees far less often than the more people-related behaviours of the other two factors. The impression is given that the group of superiors described by Group 1 members regard their employees more as colleagues than as subordinates, or perhaps feel that a better working environment and greater effectiveness are brought about through greater levels of interaction, trust and collaboration than through the more distant and authoritarian approach.

Group 2 respondents viewed their superiors as 'sometimes' exhibiting "caring" behaviours (support, trust, recognition, fairness, concern for employees' problems and future careers, respect for their opinions, and attempts to improve their working situation). These superiors demonstrated the "help and suggestions" factor behaviours (positive attitudes to personal problems, openness to suggestions and help from employees, focus on the problem rather than the person in situations of inadequate work) between 'sometimes' and 'rarely', but closer to 'sometimes'. Thus the 'people-related' behaviours of the superiors

discussed by this group of respondents was not viewed as being so strong as in those discussed by Group 1 respondents. In respect of "getting the job done" (general factor 2), Group 2 respondents saw their superiors as between 'sometimes' and 'rarely' exhibiting behaviours concerned with work plans, setting work goals, resources, regulations and giving orders, with a leaning towards 'sometimes'. They showed "communication and work collaboration" behaviours, such as checking work quality, discussing work progress, explaining new work, instructing on job skills and demonstrating resources, very rarely indeed, between 'every few months' and 'yearly' or 'never'. (These latter two descriptors, it will be remembered, were considered together in order to reduce the seven-point scale to a five-point scale for easier comparison). If the superiors described by Group 1 respondents could be seen as not very strong in the 'work-related' behaviours of organizational leadership then those discussed by the Group 2 respondents appear almost 'laissez-faire' in their approach to the work accomplished by their subordinates.

6.5.2. Discriminant analysis

A discriminant analysis was conducted on the two groups identified by the cluster analysis and the two national and two personal values factors. The purpose of this analysis was to show any relationship existing between the subordinate perceptions of organizational leadership shown in the behavioural factors and the national and personal value orientations of the respondents by giving a profile of the groups to see how they are similar and how they differ. It was conducted using the group membership as the dependent variables, and the national and personal values factors as explanatory variables.

No discriminant functions were found to be significant at the one percent level. This suggests that the national and personal values espoused by the respondents are not able to help to distinguish between the members of the two groups identified by the cluster analysis.

The discriminant analysis was rerun, including some of the more important demographic items in addition to the values factors. The items used were the age, gender and national birthplace of the respondents. The national birthplaces were so varied, taking the sample as a whole, that they were recoded so that respondents born in Australia, New Zealand and Great Britain formed one group, and Singaporean and Malaysian-born respondents formed the second group. Again there were no functions found to discriminate between groups at the one percent level. The eigenvalues were very low indeed, and the Peterson and Mahajan's I^2 statistic showed that only 4% of the variance in the dependent variables was explained by the set of independent variables (Peterson and Mahajan, 1976). The only significantly differentiating feature between the two groups was their nationality. Thus hypothesis six is not sustained by this data.

6.6 Interpretation and Discussion

This chapter conveys the results of the section of the project which differed from the study of Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989). Its concern was to examine the influence of the national culture of respondents on their views of the organizational behaviours about which they had been asked, and in particular upon their perceptions of organizational

leadership which they might be expected to reveal in discussing their immediate superior throughout the questionnaire.

As can be seen from the results of questions asked about the national background of respondents and their parents, neither Australia nor Singapore/Malaysia contains a single national culture, but each consists of a mix of national groups. This will obviously make a coherent picture of the national cultural features of either country difficult to obtain, since there is such a variety of influences at work in each of the countries studied. Singapore and Malaysia, for instance, have widely differing economic, historical, political and social environments, which will all have a distinct bearing upon their national cultures, even though the mix of nations represented in the countries and their geographical locations are very similar. The treating of these two countries together in this project, although a pragmatic necessity due to the small number of returns from each, is regrettable from the viewpoint of being able to gain a slant on possible distinctions in national cultural beliefs, values and perceptions.

Australia can be seen, from the demographic tables at the beginning of the chapter, to have a considerably more diverse population as far as the national origins of its residents is concerned than Singapore and Malaysia. Twenty-four different nationalities were represented amongst the parents of the Australian employees who responded to the questionnaire, and it is unlikely that this exhausts all nations represented within Australia. Hence the crystallization of a definitively Australian 'national culture' can be seen to be difficult, if not

impossible, to achieve. One generalization which can, perhaps, be made with some confidence, is that the populations of both Singapore and Malaysia are much more homogeneous than is that of Australia. One might suppose there to be, therefore, a greater level of consistency of beliefs and values within either of those countries than would be found in Australia.

The results of the section of the questionnaire dealing with the individual respondents' perceptions of their own nation's value orientations was most interesting. It was recognized earlier that this section may well have proved the most difficult in the questionnaire for respondents to answer: certainly the relatively large number of blank responses (34 out of the total of 298 responses) suggested this, although it may also be that respondents felt themselves unqualified to represent the views of the entire nation, and so chose not to commit themselves to a particular opinion. It is also open to conjecture whether respondents to this group of questions were actually revealing what they consider to be the views of everyday compatriots, or if they were delineating their perception of the national stereotypes.

The continua showing the greatest distinction in the respondents' views of espoused nation values are shown in the table below.

humour - seriousness	Singapore/Malaysia 1.12 further towards serious
problem-solving - fatalistic	Australia 1.14 further towards fatalistic
hard work - leisure	Australia 2.1 further towards leisure
performance - status	Australia 1.11 further towards status

It was surprising that the differences were so small, since possible responses covered a 7-point scale: the range of differences was between 0.02 and 2.10, with ten of the eighteen national values showing a difference of less than 0.5.

Interpreting these most distinct mean score differences in a very general way (since the very use of a mean score implies a generalized position for the whole group of respondents) suggests that Singaporeans and Malaysians tend to consider life more seriously than do Australians. Thus the stereotypical pictures of Australians as rather 'laid-back' and casual about important things was confirmed by the respondents. In the current economic climate of massive unemployment, it would seem inappropriate that Australians should have a casual outlook on life, but perhaps the criterion is less suggestive of this than of the legendary humour and optimism associated with the Australian character. Surprisingly, Australians were further along the scale towards fatalism rather than problem-solving; this suggests that the "she'll be right, mate!" attitude is truly representative of a national Australian characteristic and can be interpreted as evidencing a somewhat fatalistic outlook in addition to the more usually attributed meaning of being optimistic and cheerful.

The most considerable difference in position along these continua came in the case of hard work or leisure, and here Malaysians and Singaporeans showed a far greater value for hard work, whilst Australians highly valued leisure. This agrees strongly with the popular view that Australians guard their leisure time jealously and

"live for the weekends". Related to this value, perhaps, is the higher value placed on performance rather than status by Singaporeans and Malaysians over Australians; it certainly seems to agree with the strong valuation of hard work shown in the previous continuum, yet appears to conflict with the Australian disregard for status.

The principal components analysis of these national values found nine of the eighteen values to be independent of the two stable, reliable factors determined. These nine independent items are shown below.

tradition	change
youth	age
masculine	feminine
postponed	immediate gratification
admire	overcome nature
risk taking	security
romantic	unromantic
material	nonmaterial
adult	child

These were the items whose mean scores for the separate nations showed the least distinction, with the largest difference in position on the seven-point scale being 0.35 for romantic - unromantic. Though it is surprising that some of these differences are so miniscule, it is a salutary illustration that national stereotypes are representative of only some of the inhabitants of a nation, and not all. A very clear example of this is the 'tradition - change' item, for which the mean difference between the two national groups was a mere 0.23. The assumption, based on national stereotypes, is that all South-East Asians are very traditional in their outlook; yet this is in conflict with the burgeoning

economic progress currently being experienced in Singapore, Malaysia and China. Australia, on the other hand, which is not generally considered very 'traditional' in outlook, includes people from many countries who have embraced 'change' in moving from their home country, but often cling to 'traditional' values and habits in order to feel at home in their new one. Perhaps a striking example of this is in the current "republican" debate, in which a strong force of 'progressives' wishes to sever Australia from her 'traditional' British roots, but with more than expected opposition.

Only half the list of eighteen items used in this project fitted into a factor structure, and two more items were only marginally present within the factors for one or other of the nations surveyed. The item 'competition-cooperation' was within the "interaction with others" factor for the Australian sample, showing that for Australians this characteristic is a feature of their everyday life and relationships. For the Singaporean/Malaysian sample, on the other hand, the loading onto this factor was very small indeed, indicating that it rarely features in everyday relationships: however, it had a larger loading on the "work ethic" factor, suggesting that it plays a more considerable role for Singaporean/Malaysians within their work life.

The item 'individual-collective' was a feature of "interaction with others" for both country groups, but its loading for the Australian sample was small enough, as mentioned earlier, to suggest that perhaps it should be considered independent of the factor structure. Hofstede's (1980) ranking of Australia as the second most individualistic nation in

the world would indicate the importance of this characteristic within the makeup of the Australian, and its ambiguous situation in the results of this test would underline this. Its placement within the "interaction with others" factor shows it as an intrinsic part of everyday relationships in Australian life, yet its small factor loading to some extent holds it back from full integration with the factor, and indicates that individualism also has a life and identity of its own, not to be confused with other characteristics.

It is difficult to arrive at the true assessment of a person's strength of commitment to a personal value statement. Rokeach (1973) noted that respondents rank their extreme values more reliably than their intermediate ones - his Rokeach Value Survey asked respondents to rank 18 instrumental and 18 terminal values, and the items at the extremes of the ranking process were seen to be more true to what they really felt than the intermediate ones (he noted that people found difficulty in ranking 18 items). Beatty *et al* (1985) agreed that people are probably more certain of their extreme values, and may have not given much thought to some of the items about which they were being asked. The personal values items used in this project (the LOV scale) were derived from those of Rokeach, and avoided, by their brevity, the confusion and lack of differentiation caused by a long list. Respondents were also asked to show how important each value was to them separately, rather than to rank them. This was in order to make the selection easier. However, this short list of personal values, while covering many important issues, would inevitably omit many values of considerable importance to many individuals, since personal values are

so infinitely varied, and so personally unique. Rokeach (1973) recognized that the much larger number of 18 instrumental and 18 terminal values he used were not comprehensive, that he may have included some which were irrelevant to some respondents, and omitted some which were significant.

Motivational theory suggests that needs which are satisfied no longer act as motivators (Maslow, 1954). It has been suggested that a similar situation occurs with values, in that we no longer 'rate' as valuable that which we no longer lack or have to worry about: for instance wealthy respondents rate a comfortable life and cleanliness low, while those on low incomes rate them high - perhaps they both esteem them equally, but these items are no longer an issue for those who are wealthy and comfortably situated (Clawson and Vinson, 1978:398).

In spite of these limitations, the factor analysis on the personal values items was productive. The factors elicited included all nine items and were strong, although the Everett-Entrekin factor comparability test showed factor two as less stable than factor one. An examination of the factor loadings reveals that 'accomplishment' for the Australian sample had joint loadings, fitting better into the 'extrinsic' than the 'intrinsic' values section, while both 'warm relationships' and 'fulfilment' for the Singaporean/Malaysian sample were more closely related to the 'intrinsic' than the 'extrinsic' factor. This indicates a different view of these values within the nations, and that Australians' values tend to be more predominantly outwardly than inwardly expressed.

Another interesting comparison of factor loadings is between the two nations' views of 'self-respect' and 'well-respected', values which appear closely allied, but have a different slant. 'Self-respect' infers that what the person does should be worthy of respect in his/her own estimation, irrespective of the opinions of others, while 'well-respected' suggests the antithesis: that acts, achievements, behaviours be well-considered by others no matter what the person him/herself feels about them. For the Singaporean/Malaysian sample, well-respected was of greater importance, while for Australians 'self-respect' scored more highly. This tends to underscore individuality as a basic tenet of Australian life.

The cluster analysis on the general and common specific behaviour measures used revealed the presence of two clusters within the data. This shows that in this three-nation sample there are really two distinct groupings, rather than the three we might expect if the nations concerned had entirely distinct patterns of perceptions of behaviours in the organizational situation. Thus grouping on behaviours, in this case, is not synonymous with grouping on nationality. It might be conjectured that, as in the study by Ralston *et al* (1993), some indication of what they call "crossvergence" is evidenced. By this they, in discussing the convergence and divergence approaches, suggest that in situations where two or more cultures work together over a long time, a new and distinct cross-bred form of values can result. All the nations in our study meet the criteria necessary for such a melding of values, so it should not be too surprising if groups which cannot be aligned with the main stream of the expected national cultural values are identified.

Certainly this suggestion seemed to be borne out by the results of the discriminant analysis, which showed that neither the respondents' perception of nationally espoused values nor their own personal values are factors which enable members of the groups in this data set to be distinguished from each other.

Mehta (1972) suggests that their own values always provide the measure for people's understanding and response to circumstances. Many researchers in the marketing area have found personal and cultural values to play a very significant role in the decisions made by consumers (Mehta, 1972; Kahle and Kennedy, 1988; Novak and MacEvoy, 1990; Valette-Florence and Jolibert, 1990; Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986; Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1989). Thus it was perhaps surprising that this important feature of international relations could not be shown to be an important distinguishing feature in the context of organizational behaviours and perceptions for the three nations under discussion here. It lends support to the argument that, within organizations, a large measure of common culture has developed which, at least to some extent, transcends the local cultural environment (Everett, Stening and Longton, 1982) as well as to the crossvergence idea mentioned earlier. It is an important finding in the practice of managing multinational and crossnational companies, since it suggests that, in relationships within the working environment, the personal value set of individuals is not as significant an indicator of perceptions and behavioural judgment as might be expected in the light of evidence that it is very significant indeed in other personal interactions. Perhaps the organization's individual culture is of more

immediate significance when considering the working environment. This finding suggests that there are present, within an organizational setting, other factors which appear to moderate the influence of national and cultural values in forming and maintaining organizational relationships and in measuring the behaviours of superiors.

6.7 Conclusion

Although it is clearly impossible to define a 'typical' Malaysian, Singaporean or Australian, it would appear that there is a certain amount of consistency in the way they respond, but this project has found only a few behavioural measures which truly distinguish between them, as explained in chapter five. The only important measure which distinguished between the members of the groups identified by the cluster analysis was the nationality of the respondents. It did not appear, from the results of the discriminant analysis, that either national or personal values distinguished clearly between the members of the groups. It seems that views of organizational leadership are unlikely to be influenced by differing national or personal cultural values in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia. This would lead to the conclusion that hypothesis 6 is not supported by the results of this project.

Hypothesis 6. The personal value system of individuals will influence/have a bearing on their views of organizational leadership. In particular, a personal value system, as measured by the two values tests

used, will show a measurable amendment in perceptions of organizational leadership.

This chapter, while focussing on the national and personal values section of the questionnaire, has also attempted to draw together the findings as a whole, and determine whether, and to what extent, national culture effects individuals' perceptions of their organizational life, particularly in relation to organizational leadership. It has been shown that, while a national cultural identity is not so concrete that it can be crystallized in a manner entire and separate and distinct from all others, yet it does seem that people of one nation can be seen to tend towards similar views.

Chapter Seven

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter 7 Summary, conclusions and recommendations

7.1 Recapitulation

Study of leadership throughout the century has taken many directions, and only relatively recently focussed on a crosscultural perspective. The reasons for this may be many and varied, including not only the awareness of assumptions of universality, but declining economic supremacy of Europe and North America (Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991). The world, and not only as it relates to the business sphere, is noticeably shrinking, and greater awareness is dawning of the interdependence between all residents of the planet, and their mutual need for intercultural understanding, action and responsibility.

Hofstede, whose work on the impact of national values has had profound effect on research trends in the world of business, has recently broadened his claims for their importance. He strongly emphasised the vital part to be played, not only on prosperity of business and management, but on the future survival of the human race, of growing intercultural understanding and cooperation (Hofstede, 1991). He speaks of the threats to mankind of such things as exploitation of world resources, lack of sharing of wealth and poverty, and unrestrained use of new technology such as nuclear power, some chemical processes and genetic manipulation. He expresses the hope that these common threats to the world as a whole will create an

unprecedented level of global intercultural cooperation (Hofstede, 1991:241).

This project has attempted to examine some aspects of organizational leadership in a crossnational context. The reasons behind the project seem very narrow in the light of Hofstede's universal view, but they are relevant and significant within the sphere of organizational leadership and economic advantage in Australia and South-East Asia. It is no longer enough for countries to be satisfied with their own nations as a workplace or a market: each nation needs to be able to think, recruit, work, buy and sell internationally, and, in order to be able to accomplish these ends effectively, to be able to work successfully and without misunderstanding in multicultural groupings. It has already been pointed out that Australia is, in itself, a multicultural nation. The same is also true of Malaysia and Singapore - each of these three nations has about three-quarters of its population from one source, and the rest made up of a multicultural mix.

nation	**percentages of national groups**					
Australia	75.5%	Australian	24.5%	mix of	many nations	
Malaysia	61.9%	Malay	29.5%	Chinese	8.6%	Indian
Singapore	77.7%	Chinese	14.1%	Malay	7.1%	Indian

sources: Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1991; Asia Year Book, 1992.

As was noticed earlier, Australia's population is considerably more heterogeneous than that of either Malaysia or Singapore, but nevertheless each society is composed of three or more distinct subgroups, each of which has values, habits, preferences, traditions,

heroes, symbols and all the other constituent parts of an individual culture. It is not in the best interest of such nations, whether they are desirous of peaceful cooperation domestically, or business success internationally, to assume that each and every person in their nation thinks and acts from the same set of values. There needs to be not only the awareness of distinctives of national culture, but knowledge about them (with at least *'an intellectual grasp of where their values differ from ours'*) and skills to recognize and apply the knowledge gained in order to manage successfully the challenge of successful intercultural relationships (Hofstede, 1991).

For the increasing number of people who spend at least some part of their working life in a country other than their own the challenges of adaptation are enormous, and short orientation courses, while helpful, are insufficient preparation for successful adaptation. Cullen (1981) feels that what is really necessary is an appreciation of the values represented by the cultural manifestations experienced, while Stening (1979) reviewing many studies considering facets of problems in cross-cultural contact concluded that the most significant lack of knowledge lies at the level of interpersonal relationships.

A recent study revealed that 16-40% of US employees working overseas returned home before the expected conclusion of their assignment, and a further 30-50% extended their stay but were ineffective (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991). Tung (1981, cited in Ralston *et al.* 1993) also found that up to 40% of employees on overseas assignments failed, and the failure was not a reflection of inability, but *'because they do not*

understand the cultural differences of the foreign country'. The enormous costs, not only in financial terms, of such undertakings, are sufficient incentive to consider closely reasons for the discomfort and lack of success of this very large number of workers, and to point out that everyone, to a greater or lesser extent, needs to focus on learning how to adapt interculturally at a more effective level. Harvey-Jones (1992) strongly recommends overseas assignments for people early in their working lives, and a commitment to the building of long-term business relationships built on trust, with full understanding and tolerance of individual motives and behaviour. He points out that, although English may be the lingua franca of much of the business world, shared meaning has more to do with national culture than with words spoken.

Australia's close ties, geographically and economically, with the nations of South-East Asia, make successful intercultural relationships vital for future prosperity (Hilmer, 1989; Watson, 1988). This also applies to organizational success within Australia itself (James, 1991) because of the increasingly multicultural nature of the workforce. Research conducted recently by the Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills (1994) showed the expectation that Australian senior managers in the future will need additional skills to fit them for a world quite different from that of the present. The challenges facing business and organizational leaders of the next ten to twenty years were seen as:

- mastering a complex, fast changing and possibly unfamiliar competitive environment;
- managing relationships with Asian customers, suppliers, partners,

owners, colleagues and workforces;

- mastering the new capability-based drivers of competitive success;
- leading an organization of quite different design;
- working well with new sorts of colleagues.

To all these challenges, the importance of increased understanding of intercultural values and international perceptions of organizational leadership are directly relevant. The task force included amongst the requirements in skills, knowledge and experience of future organizational leaders and managers the use of placement early in the career in environments which would be later encountered, including Asian placements, sound general education about Asia, including language and cultural studies, and active development of leadership, teamwork and communication skills. One of the skill areas delineated as important in connection with managing Asian relationships was *'situational skills - an understanding of manners, conversation, conventions, approaches to business and business relationships and a facility to behave appropriately'* which would best be undertaken by studies of relevant history, traditions, religion and culture, practised through time spent in the country (Boston Consulting Group, 1994: 54). The learning of relevant Asian languages was stressed. The report emphasised that the nations of Asia are increasingly important to Australia *'as a context in which senior executives must learn to operate effectively'* (Boston Consulting Group, 1994: 20)

These findings confirm the importance of research into the whole area of intercultural relationships from an Australian standpoint. Whilst research from everywhere else in the world is necessary and valid, it is

clear that the Australian perspective would have an identity of its own and be very markedly more relevant in this context. One of the convictions which led to the undertaking of this project was that Australia has for too long imitated the processes and practices of other nations, while possessing a distinctively different national and cultural character which could render this imitation at the least less than effective and at the most decidedly harmful.

The initial possibilities considered as the basis of the project were that:

- organizational leadership behaviour patterns effective in one national cultural situation may be ineffective, even disastrous, in another.
- employee perceptions, influenced by personal and national values, attribute effectiveness in organizational leadership to those who act in one way rather than another, irrespective of actual effectiveness.
- awareness of perceptions being influenced by national culture would assist organizational leaders to adapt to their employees' needs in ways which would improve effective organizational leadership.

These possibilities were considered within the context of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia by an augmented replication of an international study based on the work of Misumi. The augmentation took the form of an attempt to determine the influence of a personal value set, taken from both national and personal values, upon the perceptions of organizational leadership held by employees. The general questions posed were formulated into six hypotheses, three adopted directly from the study being replicated and three specific to this project.

The research was conducted using a descriptive cross-sectional analysis of subordinate perceptions of their organizational leaders in a mixture of Australian, Singaporean and Malaysian companies. The instrument used combined that used in an international study of Misumi's PM leadership theory (Smith, Misumi *et al*, 1989) and further measures of national and personal values (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1989: Kahle and Kennedy, 1988). Analyses included analysis of frequencies, t-tests, crosstabs, principal components analysis, reliability analysis, factor comparability tests, correspondence analysis, cluster analysis and discriminant analysis.

It was found that the nations of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, insofar as this sample has represented them accurately, responded to Misumi's PM theory of leadership in a very similar way to the other nations previously studied, thus demonstrating the transferability of that theory across national cultures. It was also found that, of all the measures included in the analysis, those which distinguished individuals most clearly were simple behaviours which can be related to their national identity and national and personal values, although the value sets themselves did not reveal any generalized pattern of discrimination.

7.2 Conclusions

The results of the project in terms of the tested hypotheses are grouped together here as a summary of the findings. The first group of hypotheses were taken from the international study conducted by Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989:99), and concerned measures of leadership behaviours considered to be either general (likely to be interpreted in

the same way by respondents irrespective of situation) or specific (specific to the particular environment - in this instance probably interpreted differently by those from different national cultural situations) about which the respondents had been asked.

Hypothesis 1

> The factor structure of general measures of leader style will show high similarity across national cultures.

This hypothesis was supported. Two strong, reliable and stable factors were identified amongst the general measures, which agreed almost exactly with those of the international study. In addition, comparison of reliabilities of this data with reference to Misumi's original two factors showed the existence of the two general factors. This result confirms the existence of similar thinking and reaction within organizations on some criteria even though cultural, economic and, in this case, even occupational differences exist.

Hypothesis 2

> The factor structure of specific measures will vary between national cultures.

This was only partially supported, and in this agreed very closely with the earlier international study. Many of the behaviours considered to be specific to national cultural context did not, in fact, discriminate between employees from different nations at all clearly: some were able to be grouped into factors which were common to both national groups under consideration, thus extending, for this sample, the

behavioural measures interpreted in very similar ways by employees of both nations.

Hypothesis 3

> Specific measures will show different relations to general measures across national cultures, and the pattern of these differences will be explainable in terms of the leadership values espoused within each national culture.

This hypothesis also had partial support, since many supposedly specific behavioural measures did not, in reality, show different relations in the two national cultures observed, as was noted in the discussion on hypothesis two. However, those measures which did show differences did so strongly, and they could be clearly attributable to national cultural differences.

In comparing these results with the work of Misumi, the general factors agree closely with those determined and verified by his studies over many years. He has tested them repeatedly in many different types of organizational context, and international studies including that of Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) extended these contexts to crossnational situations without a great deal of change in effect. Since the current project's results accord very closely with the 1989 study which it replicated, and similarly to earlier single-nation studies, it seems reasonable to conclude that the general measures are constant across situational contexts of all sorts, whether these be occupational, geographic or cultural.

The picture for the specific factors is less clear. Misumi has consistently asserted that some behaviours will be judged differently by employees in different situations, and has changed these measures according to the particular organizational environment under investigation. The current project, while considering the different contexts of Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, did not have a common organizational situation about which to ask relevant questions, so the items had to be made less situation-specific. This may have made them more general as regards occupation, but did not alter their specificity in regard to national culture, so the lack of clear definition for these measures suggests either that there are considerably more 'general' measures of leadership behaviour than Misumi suggests, or that the three nations in this study have a great deal in common in regard to their attitudes and interpretation of individual leadership behaviours.

In relation to the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) international study, this project had very similar results, both for the general and for the specific variables. This study added to the broadening of the applicability of Misumi's work from different occupational environments to different national environments, showing the 'general' measures to be indeed 'general', with qualified support as to the differentiation shown by the 'specific' measures. In a sense, it also added two more nations to the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) study, since essentially the same procedures were carried out.

The most interesting feature of the strong similarity between the current and the Smith, Misumi *et al* (1989) investigation is that

supposedly job-related behaviours were used as the specific measures in the former study. Mention has already been made of this as a possible limitation on the replicability of the current project, since it was not feasible in this case to use only electronics plant employees, and the same questions (with very minor amendments) were used for employees from a variety of organizational contexts. There was still very close similarity with the 1989 results, even though the respondents surveyed were not occupationally related.

This could have been thought to be a key factor, since all their respondents came from the same kind of employment, and worked at the same levels, thus providing a series of controls over the differences observed. The sample used in the current project was heterogeneous as to both job and position in the company, thus eliminating these as similarity factors; in spite of these potential limitations on the compatibility of the two studies, however, the results showed remarkable agreement. The commonness between the studies was in the use of different nations. The inference from this is that differences in occupation, or of level within the company, have actually a far lesser significance than might have been expected, and that nationality is a significant differentiating feature. Misumi's work has repeatedly shown that different jobs and situations call for different sorts of 'specific' behaviours by which to judge leadership or group allegiance. It seems likely, in view of the results of this project, that different national cultural identity is also influential in the perceptions of employees regarding their superiors and workgroups.

The second group of hypotheses were specific to this study and sought to explore the effects, if any, of espoused national and personal values on employee perceptions of organizational leadership.

Hypothesis 4

> Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian workers' perceptions of leadership style will align with the two-factor PM concept.

This hypothesis gained unqualified support for the general measures of organizational leadership behaviour, but only some of the 'specific' measures could be confidently classified as aligning with the PM concept: hence this hypothesis is partially supported.

Hypothesis 5

> Australian and Singaporean/Malaysian employees will have specific perceptions of leader behaviour which will be similar within their own national culture, but will differ from those in other national cultures.

This hypothesis is only partially supported, since many of what had been supposed to be behaviours which could be interpreted in different ways by the employees of different national cultural situations were, in fact, seen in very similar ways. However, the relatively small group of behaviours which were interpreted differently by Australians and Singaporean/Malaysians formed cohesive patterns within each national culture, so, to that extent, this hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 6

> The personal value system of individuals will influence/have a bearing on their views of leadership. In particular, a personal

value system, as measured by the two value tests used in this project, will result in a measurable amendment in perceptions of organizational leadership.

This hypothesis is not supported by these results, since the national and personal values which go together to produce respondents' own personal value systems did not descriminate in any definable way between the members of the two groups identified. The only truly distinguishing feature was the national identity of the respondents. This finding is in agreement with Laurent (1986) and with Hofstede's (1980, 1983, 1991) work: he, while examining a multitude of measures of all sorts, found that the most important distinguishing feature between all employees was their nationality.

7.3 Questions for further investigation

Whilst this project has confirmed that some behaviours are perceived significantly differently by respondents in different nations in relation to their perceptions of organizational leadership, it has not revealed a clear pattern of behaviours which either distinguish between organizational leaders in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia or which show the kinds of leadership behaviours which employees from any of the three nations would consider the hallmark of an effective organizational leader. There may be several reasons for this. Firstly, a leader in any situation is regarded as effective when the operations or people led are successful, and ineffective if, for whatever reason, they fail. The career of many sporting captains, coaches or political leaders could be cited as evidence for this: Allan Border was considered both a brilliant leader and a total failure during his long career as captain of

Australia's cricket team - the change was not in Border himself, but in the prevailing situation of success or failure of the team to win test matches. This attribution of effectiveness to the person in the position of leadership in successful undertakings can mask the particularities of effective leadership, and make unbiased assessment of effective leadership behaviours very difficult to achieve. In the situations which this project explored, respondents views of effective leadership behaviour were probably influenced, possibly considerably, by considerations such as these. The perceived success of the organization under consideration would be a useful monitor for attributions of the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of organizational leaders, and would make an interesting avenue for further investigation.

Secondly, the use of the English language as the means of gathering information from countries which use English as their official language, while apparently sensible, may not be as effective as it would appear on the surface. There are semantic differences in the use of words even between closely associated groups of people; between people of different nations and cultures these semantic differences could be very significant (Mehta, 1972; Harvey-Jones. 1992). Misunderstandings, or differing attributions of intended meaning can occur from a denotative or a connotative perspective, and this would be especially important in the determination of what is actually understood in terms of values. The current project was conducted in English, and this was not considered a limitation since all employees were English-speaking, at least in their employment situation. However, there may have been a hidden limitation present in the interpretation of significant meaning

from words, especially in the area of values. On another occasion, it would be good to explore this possibility.

Thirdly, the common colonial background of all three nations under investigation gives them some common linkage, and quite possibly has formed part of a shared culture which would be particularly evident in an organizational environment. While the national makeup of the three countries is very different, each has a history of British rule, and the influence of this upon organizational culture, if not upon national culture, is very strong. Some habits established during the colonial period can be long-lasting: an amusing example of this is an ICI factory in India, established and managed by a team from Scotland, which still celebrates Burns' night every year, although no Scotsmen have been there for about twenty years (Harvey-Jones,1992). It is inevitable that countries with a common history, type of governmental system or much mutual interaction will share some common ground in organizational perceptions. Possibly the three nations under investigation, near neighbours, trading partners, sharing some aspects of a common history, and amongst whom there is a considerable amount of interaction had more similarities of view regarding organizational leadership behaviours than would be initially apparent. On another occasion it would be good to compare countries with a greater amount of distinction in order to isolate national culture-specific behaviours of organizational leaders.

There is a definite need for considerably more research in the area of personal and national values, and the creation of measuring

instruments which are truly international. There were limitations attached to both of the tests used in this project: Hofstede and Bond (1984:421) emphasised the pseudoetic quality of many values tests, by which is meant using the emic categories of one culture and imposing these as supposedly universal categories on another. They included the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) in this category, and the Hawkins, Best and Coney set of cultural values could certainly also not be described as universal, at least as far as their descriptions of the orientations of groups of values within their test were concerned. In contrast, although the LOV test was based upon the RVS, it has had considerable crossnational usage, and has proved reliable internationally (Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990; Grunert, Grunert and Beatty, 1989).

In addition to the more generalized plea for increased research into national and cultural values, and their impact upon behaviours, perceptions and relationships, there is also need for research in narrower frames of reference related to organizations which operate internationally or which have a multicultural workforce. One of these research directions would be into the discovery of ways to determine culturally appropriate behaviours for managers in intercultural contexts. Another would be into the determination of the linkages which exist between national cultural values and employee attitudes towards managerial encounters and behaviours. In the increasingly intercultural organizational world of Australia and South-East Asia, the challenges, questions and opportunities abound for research work which will lead to more effective and interdependent relations.

7.4 Recommendations

Further study into the areas of intercultural employee perceptions of organizational leadership, or cultural values impacting upon an international workforce, would benefit from the use of much larger samples than were available in the present study. This limited the cultural subgroups which could be considered, and forced the amalgamation of Singapore and Malaysia into a single national group, which was not an ideal arrangement. Another improvement would have been the use of nations which were more clearly distinct historically, governmentally and geographically as well as ethnically, as has been noted earlier.

In undertaking further research it would be beneficial to ascertain some of the more culturally-specific behaviours which could be expected to differentiate between members of the particular nations under investigation. Focus groups and/or personal discussion with trusted overseas counterparts would be useful means to employ to determine managerial/leadership acts which each nation considers effective in their sphere. These could be separated into:

- behaviours/actions expected of organizational managers/leaders in the specific environment being investigated.
- behaviours/actions which cause difficulty or offence in the particular situation being studied.
- reasons for these expectations or offences.

By this means it should be possible to determine some of the behaviours which would truly show the day-to-day outworkings of the cultural and personal values of the employees of the organization, and

thus assist intercultural organizational leaders to adapt meaningfully to their environment.

The importance of this kind of research project, focussing on the actions of those in positions of organizational leadership and taking into account the specific national context and cultural values of their employees, has been pointed out previously. The knowledge acquired from such projects can be applied with benefit both within the nations under consideration because of the intercultural nature of their population, and in their relations with other nations because of the need for international economic survival and competitiveness.

These reasons are especially true for Australia. On the internal front the population is increasingly culturally diverse, and a commitment to improved relationships based on the understanding of the values-bases of the varied workforce is an imperative (James,1991). The increasing development of economic ties with overseas nations, particularly in Asia, makes operation in an intercultural environment no longer an option, but a necessity, and, as the Industry Task Force report has pointed out, this means that Australian managers and business leaders need to focus on developing and mastering intercultural working relationships of many sorts (Boston Consulting Group, 1994). It has been observed that Australian managers overseas do not enjoy a reputation of effectiveness. This has been attributed largely to inadequate management skills. However, it is possible that individuals, in situations which produce the impression of ineffective

management skills, could actually be exhibiting some form of intercultural ineptitude.

This area needs much more close scrutiny and definition, but observation of intercultural exchanges will confirm that an action or behaviour on the part of one person can cause offence to another, and the first remain totally unaware of it. The offence, as apparently insignificant as the mispronunciation of a name, may be a substantial hindrance to further business progress, and thus appear to be a lack in managerial skill, whereas in fact it demonstrates cultural insensitivity to the effect on the business partner of not taking care to pronounce a name correctly. Even small problems such as this one have caused difficulties for Australian managers overseas, and point out how important it is for all Australians to learn to appreciate and value the things which are of importance to those with whom they wish to deal.

Australia enjoys the distinction of inhabiting the only island continent in the world, and perhaps this geographical feature tends to create an insular outlook similar to that enjoyed for so long by the other island nation from which we have inherited so much. Hilmer tends to confirm this thought in his statement: *"Australian culture and history have created a barrier to change that will not be easy to overcome. Determination and dedication by strong leaders are badly needed"* (Hilmer, 1985: 137). This is a time in the history of the world when closer ties, increased understanding and greater cooperative and competitive interaction are essential for the continuation and success of any nation. Those in positions of organizational leadership in Australia and in

South-East Asia are in a good position to demonstrate that strong leadership in an organizational context by acceptance, knowledge and sensitive application of their understanding of the importance of national cultural and personal values in their own behaviour and in the perceptions, attitudes and behaviours of their employees.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 **1959 Misumi Questionnaire and factor loadings**
(Misumi and Peterson 1985:207)

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 1 has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 2 **Questionnaire from 1989 International Study**
(Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson and Bond, 1989)

Leadership and Work Team Survey - 1

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 2 (pp236-244) has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 3 Questionnaire from the Current study

LEADERSHIP AND NATIONAL CULTURE

Dear Respondent,

As part of my course of study towards a Masters Degree in Business, I am conducting research into leadership in different national contexts, attempting to determine whether leadership in one country is, or needs to be, different from that in other countries. Discerning possible differences could be useful in enabling business in any national or international situation to select and/or train more effective leaders.

The enclosed questionnaire examines certain aspects of leadership in your current situation. Many questions consider your superior/supervisor: in these cases regard "my superior" as being the person directly above you in the organization, and consider his/her actions during approximately the last six months. Later questions ask for your own personal opinions in a more general way.

All responses will be strictly confidential to myself and the others directly involved in the research: Professor Geoffrey Soutar, Associate Professor Samir Chatterjee and Dr Malcolm Innes-Brown. If you would like a summary of the results please put your name and address on the separate sheet provided: there is no need for you to put your name on the questionnaire itself.

The research is totally dependent upon you for its success, and I hope you will take the time to fill in the questionnaire and place it in its sealed envelope for collection as soon as possible. It will probably take approximately twenty minutes to complete.

Thank you so much for your help. If you have any questions about the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact either Associate Professor Samir Chatterjee (351 7729) or myself (Pamela Hedges 351 3084).

Yours faithfully,

Pamela Hedges
(Masters Student, School of Management)

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

There are several different instructions regarding answering the questions. Most questions require you to circle a number according to the response which most closely agrees with your opinion. The actual responses are boxed at the head of the group of questions. For example:-

always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
1	2	3	4	5

My supervisor takes an active interest in my work	1	2	3	4	5

Other questions ask you to pick the most suitable word for a sentence, or to tick the most fitting alternative.

Please read the instructions carefully before answering each question

Please circle the number corresponding most accurately to your personal view.

always	usually	sometimes	rarely	never
1	2	3	4	5

My superior lets me know about plans and tasks for my day to day work	1	2	3	4	5
When I ask my superior to improve the facilities needed for my work, he or she tries to do so	1	2	3	4	5
My superior gives me instructions and orders	1	2	3	4	5
My superior tries to understand my viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5
My supervisor sets clear deadlines for completing the work when giving me assignments	1	2	3	4	5
When a problem arises in the workplace, my superior asks my opinion about how to solve it	1	2	3	4	5
My superior treats me fairly	1	2	3	4	5
My superior requires me to report on the progress of my work	1	2	3	4	5
My superior is concerned about my personal problems	1	2	3	4	5
My superior is strict about observing regulations	1	2	3	4	5
My superior is concerned about my future career success	1	2	3	4	5
My superior gives me recognition when I do my job well	1	2	3	4	5
My superior tries to make me work to my maximum capacity	1	2	3	4	5
My superior generally supports me	1	2	3	4	5
My superior is strict about the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5

always 1	usually 2	sometimes 3	rarely 4	never 5

When I do an inadequate job, my superior focuses on the inadequate way the job was done and not on my personality	1	2	3	4	5
When my superior learns that any subordinate is experiencing personal difficulties,my superior :-					
a. discusses the matter sympathetically with the person concerned	1	2	3	4	5
b. discusses the matter in the person's absence with other members of the work group	1	2	3	4	5
c. arranges for other members to help with the person's workload	1	2	3	4	5
When work group members make suggestions for improvements, my superior accepts them	1	2	3	4	5
My superior seeks the group's help in finding solutions when there is a substantial problem in their work procedures	1	2	3	4	5
When I or any other worker experience personal difficulties we feel free to tell our superior about them	1	2	3	4	5
My working time is wasted because of inadequate planning and organization on the part of my superior	1	2	3	4	5
Management fails to inform me about things I ought to know	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the response from the choice of words which would best fit in the gap in the sentence

extremely 1	very 2	fairly 3	not so 4	not at all 5

My superior is _____ knowledgeable about the resources or facilities for which I am responsible	1	2	3	4	5
I can talk _____ easily with my superior regarding my work	1	2	3	4	5
My superior works out plans for goal achievement each month _____precisely	1	2	3	4	5
My superior urges me to complete work within a specified time _____ strongly	1	2	3	4	5
My superior trusts me _____ strongly	1	2	3	4	5
My superior keeps in _____ close touch with other parts of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
My superior values _____ highly the suggestions and opinions I bring up at meetings	1	2	3	4	5

very great extent 1	great extent 2	moderate extent 3	small extent 4	very small extent 5

When I face an unfamiliar problem in my work, the action I take is affected by each of the following:-

a. formal rules and procedures	1	2	3	4	5
b. unwritten rules about company and departmental policy	1	2	3	4	5
c. specialists outside my department	1	2	3	4	5
d. other people at my level	1	2	3	4	5
e. my superior	1	2	3	4	5
f. opinions based on my own experience and training	1	2	3	4	5
g. beliefs which are widely accepted in my country about what is right	1	2	3	4	5

In my usual day to day work, the actions I take are affected by each of the following:-

a. formal rules and procedures	1	2	3	4	5
b. unwritten rules about company and departmental policy	1	2	3	4	5
c. specialists outside my department	1	2	3	4	5
d. other people at my level	1	2	3	4	5
e. my superior	1	2	3	4	5
f. opinions based on my own experience and training	1	2	3	4	5
g. beliefs which are widely accepted in my country about what is right	1	2	3	4	5

hourly 1	daily 2	weekly 3	monthly 4	every few months 5	yearly 6	never 7

On average my superior:-

a. checks with immediate subordinates concerning the quality of their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. talks about progress in relation to a work schedule	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. demonstrates or uses any of the resources used by the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. instructs me on how to increase my job skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. sends me written notes or memos instead of speaking to me in person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. explains to me how to carry out a new task	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I spend time with my superior:-

a. socially	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. discussing my career and plans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. talking about immediate work problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
On average, my superior meets the work group for social or recreational purposes outside working hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My work group as a whole has meetings with my superior	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Communication with members of other workgroups in the organization on the same level as myself usually takes place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For the following questions please place a tick beside the answer which corresponds most closely with your opinion

My superior would show disapproval of an immediate subordinate who regularly arrived late for work by:-

- ☐ 1 minute
- ☐ 5 minutes
- ☐ 15 minutes
- ☐ 30 minutes or more
- ☐ my superior would not react

Compared to others in the group, my superior dresses :-

- ☐ exactly like others
- ☐ somewhat differently
- ☐ quite like others
- ☐ entirely differently

My superior usually eats lunch:-

- ☐ in organization's canteen
- ☐ elsewhere at work
- ☐ does not usually eat lunch
- ☐ in his/her office
- ☐ not at work

My superior eats lunch with other members of the work group:-

- ☐ every day
- ☐ once or twice weekly
- ☐ never
- ☐ most days
- ☐ less than weekly

My superior would hope I would make about this number of suggestions for work improvements during any month:-

- ☐ 11 or more
- ☐ 3 to 5
- ☐ none
- ☐ 5 to 10
- ☐ 1 or 2

The proportion of the day I am within sight of my superior is usually:-

- ☐ more than 90%
- ☐ 50%
- ☐ less than 10%
- ☐ 75%
- ☐ 25%

My superior evaluates my work in relation to that of the group I work with:-

- ☐ entirely the group's work
- ☐ partly group partly me
- ☐ entirely my own work
- ☐ mostly the group's work
- ☐ mostly my own work

The amount of my entitlement to paid holidays I took in the past 12 months was:-

- ☐ all
- ☐ about half
- ☐ none
- ☐ most
- ☐ less than half

The people consulted when substantially new work procedures are being discussed are:-

- ☐ all of those affected
- ☐ most of those affected
- ☐ some of those affected
- ☐ few people
- ☐ hardly anyone

My superior is usually at work each week, compared to other members of the group:-

- ☐ over 4 hours more
- ☐ 1-4 hours more
- ☐ about the same
- ☐ 1-4 hours less
- ☐ over 4 hours less

My superior is usually at work each week, compared to official work hours:-

- ☐ over 4 hours more
- ☐ 1-4 hours more
- ☐ about the same
- ☐ 1-4 hours less
- ☐ over 4 hours less

My superior's attitude to my communicating with members of other workgroups:-

- ☐ requires it
- ☐ expects it
- ☐ encourages it
- ☐ not clear
- ☐ tolerates or discourages it

My superior's attitude to my helping co-workers with their work problems:-

- ☐ requires it
- ☐ expects it
- ☐ encourages it
- ☐ not clear
- ☐ tolerates or discourages it

I usually address my superior:-

- ☐ by personal given name
- ☐ do not use name
- ☐ by formal or family name
- ☐ by rank and family name

The amount of information available to my superior concerning the organization's plans and performance which is shared with the group is:-

- ☐ all
- ☐ most
- ☐ some
- ☐ little
- ☐ none

The number of hours I spend discussing work problems with three or more people from my workgroup at the same time is usually:-

- ☐ 5 hours or more daily
- ☐ 4 hours daily
- ☐ 3 hours daily
- ☐ 2 hours daily
- ☐ 1 hour daily or less

This page asks about your own personal views, not those of your superior.

Below is a list of common national cultural values. Indicate on the 7 point scale where your nation is positioned in terms of these extremes in values.

individual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	collective
tradition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	change
humour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	seriousness
youth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	age
maximum cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	minimum cleanliness
problem solving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fatalistic
masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	feminine
postponed gratification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	immediate gratification
admire nature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	overcome nature
competition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cooperation
risk taking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	security
sensual gratification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	abstinence
hard work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	leisure
romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	nonromantic
material	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	nonmaterial
adult	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	child
performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	status
active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	passive

This section asks about the things that influence your everyday life. Please circle the number corresponding to how important these things are to you personally.

extremely important	very important	quite important	not very important	not at all important
1	2	3	4	5

Having a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5
Having an exciting life	1	2	3	4	5
Having fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5
Having warm relationships with others	1	2	3	4	5
Being self-fulfilled in life	1	2	3	4	5
Being well-respected	1	2	3	4	5
Obtaining a sense of accomplishment in life	1	2	3	4	5
Having security in life	1	2	3	4	5
Gaining self-respect	1	2	3	4	5

Finally, it would be helpful if you would provide some details about yourself.

1 How old are you?

☐ under 20 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or over

2. Are you male or female? ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

☐ minimum years of high school
☐ completed senior high school
☐ some further education course
☐ completed tertiary training course
☐ completed university degree
☐ post-graduate courses or degree

4. In what country were you born? _____

In what country were your parents born? Mother_____Father_____

If not born in the same country as you now live, how long have you lived here?_____

5. What nationality do you consider yourself? _____

6. At what level in your organization is the superior/supervisor you have answered questions about?

☐ executive management ☐ middle management ☐ first level supervisor

7. How many levels of management are there in your organization (from first level supervisors to the CEO)?_____

8. How many levels of management are there above you? _____

9. What nationality is your immediate superior? _____

10. For how many years have you worked in this organization?

☐ less than 1 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16 or over

Thank you very much indeed for the time and effort you have spent in answering these questions.

Appendix 4 **Hofstede's four cultural dimensions**
(Hofstede, 1980)

Value of four indices for fifty countries (with rank numbers and three regions)

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 4 has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 5 **Rokeach's instrumental and terminal values**
(Rokeach, 1973)

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 5 has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 6

Hall's cultural levels
(Hall, 1980)

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(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 7 **Hawkins, Best and Coney's three cultural groupings**
(Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1989)

Personal values

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 7 has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 8 **Hawkins, Best and Coney item descriptions**
(adapted from Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1989: 49-57)

Note: For copyright reasons the full text of Appendix 8 (pp257-8) has not been reproduced.

(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)

Appendix 9 **List of Values item description and earlier USA results**
(adapted from Kahle and Kennedy, 1988: 115)

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(Co-ordinator, ADT Project (Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 7.11.02)